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General Survey

Lower Birthrate Will Seriously Affect Education and Economy

The aging of Japanese society and the trend of a lower birthrate are accelerating, said the Ministry of Health and Welfare in a recent report. According to future population projections for Japan estimated in January 1997, the overall birthrate (the average number of children that a Japanese woman will have in her lifetime) dropped sharply below 2.08, which is necessary number to maintain the present population, to an all-time low of 1.42 in 1995. By the middle of the 21st century, Japan will become the world's most aged society with one in three persons age 65 or older. From this report, the Ministry has published a brochure, titled "Considering Fewer Children," which shows that the aging population and lower birthrate which are far more serious than predicted. The brochures will be distributed prefectural offices and other places such as health-care centers to seek citizens' understanding as well as their views and opinions.

The 20-page brochure incorporates seven items including "Japan's Current Situation," "Reasons for a Declining Birthrate" "The Effects of a Declining Birthrate." In the Declining Birthrate section of the brochure, the Ministry points out that amidst the high tendency for males and females to put off marriage, the rate of unmarried women aged 25 to 29 rose 30 to 50 percent between 1985 and 1995. Also, it notes that from the results of an opinion poll, women's greater mobility in society and their improved economic power and freedom of an unmarried life lie behind women's tendency to marry in later years. In the Effects of a Declining Birthrate section, the Ministry lists the negative effects the falling birthrate may have on Japanese society: lower economic power, greater social security burden on the working population restricted labor supply, and declining children's social character.

The Ministry fears that the falling birthrate will directly produce a shrinking productive-age population (age 15 to 64) and will lead to a steadily heavier social-security burden such as medical care and welfare provisions. Comparing the productive-age population and the elderly population age 65 and over, for instance, currently, 4.8 persons in the productive-age population support one older person, but in 2050, only 1.7 persons will support one elderly person. "The new estimates will necessitate an overhaul of the rate of burden for pensions in particular," says the Ministry.

Working Conditions and the Labor Market

Monthly Labor Survey: Second Straight Year-on-Year Rise for Total Annual Work Hours

According to a Monthly Labor Survey (a preliminary release) published on January 31 by the Ministry of Labour, annual working hours at establishments with 30 or more employees in 1996 totaled 1,919 hours, 10 hours more than the year before. Total annual work hours (figured at 12 times the monthly work hours), which increased for the first time in 8 years in 1995, continued to increase in 1996, again topping the 1993 level of 1,913 hours. Of the 1,919 hours, non-scheduled hours totaled 145, an increase of 8 hours, and scheduled hours totaled 1,774 an increase of 2 hours, over the previous year. This indicates that enterprises responded to the economic recovery by increasing overtime hours. Scheduled hours also experienced the first rise in 9 years since 1987. The reduction in work hours, which had progressed steadily since 1988, seems to have halted.

However, 1996 was a year of change in survey samples and adjustments as indices were used to make a time-sequential comparison. With this change, total monthly work hours rose 0.3 percent year-on-year and total non-scheduled hours gained 7.1 percent, but total scheduled hours shrank 0.2 percent. Due in part to the leap year of 1996, which had one day more than regular years, the Ministry of Labour did not change its view that "shorter work hours are steadily progressing."

At establishments with 5 or more employees, total annual work hours were 1,919, scheduled hours were 1,796 hours and non-scheduled hours 123 hours. Factoring in adjustments to total monthly hours to compare with the figures for the previous year led to a 0.1 percent gain in total monthly hours of work, a 6.2 percent rise in non-scheduled hours and a 0.3 percent drop in scheduled hours.

The survey also showed trends in the 1996 average of regular workers. In 1996, regular workers at establishments with 5 or more employees increased 0.8 percent. In more detail, regular workers remained at a 0.1 percent increase but part-timers posted a high 4.6 percent rise. On the other hand, at establishments with 30 or more employees, regular workers were down an overall 0.4 percent year-on-year. Regular workers were down 0.7 percent but part-timers were up 1.2 percent. Even at establishments with 30 or more workers, part-timers were on an uptrend.

Human Resources Management

Present State of Cafeteria-Style Welfare Provisions

With the aging and the diversification of employees' needs, the traditional system of

welfare provisions, that offered employees uniform services has come under review. There is a growing interest in a cafeteria-style system of welfare provisions as a possible options. A cafeteria-style system is one in which employees can select what they need from a menu of welfare provisions prepared by the company. On a point scale menu, employees can utilize only those points given to them. Of major corporations, Benesse Corporation and the Seiyu, Ltd., have already introduced the cafeteria-style system. Employees at Benesse Corporation can use 92 points (¥1,000 for one point) in a year. The menu items include use of rented company housing, a subsidy for medical care, assistance for child care and nursing care for elderly and ill persons and a subsidy for private pensions. Of these menu items, many employees use "housing" and "day-care facilities." The company's mutual aid association provides such basic portions of welfare provisions as marriages and funerals, medical care and utilization of recreation facilities. The cafeteria-style menu is intended to make up for welfare provisions offered by the mutual aid association "in case of emergencies." Starting in April 1997, Hankyu Corporation will inaugurate a plan that adopts a partial cafeteria-style system. Under the soon-to-be established system, welfare provisions are divided into two parts, a "basic menu" and an "optional menu." Items, such as dorms for singles, housing for employees' families, in-house savings plans and the cafeteria, which are already place and are not compatible with the option system, are in available as the "basic menu" to enable employees to freely utilize option items as before. The "optional menu" includes a subsidy for housing expenses, assistance for child care, nursing care for elderly and ill persons and education, assistance for self-enrichment activities, entertainment and travel. The number of points is set for each item and employees can utilize up to 500 points annually (1 point has a value of ¥1,000).

The Ministry of Labour recently released the results of its Survey on In-house Welfare in Response to Structural Changes in the Economy (commissioned to NLI Research Institute). According to the survey's results, at large companies with 1,000 or more employees, only around 1 percent have inaugurated a cafeteria-style system of welfare provisions and 27.7 percent were planning or studying possible implementation of the system. While the system is recognized by more companies, nearly half replied, "We know of the system but have no plan to implement it." Furthermore, the following problems were pointed out: some measures and policies such as company housing cannot be counted on a point scale; it is difficult to secure a financial source for a substantiated optional menu; and there are no adequate manuals for introducing the system available. Thus, prospects for greater utilization of the new system are dim.

Outline of JIL-sponsored International Workshop: International Migration and the Labor Markets in Asia

On January 30 and 31, the Japan Institute of Labour (JIL), in cooperation with the Japanese government, hosted a workshop on "International Migration and the Labor Markets in Asia." The workshop was attended by administrators and experts from nine Asian countries, including Japan, as well as by experts from the International Labor Office (ILO) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The event, the third of its kind, aims to monitor socioeconomic policies and international migration in Asian countries.

In recent years, growing numbers of Asian nations have two faces, one of accepting labor and the other of sending workers abroad. They allow foreign workers into their metropolitan areas, while on the other hand, they send their workers from rural communities offshore.

The Philippines has long been sending its workers off to other countries throughout the world. But it has tightened restrictions on the exit of unskilled workers. Reporting on Philippine government policy, Chona-Sienes Yap, Director of the International Labor Affairs Service, said that "we will gradually decrease the outflow of maids and entertainers over the next five years and will deregulate the inflow and exit of professional people."

In Thailand, which both sends and receives workers and experiences many illegal exits and entries, the government has instituted a new policy intended to gain deeper insights into the realities of illegal exits and entries and halt them, while granting illegals permission to work to some extent. Under the new policy, the Thai government will offer two-year work permits in Myanmar, Laos and Cambodia to those applying for them. The governments of Singapore and Philippines intend to further strengthen penalties for businesses that employ illegal workers and are now moving to indict many illegals, particularly in construction where many are engaged unlawfully.

The workshop also featured a special session on economic development in Northern Asia and ASEAN regions in which the Singapore-Johore-Indonesia Growth Triangle (SIJORI) was introduced. The SIJORI concept is a plan under which Singapore will supply high technologies and Malaysia and Indonesia will provide labor and natural resources, to jointly improve industrial technologies. In 1989, the Singapore government created the SIJORI concept and since then, it has been steadily developed. In and around the Batam Islands of Indonesia, it was pointed out that wages sharply increased locally and a comparative edge for inviting foreign investment would be lost.

In addition, reports were given on the current state of and tasks for Northern Growth

Triangle (Indonesia, Northern Thailand, Southern Thailand and Malaysia) and Eastern Growth Triangle (Malaysia, the Philippines and Indonesia), which were modeled on the SIJORI.

Summarizing the workshop, Prof. Yasushi Iguchi of Kwansei Gakuin University, who chaired the workshop, stressed the significance of continual monitoring. He added that in the future the workshop would like to improve guidelines for more effective comparisons by clarifying the concept to allow analysis of the roles of immigrants in the labor market.

Public Policy

Illegal Foreign Worker Awarded Three Years of Income Lost Because of On-the-Job Accident

Japan's Immigration Control System does not allow legal entry into Japan of unskilled workers. In reality, however, many foreigners are unlawfully engaged in unskilled labor such as those who entered Japan as a temporary visitor (tourist) and who overstayed the visa and began working. The Ministry of Justice estimates say that there are presently about 250,000 foreigners illegally in Japan and unlawfully working here. The number of foreigners actually indicted for illegal work and deported from Japan were about 10,000.

Amidst this situation, in January 1997 the Supreme Court ruled on a lawsuit involving the loss of future income to a 51-year-old Pakistani illegal worker who was injured while working in Japan. The issue of contention was "whether income losses should be estimated based on his income in Japan or they should be calculated based on his expected income in Pakistan." The Supreme Court ordered the Japanese company who employed the Pakistani man to pay damages. Concerning a compensation for the illegal workers injured on the job, the Supreme Court already passed a judgment that they "should be awarded damages unless they violated public order and morals." And it was the first ruling by the Supreme Court regarding future income losses claimed by an illegal foreign worker in Japan.

Presiding Judge Tsuneo Kabe said in the ruling that undocumented workers could not work long in Japan, thus supporting a previous decision by the Tokyo High Court. The Tokyo High Court ruled that losses should be estimated on the basis of his income in Japan for three years and the remainder should be calculated on the basis of his expected income in Pakistan. Noting that there is no reason for estimated losses to be any different whether the defendant is a Japanese citizen or a foreigner, he said that "the estimated period of future work in Japan should take into consideration in the foreigner's individual situation." In the ruling, the court said that the Pakistani man's estimated losses should be based on his monthly income of

about ¥170,000 for three years in Japan. In addition, the court added a sum proportionate to about 39 years of the salary he could have earned in Pakistan, where he would work until age 67. The court calculated his prospective income in Pakistan at ¥30,000 a month.

Special Topic

Regional Mobility of Japan's Workers - Making the U-, J- and I-Turn* -

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Full-fledged Return to Regional Cities

Labor mobility between regions in Japan has up until recently continued to exhibit a surplus flow of people into Tokyo and the metropolitan areas from rural areas, causing overpopulation in cities and depopulation in rural areas. It was in the 1960s that the concentration of population and overcrowding in big cities and the depopulation of regional areas began to pose the problem. From around that time, debate started on a plan to move the nation's capital and its political, administrative functions. The onset of the first oil-supply crisis, however, slowed down flow of the population into metropolitan areas, thus temporarily silencing the debate. But again in the mid-1980s the over-concentration of economic activities in metropolitan areas became pronounced, in turn triggering the decentralization of power and polarizing the development of national land. The Diet adopted a resolution calling for the transfer of the Diet and other government organizations to a new capital to make another city perform the functions of the capital.

In recent years, the excessive flow of people into the three major metropolitan regions has reversed. Starting in 1974 the Osaka region has been witnessing a surplus outflow of its people. Then in 1994 Tokyo, too, saw a surplus of its people moving out. In 1993 the number of people who moved into local regions, excluding the three major metropolitan areas, due to a new jobs, was 305,500; but the number leaving these areas was 289,000, which meant an excessive inflow of 16,500 people in these areas. This indicates that the excessive number leaving local regions until 1992 was reversed, and this trend was notable among employed

persons age 20 and older. Why did they move from one place to another? According to a 1991 survey on the movement of the population conducted by the Ministry of Health and Welfare's Institute of Population Problems, people who moved for career reasons accounted for 9.4 percent of all those who moved, including those moving within the same prefecture; but those who moved a long distance into other regions, excluding those who moved within the same prefecture, represented a high 24.4 percent. And compared to those who moved a long distance into the three major metropolitan areas and their counterparts into local regions for reasons of occupation, the former represented 21.7 percent, while the latter represented 30.4 percent, nearly a 10 percent difference. This is in contrast to the fact that many people move into the three major metropolitan areas for reasons of housing.

In the 1995 Survey on Employment Trends, as shown in Table 1 which depict us a clockwise excessive inflow of people, Southern Kyushu, Shikoku, Sanyo, Sanin, Kinki, Hokuriku and Northern Kanto regions saw more persons moving in, while on the other hand, Northern Kyushu, Keihanshin, Southern Kanto, Tohoku and Hokkaido still experience a surplus outflow of their residents. In short, in Tohoku and Hokkaido the recession has not deterred the outflow of people but it reversed the flow of people into the over-inflow. This indicates that Hokkaido and Tohoku still see a surplus in workers with more people moving out, but Southern Kyushu, Shikoku, Sanin and Hokuriku witness a dwindling supply of labor. Also, in Kinki and Northern Kanto which are outlying regions of the overpopulated areas, there is a notable inflow of people, forming the structure of people moving out from the central areas of big cities into the outlying areas.

Table 1. Movement between Regions (Rate of Excessive Inflow)
(%)

| | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 |
|-----------------|------|------|------|------|
| Hokkaido | -5.9 | -1.2 | -2.5 | -1.7 |
| Tohoku | -5.5 | -0.3 | -2.9 | -0.7 |
| Northern Kanto | 4.9 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 7.9 |
| Southern Kanto | -0.3 | 1.7 | -1.3 | -5.4 |
| Hokuriku | 1.1 | 1.1 | 4.8 | 4.6 |
| Tokai | 6.0 | -1.2 | 1.5 | 0.1 |
| Kinki | -6.2 | -2.9 | 4.9 | 2.3 |
| Keihanshin | -0.1 | -6.2 | -5.9 | -5.1 |
| Sanin | 3.6 | 7.5 | 6.3 | 2.9 |
| Sanyo | -2.3 | -0.3 | 1.8 | 9.0 |
| Shikoku | 2.1 | 6.0 | 4.3 | 8.0 |
| Northern Kyushu | -1.8 | -6.5 | -0.7 | -5.5 |
| Southern Kyushu | -2.2 | 4.6 | 0.4 | 2.2 |

Source: Ministry of Labour, *Report of Survey on Employment Trends*

Steady Growth in Local Business and Increase in Regional Returnees

As seen above, we are witnessing a major trend in the return to regional cities which is increasingly taking root. The population concentrating in large cities tends to spread out into the outlying areas. Due in part to an improved infrastructure, such as expressway networks, increasing numbers of businesses are being created or moved to the area near expressway interchanges. Also, retail stores such as roadside shops and suburban shopping centers with spacious parking lots are growing.

Until around the collapse of the "bubble" economy, many businesses made inroads into local areas for because of worker shortages in metropolitan areas. However, the subsequent economic slump and the sudden rise in the yen made such manufacturing sectors as electrical machinery, automobiles, precision machinery, apparel and general merchandise shift offshore rapidly. This forced rapid changes in local factories. Regions, in which recession-plagued industries were concentrated, were particularly hit height big the severe situation. But in local cities which were relatively slow taking up the trend toward the growing weight of the service sector in the economy, services, together with wholesale and retail trade as well as eating and drinking establishments, have been experiencing phenomenal growth, and thereby absorbing labor resources.

This is in sharp contrast to the service sector in metropolitan areas. Due to drastically fewer jobs in the finance and securities sector, as well as the real estate sector's being strongly affected by the bursting of the economic bubble, they were thrown into a bad situation, and even software companies instituted labor adjustments. Furthermore, the growth in the number of businesses that transferred part of the functions of their head offices to local regions to avoid the skyrocketing rent of office buildings in big cities led to a decrease in the number of employed persons in the fast-growing service section in Tokyo.

Some companies which are regionally based are growing by expanding their customers nationwide or internationally with their strong niche business fields as a core. Increasing numbers of international airline services at local airports have given impetus to this trend. Fast-growing mid-ranking companies in rural areas have a growing need for sophisticated quality workers such as engineers and specialists and have greater hopes for core people who can transfer advanced technological know-how from big cities.

Meanwhile, people who spent their student days in big cities but who wish to find employment in their hometowns are increasing in number. Also, with the further aging of Japanese society, the more pronounced emergence of the nuclear family and the lower birthrate, growing numbers of people want to find jobs in their hometowns to care for their elderly parents living there. Some live with or near their spaces' elderly parents to take care

of them. Furthermore, not a few people long to live in the country because of a love of a natural environment, the relatively lower costs, particularly lower housing costs than in cities, an emphasis on family relations, and a search for spiritual comfort. These situations on the side of labor supply, also seem to contribute to accelerating the return to regional cities.

Information on Making the U-turn Back to Regional Cities

Many related ministries and agencies, such as the National Land Agency, the Ministry of Labour, MITI, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, the Ministry of Construction, the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Ministry of Health and Welfare, are offering assistance for regional development projects and return-to-the-country measures. And the Ministry of Labour has been placing greater stress on assisting the so-called U-turners' efforts to find jobs (National Land Agency: No.3 Report on Survey of Measures for Promoting urban residents' Movement to Local Regions, 1996). Thirty-nine prefectural governments have set up in Tokyo and Osaka information centers for counseling for those U-turners who wish to find employment, in order to encourage them to return to their hometowns. Also, many municipalities have provided their own resources for counseling for U-turners.

At U-turners' counseling offices, information about local job openings is offered, and also, full-time advisors provide U-turners wanting to find employment with a specific details on how to find jobs and a variety of information such as local economic trends, corporate trends and day-to-day information. In addition, at public employment security offices (PESOs) in industrial regions on-line information is made available about job offers across the country to make nationwide job-placement services available to job seekers. Moreover, job banks have been set up in individual prefectures as public job-placement organizations for middle-aged and elderly persons and white-collar workers such as those in technological, professional and managerial jobs. Attempt home begun to link local job banks and Tokyo counseling counters for U-turners meet by video phone to let the local employers meet job seekers in a big cities for primary interviews. Job fairs for U-turners sponsored by local governments are held regularly in metropolitan areas and counseling-counters are provided to enable job seekers to get first-hand information on individual local areas and on job openings at individual companies. Also, some local governments offer information about job openings at local companies to those who left their hometowns to attend school through their parents and provide counseling services in collaboration with local chambers of commerce and industry.

Also on the private-sector level, private job banks authorized by the Ministry of Labour can help to provide staffing services only for specialist and management positions. Thus, private-run job-placement organizations can be active in helping local enterprises head-hunt or seek people in specific fields. Furthermore, recruitment briefings for specific companies

sponsored by private companies serve as a valuable source of job information for those wishing to make a U-turn.

Most widely utilized by U-turners are publications such as job information magazines. Two of the most popular quarterly magazines targeted exclusively for U-turners have a circulations of 100,000 copies each. Also, other job-information magazines, which limit themselves to engineers, run features on U-turners and other related articles as the occasion demands.

Problems Involving Making the U-turn for Employment

A 1996 Research Survey Regarding Labour Mobility between Regions conducted by the Employment Development Center and covering 2,000 local enterprises found that many local companies complained they were in short supply of quality people in sales and technological fields. One third of new employees were those hired mid-career and one-quarter were U-turners, 10 percent of whom were returnees from the three large metropolitan areas. The majority of U-turned recruits were new graduates, and only about 20 percent were mid-career people.

In recruiting U-turners, many companies surveyed said that they registered for job openings available at PESOs and U-turn centers (49%); that they placed additional national dailies and job magazines (38%); that they sent job descriptions to universities and special training schools in big cities (36%); that they asked school teachers to recommend prospective recruits (33%); that they took part in private company-sponsored employment briefings (32%). And many companies noted that employment briefings sponsored by private companies were the most effective way to attract U-turner recruits.

To employ new graduates, most firms utilized schools' job-placement departments and job-information publications or asked teachers to pick out would-be employees. In the near future, companies that recruit new school graduates in the Internet or other personal computer communications are expected to increase rapidly (27%). Use of the Internet and PC communications hold great promise for removing the handicaps of local companies involving distance.

The age of people hired mid-career is usually 30 to 35. Demand is greater for mid-career recruits in their early 30s who possess some professional skills and who can meet the immediate needs of their new jobs. Mid-career people are wanted in sales (30%), engineering and research (35%), production and skilled jobs (24%), professional and qualified jobs (19%) and business administration and management (19%). Engineers and researchers are most wanted in such professional fields as construction and civil engineering (31%), software

development (30%) machinery and electro-merchandise (26%), electronics and electrical hardware (24%). A high percentage of U-turners who were recruited and hired have settled down. Their annual salaries have been reduced by 10 percent, but they have not witnessed their living standards decline substantially as they can keep housing and food expenses low. Preferential measures for mid-career U-turners taken by companies included: offering travel allowances for a job interview (28%), subsidizing relation expenses (19%) and providing company housing and dorms (18%).

Mid-career U-turners were asked why they took their present job, and many, or 29 percent, said because they could do the same work as they had done before. For those mid-career U-turners wanting to make the most of their career, whether they could continue to do the same job as before constituted a significant yardstick for deciding to make the U-turn. As for satisfaction with the workplace, on average, all of those surveyed expressed little dissatisfaction with commute time, job content, interpersonal relations at the workplace, and the work environment. Regarding skills development and working hours, they could not say which - whether they were contented or discontented with them. They expressed a little dissatisfaction with wages. Mid-career U-turners, however, expressed strong dissatisfaction with skills development, and improving this situation is an important requirement.

Why did they decide to make the U-turn? The motives vary to a considerable degree between mid-career people and new graduates. Many new graduates stated: Have many friends in my hometown; Need to care for my parents; Can enjoy a natural environment; Was thinking that I want to live in my hometown; Can enjoy low prices and so on. On the other hand, mid-career people said: "I want to buy my own home," "I am tired of living in metropolitan areas;" "It's good to live in my hometown and bring up my children here;" "I had a long commute time;" "My wife is from my hometown;" "I've wanted to try my luck in a new job." They were motivated importantly by the fact that they were reaching a turning point in their family life, including their spouse and children, and in their working life.

Regarding U-turners' dissatisfaction in their daily lives, an overwhelming 50 percent of new graduates who made a U-turn complained of few leisure facilities and entertainment facilities; 28 percent said few cultural facilities (theaters and bookstores) and inconvenient access to big cities; and 27 percent were dissatisfied with few department stores which makes shopping inconvenient. Meanwhile, mid-career U-turners expresses discontent with playgrounds for children (9%), children's facilities (6%) and the infrastructure, such as medical facilities (8%), and not a few were worried about interpersonal relations, such as with relatives (7%).

How do spouses evaluate their mates' U-turn? There is a wide gap in their evaluation

depending on whether they are leaving their own hometown. Whereas spouses coming from their husbands' hometowns largely highly value making the U-turn, those not coming from there evaluate it in a considerably harsh manner. Their views and opinions are based on the realities of their lives, and sensitive care, such as the availability of regional information to spouses and families and consolidation of a system of accepting U-turners and their families into regional communities, should be provided. Large companies cope elaborately with reassignments between factories by offering an on-site tour to workers' families. Whether they can respond appropriately and sufficiently to the needs or not affect their potential for acquiring future U-turners.

Note:

*In Japan, people from rural areas who moved to big cities to attend school or find work and then later return to their hometowns are called "U-turners." Those from rural areas who do not return to their hometowns but who decide to live permanently in cities on the way are dubbed "J-turners;" and big city dwellers who relocate to new rural areas to live and work are called "I-Turners." Central and local governments have put their energy into measures and policies for these U-, J- and I-turners to rectify the concentration of people in big cities.

Statistical Aspects

Recent Labor Economy Indices

| | January 1997 | December 1996 | Change from previous year |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Labor force | 6,642 (10thousand) | 6,663 (10thousand) | 91 (10thousand) |
| Employed | 6,420 | 6,455 | 98 |
| Employees | 5,370 | 5,375 | 107 |
| Unemployed | 222 | 208 | 8 |
| Unemployment rate | 3.3% | 3.1% | 0.2 |
| Active opening rate | 0.76 | 0.76 | 0.00 |
| Total hours worked | 143.2 (hours) | 161.2 (hours) | 1.3* |
| Total wages of regular employees | (¥thousand) 287.2 | (¥thousand) 287.9 | 1.4* |

Source: Management and Coordination Agency, Ministry of Labour.

Notes: 1.*denotes annual percent change.

2.From February 1991, data of "Total hours worked" and "Total wages of regular employees" are for firms with 5 to 30 employees.

