

Foreign Workers In the Japanese Labor Market

—Current and Future Problems of Employment—

No. 1

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Introduction

The current Japanese economy has a lot of problems, especially in the area of the labor market. There is an aging population. As a result of this, there has been the changing role of women in the labor market. Because of the shortage of young workers in the “3K” industries, there has been a large inflow of foreign workers, both legal and illegal, to Japan and into those industries. The present immigration law, however, does not meet the request of many companies that they be allowed to hire these foreign workers. Even after new immigration policies were implemented, there were problems. To avoid the current situation, companies started using long existing company training programs¹⁾ before the 1990 immigration reform. These programs are designed to contribute to the economic development of other countries and promote good understanding between Japan and these countries

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1) Refer to Table 8

through the transfer of Japanese advanced technology, skills, and knowledge.

The year 1992 showed a severe downturn economy, which in turn has exerted great influence on the condition of foreign workers in Japan. Their bargaining position is not strong, therefore they could easily become a prey or victim. From a company's standpoint, foreign workers are easy to hire and easy to fire.

This paper tries to examine the current foreign workers' situation from the theoretical economic point of view. This is a preliminary result, and there will be more empirical results to follow. We will use the multi-layered labor market idea (developed by K. Obi, 1978) to analyze this foreign workers' labor market. Also we shed special light on the labor-sending and labor-receiving countries, with a view to explaining international labor movement.

This interim report is organized as follows. In section II, we give a bird's eye view of foreign workers and explain how to analyze the issue using already established theory. In section III we address the current situation of foreign workers in Japan. In section IV we briefly mention the merits of the international movement of labor. In section V we deal with the issue of "how do we approach the problem?". In section VI we explain new immigration policies. In section VII we broaden our discussion. In section VIII we survey the present situation of labor-sending countries and labor-receiving countries. Finally in section IX we summarize and conclude this interim report paper.

I. A Bird's Eye View of Foreign Workers

The year 1992 has already become a very severe one for foreign

workers in Japan. During a period of economic boom, foreign workers were a very good source of labor to the Japanese labor market especially in medium and small sized companies. These foreign supplied labor forces mitigate an already heated demand supply relationship in the Japanese labor market. Foreign workers are utilized as a cushion when there are economic booms and economic recessions. In other words, they are easily hired and fired because mostly these people are in the weakest position in terms of working conditions. Labor mobility is explained in an economic sense when there is a wage premium in one region as opposed to other regions where there is redundant labor. The notion that there is an unlimited supply of labor is based on the belief that there are abundant labor forces in the agricultural sector or in rural areas, migratable from there to industrialized or urban areas whenever higher wage earning opportunities exist (Ranis, Gustav and John C. H. Fei 1961, 1963, 1964). The recent large-scale labor inflow from foreign countries is sometimes explained in this terminology (S. Nishikawa 1992). However if we look more closely at the current situation of foreign workers in the Japanese labor market, we find that those foreign workers are usually hired in medium and small sized companies' production section or family-type small businesses. And yet those workers in their own countries had been employed in the modern manufacturing sector or had jobs which required more skills or they were unemployed, which means they had not been employed in traditional sectors such as agriculture. Therefore, this is not exactly the same case as the Fei-Ranis model, rather this is a case inside the industrial sector mainly in manufacturing. In the Fei-Ranis model, the level of marginal productivity of labor in the manufacturing sector reaches the level of wages in the traditional sec-

tor, and it does not clearly illustrate why the wage differential in the manufacturing sector occurs (K. Obi, 1988). A recently developed empirical and theoretical approach to the multi-layered labor market (K. Obi and et al, 1986) can explain the problem of this occurrence of a wage differential in the modern manufacturing sector.

The current problem of immigrant workers from South America (Brazilians and Peruvians) and foreign workers is clarified and explained using this "multi-layered labor market" theory which insists that there are labor quality rankings from the labor demand side point of view, whether the labor supply side is conscious of it or not.

Bearing this in mind, we will focus on both the labor supply side and labor demand side to analyze the present issue of foreign workers in Japan.

Since the amendment of the immigration law, there has been a large scale labor movement not only in sectors requiring skill and technology but also in sectors requiring less skills or no skill or work experience. We can observe that driven by large wage differentials between their home countries and Japan, many aliens work illegally in services, manufacturing, construction, and agriculture---work deemed undesirable by Japanese. Since the mid-1980s the ever increasing number of foreign migrant workers has brought a complicated dilemma to Japanese society (Shimada 1991; Kono, 1991; Hanami and Kuwahara, 1989; Hogaku Seminar, 1988; Miyajima, 1989; The Economist, 1988a, b, 1989, 1990; Far Eastern Economic Review, 1989a, b, 1990).

Since the Plaza Agreement in 1985, and due to the yen's appreciation, Japanese per capita income has increased greatly. It is much higher than per capita income in the ASEAN countries, Iran, South

American countries, Pakistan, Bangladesh and so forth. Domestically, the Japanese labor force, especially younger workers, has shown a reluctance to work at what are called "3K" jobs, jobs that are demanding, dangerous, or dirty. The service, manufacturing, construction, and agriculture sectors all include many 3K jobs. During the late 1980's and the beginning of the 1990's, the Japanese labor market suffered an acute labor shortage in particular industries. In addition, the age distribution of the population is not favorable for the labor market which means there will be a chronic labor shortage in the coming years. As a result, the Japanese labor market will be highly dependent upon foreign workers unless the government implements some special initiatives to solve this labor shortage problem.

For these reasons, there has already been an enormous inflow of workers from the Asian countries and recently from South American countries such as Brazil and Peru²⁾. Current Japanese immigration law allows only skilled labor, not unskilled labor to work in Japan. Most foreign workers are working illegally and their working conditions are not registered in the Ministry of Justice records. The inflow of legal workers has increased dramatically as compared to the years before 1985. These legally registered foreign workers can be counted easily as participants in the labor force. It is very difficult, however, to determine the total number of illegal foreign workers in the Japanese labor market.

Unlike the transfer of capital, technology, or material, the transfer of human labor involves more complicated factors than just economic ones. We also need a perspective on how to manage international

2) Refer to Table A

Table A Occupations of Brazilians and Peruvians in Japan: 1990

Occupation	Brazilian						Peruvian					
	Men			Women			Men			Women		
	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%	%
Craft, Manufacturing	20,155	57.1	84.0	9,714	45.9	79.0	3,107	44.2	85.7	996	30.7	79.7
Clerical	2,298	6.5	9.6	1,301	6.2	10.6	233	3.3	6.4	97	3.0	7.8
Manual	671	1.9	2.8	294	1.4	2.4	139	2.0	3.8	52	1.6	4.2
Service	140	0.4	0.6	665	3.1	5.4	35	0.5	1.0	66	2.0	5.3
Engineer	257	0.7	1.1	54	0.3	0.4	49	0.7	1.4	7	0.2	0.6
Other	480	1.4	2.0	267	1.3	2.2	65	0.9	1.8	32	1.0	2.6
Not Employed	11,283	32.0	—	8,850	41.9	—	3,404	48.4	—	1,997	61.5	—
Total	35,284	100.0	100.0	21,145	100.0	100.0	7,032	100.0	100.1	3,247	100.0	100.0

Source: Table 6, Alien Resident Statistics, The 1991 Edition, the Japan Immigration Association, 1991 b.

migration. There are always two directions concerning the international movement of labor. One is the labor-sending country, the other the labor-receiving country. In this paper we will examine only economic factors and refer to other factors only as they are significant in relation to economic behavior.

II. Current Situation of Foreign Workers in Japan

In 1992 there has been a major decline in demand for labor as compared to the previous two years of acute labor shortage. In spite of this change in the economic climate, the demand for unskilled workers has held up, especially in 3K industries such as construction, family-type small factories dealing with automobile parts, electric appliances and so forth.

In order to prevent an increasingly large and heterogeneous flow of foreign visitors to the country as temporary workers and illegal workers, the Japanese government revised the Immigration Law in 1989, implementing and enforcing it in June 1990, establishing a total of twenty-eight categories of status of residence which define and permit entry, activities, and length of stay in Japan.

These complex categories are attributed to the massive number of foreign migrant workers bringing an extremely complicated dilemma to Japanese society. Japan desperately needs inexpensive and docile labor to meet the demands of labor intensive and unmechanized industries.

In our earlier investigation, we found that foreign workers of Japanese descent from Brazil and Peru who work in automobile

parts companies in Aichi prefecture are hired in accordance with a different scheme from normally-hired local Japanese people. Their salary scale is not consistent with the regular salary scale. They are usually paid according to an hourly wage rate and fringe benefits are differently calculated from regular Japanese employees. In order to maximize their income, they have a tendency to work longer hours than other employees which is good for the company in times of economic boom and labor shortage.

From the workers' point of view also, significant amounts of paid overtime makes good sense. According to the current exchange rate, people from both Brazil and Peru can save a life-time of income in just three years of full time work.

III. The Merits of the International Movement of Labor

There are several reasons to support the international movement of labor from a positive point of view.

1. It is beneficial for receiving countries to solve their labor shortage and yet to assign well-fitted jobs to best or better workers.
2. It is good to vitalize labor force already hired in the company and outside the company (labor market).
3. It makes it possible to support each individual's financial situation. Also it results in high income and technology acquisition. (Transfer of Technology)
4. It could solve unemployment in labor-supplying countries.
5. It will be advantageous for broader economic zones to contribute to a redistribution of labor in terms of economic development.
6. It will also promote peace and security since it improves and

enhances the interdependence of each country.

7. Labor inflow from foreign countries lowers the domestic wage in labor intensive industries and makes industry become more profitable. As a result the labor costs in labor intensive industries decrease, causing a rise in productivity.

IV. How do we approach the problem ?

First of all, we have to summarize why this current international movement of labor is occurring. We have observed European experiences in the 1960's and can learn from that. Labor movement into Japan stems from the Plaza agreement in 1985 which set new exchange rates and created a new economic environment. This change in exchange rates exerted a great influence on export-oriented industries in Japan, making them look to overseas countries especially in seeking sites for direct investment and foreign labor to meet the labor shortage at home. The sharp upward revaluation of the yen had the effect of increasing wage differentials between Japan and neighboring countries. Japanese direct investment in these neighboring countries stimulated regional and national economic development and drew local people's attention to Japan. When the economy began to revive, small manufacturing subcontractors in Japan, who had been suffering from a lingering labor shortage, turned to foreign workers to alleviate these shortages. In Japan there has been a nation-wide labor shortage and a particularly severe shortage in special industries such as the construction and service industries. These acute labor shortages in particular industries or in particular jobs are caused by Japanese workers themselves when they shun certain jobs, causing even more de-

mand for foreign workers. Among young Japanese workers, the dislike of 3K jobs is due to an increase in higher education, following high income earning expectations and a seller's market. A 5% average yearly growth rate made Japan economically revive and stimulated the labor market.

As mentioned above, both labor-sending countries and labor-receiving countries, have logical reasons to accept the current situation.

V. New Immigration Policies

One of the main issues discussed recently in Japan is the growing number of illegal foreign workers who usually come to Japan on tourist visas. Although the Japanese parliament passed the revision of the immigration law, the problem of illegal workers has not been solved yet because the economic reality previously described continues. Most legal and illegal workers, driven by huge wage differentials and pulled in part by demand from small- and medium-sized manufacturers, pose a complex dilemma to the Japanese labor market situation. Rapid demographic changes in the age distribution —an aging society and low birth rate— together with rising educational levels and a distaste for simple manual labor among the young dictate the urgent implementation of policy to supplement unskilled labor. By amending immigration laws to relax strict regulations on unskilled workers, Japan might facilitate the entry of unskilled workers to labor-intensive manual-work environments, mostly with the large pool of unemployed and underemployed in neighboring Asian countries.

Policy makers in Japan, however, declined to go in that direction. On the one hand, they say the labor shortage should be filled by in-

digenous workers not foreign workers. On the other they see a large pool of illegal labor as undesirable, but that is the reality. Moreover, they see mounting evidence in Europe and North America that temporary foreign worker programs can create a permanent immigrant community that would be a source of political, economic and social tensions in the host country. In fact there have been hot arguments about whether or not to open the unskilled labor market to foreign workers. In spite of the demand, Japan still has not opened its unskilled labor market. Instead, the 1990 amendment of the Immigration-Control and Refugee-Recognition Act Enforcement Regulations³⁾ (Ministry of Justice Ordinance No. 54 of 1981; hereinafter, the 1990 Reform) has in effect expanded the foreign trainee system (kenshusei seido) and permitted descendants of Japanese emigrants (Nikkeijin) to enter Japan to work as unskilled foreign workers. These amendments are not comprehensive, but allow private firms to bring in foreign workers in the name of training or on-the-job training, which some regard as a disguised form of cheap labor since regular workers could not be hired for such a low wage.

VI. Discussion

Current problems of illegal immigrants should be solved in a more comprehensive way so that labor sending countries can be satisfied with their own people's labor conditions. In that respect the following areas should be considered carefully.

- (1) Application of the revised immigration law to the present

3) Refer to Table 8 in Section VII

situation.

(2) Organized illegal brokers' exploitation and control of foreign workers.

(3) Unfair exploitation of illegal foreign workers in companies especially in medium and small sized ones.

(4) Visible obstacles of continuing low wages and modernization of labor intensive industries.

(5) Dual structure of labor market.

(6) Intimidating threat to domestic workers' current working conditions.

(7) Occurrence of social problems.

(8) Criticisms and doubts about exploitation at the international level.

(9) Negative influence on international relations.

Unless these problems are solved one by one, the relationship of labor-sending countries and labor-receiving countries will worsen.

VII. Recent Situation of Labor-Sending and Receiving Countries

Intrinsically both labor-sending and -receiving countries should avoid a myopic view of the problem of international labor mobility. Cooperation is inevitably necessary to approach this particular problem. It is expected in the coming ten years that there will be more international labor mobility among Asian and Pacific countries.

An increasing rate of labor force participation in Asia is shown in Table B. As can be seen, in the next decade between 1990 and 2000 as compared to 1980-1990, all the figures show either no

Foreign Workers In the Japanese Labor Market

*** Table B** Yearly average of an increasing rate of labor participation in Asia
(1980-2010)

	unit %		
	1980-90	1990-2000	2000-10
Japan and NIEs			
Japan	0.9	0.4	-0.4
Singapore	1.6	0.6	0.3
South Korea	2.8	1.8	1.1
Taiwan	3.5	1.7	0.7
China	2.4	1.2	0.9
South East Asia			
Indonesia	2.7	2.4	1.7
Malaysia	3.2	2.9	2.6
Phillipines	2.8	2.8	2.6
Thailand	2.5	1.8	1.0
South Asia			
Bangladesh	3.5	3.6	3.3
India	2.2	2.1	2.0
Nepal	2.4	2.7	2.5
Pakistan	3.9	3.7	4.3

Source: Abella. Manpower Movement in the Asian Region. 1991

change or a little decrease. Between 2000 and 2010, all countries except Pakistan in South Asia show obvious decrease. In Japan it shows 0.9 in 1980-1990, 0.4 in 1990-2000, and -0.4 in 2000-2010.

Labor receiving or importing countries in East Asia are South Korea, Taiwan and Hong Kong (South Chinese Economic Zone). In South East Asia, firstly, Singapore receives 200,000 foreign workers from Malaysia, Indonesia, the Phillipines and Thailand, secondly, Malaysia accomodates 200,000 from Indonesia (west Malaysia), 350,000 from the Phillipines, 150,000 from Indonesia (Guasekaran in 1990). This solves the problem of labor shortage in the urban areas but becomes the cause of a labor shortage on the farms. In Thailand, there was an outflow of labor to fill the labor needs in the Mid-

dle East countries' construction boom. The Phillipines which is well-known as a major supplier of a large amount of labor benefits from the large amount of remittances from overseas. Indonesia has also been contributing to the Middle East area by sending a large labor force. In South Asian countries such as Pakistan, India and Bangladesh, all countries were major labor suppliers to the Middle East, but are now turning their interest to East Asia including NIES.

Due to this active labor mobility in these areas, the wage differentials have been ameliorated. Also because of the Gulf war in 1991, many workers left the Mid East countries, looking for better job opportunities in different economic areas. Also there was an amendment of the migration law in China that allowed Chinese people to go to other countries.

VIII. Conclusion

We can enumerate several benefits resulting from international movement of labor.

- (1) To solve the problem of labor shortage in certain countries.
- (2) To utilize the right person in the right place.
- (3) Beneficial to vitalize the domestic labor force.
- (4) To make it possible for workers to support financially their own families and relatives.
- (5) Acquiring high income abroad as opposed to a low income at home and technology (technology transfer)
- (6) To solve the problem of unemployment in labor-supplying countries.
- (7) To contribute to economic growth of wider areas with real-

location of labor force.

(8) An increase in regional security resulting from increasing interdependence.

The above mentioned advantages also apply to the Japanese labor market. In order to uncover more precise and detailed facts, we will use questionnaires and interviews with foreign workers in Japan and analyze these panel data to clarify the situation of these transplanted workers.

Appendix

1. Notes on Japan's New Immigration Policy

In June 1990 the revised Immigration Law of 1989 took effect in Japan. This new law, primarily intended to regulate the increasingly large and heterogeneous flow of foreign visitors to the country in recent years, established a total of twenty eight categories of status of residence which define and permit entry, activities, and length of stay in Japan (Table 1). To meet the rapidly expanding needs of the economy and society in the global era, the Japanese government admits under this law various kinds of professionals and experts, while prohibiting temporary visitors and students from working there.

According to the new immigration law, there are two categories of foreigners in Japan. The first group (Category I) includes both short-term—less than three months—and long-term—more than three months—visitors, whereas the second (Category II) includes those who settle in Japan as long-term or permanent residents. For the first group, the law further creates five divisions of residence categories, depending upon types of activity and permission for employment.

Table 1 Categories of Status of Residence and The Length of Status Defined by The Immigration Act of 1989

Status of Residence	Length of Residence
CATEGORY I	
Residence Status I	
Diplomat	The period of diplomatic appointment
Official	The period of official appointment
Professor	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Artist	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Religious Activist	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Journalist	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Residence Status II	
Investor & Manager	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Legal & Accounting	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Medical Service	1 year or 6 months
Researcher	1 year or 6 months
Instructor	1 year or 6 months
Engineer	1 year or 6 months
Specialist in Humanities & International Relations	1 year or 6 months
Intra-Company Transferee	1 year or 6 months
Entertainer	1 year or 3 months
Skilled Labor	1 year or 6 months
Residence Status III	
Cultural Activists	1 year or 6 months
Temporary Visitor	90 days or 15 days
Residence Status IV	
University Student	1 year or 6 months
Other School Student	1 year, 6 months or 3 months
Trainee	1 year, 6 months or 3 months
Dependent of Legal Resident	3 years, 1 year, 6 months or 3 months
Residence Status V	
Designated Activities	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
CATEGORY II	
Permanent Resident	Unlimited
Spouse or Child of Japanese National	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Spouse or Child of Permanent Resident	3 years, 1 year or 6 months
Children of the Stateless	3 years
Long-Term Resident	3 years, 1 year or 6 months

In Table I, Residence Status I, II, and V include a set of professional workers for whom the Japanese government permits legal entrance and employment. The other two categories, Residence III and IV, are for temporary visitors including tourists, business people, and students. Finally, for those foreigners who for various reasons live in Japan over a long period of time as permanent residents—mostly ethnic Koreans, family members of Japanese nationals and permanent residents, and long-term residents—the law places no regulations on employment or profit making activities in Japan.

The new law, however, by not including categories for unskilled occupations*, made clear that Japan did not allow workers without specific skills to enter, work, or live in Japan. The government, not liking the presence of massive numbers of illegal foreign workers (estimated at about 100,000 in 1989), instituted with this amendment criminal penalties for the recruitment and hiring of such labor—three years imprisonment or a maximum fine of two million yen (\$15,400). Thus, the revised immigration law, different from the old law, made clear that foreigners could not work as unskilled laborers in Japan and that the Japanese could not employ those foreigners lacking skills.

2. Flows of Foreign Labor into Japan

The increasingly diverse flow of international migrants that emerged after the passage of the new immigration law is summarized

* The definition of "unskilled" labor in the Japanese context of discussion is quite liberal. It is generally used as opposed to skilled professional labor and refers to various kinds of manual worker involving a wide range of skills in the process of production and the offering of services.

in Table 2. This table classifies foreign visitors to Japan into six subgroups according to their legal status of admission (status of residence), employability, occupation, industry, and area of origin. These groups include (1) temporary visitors, including illegal workers; (2) skilled professionals; (3) entertainers; (4) students of universities or Japanese language schools; (5) company trainees; and finally (6) relatives of Japanese nationals. To back up this classification, the next table, Table 3 presents actual numbers of foreign visitors by area of origin based on the 1991 arrival statistics and shows the proportions of these groups to the total, except for the illegal workers, for whom accurate statistics are not available.

Table 2 The Classification of Recent Foreign Visitors in Japan

Status of Residence	Employability	Occupation	Industry	Area of Origin
Temporary(including Illegal workers)	Unemployable	N/A (Illegals: Unskilled)	N/A (Illegals: Manufacturing, Service, Construction)	Asia, North America, Europe
Professional	Employable	Skilled	Professional Service	Asia, North America, Europe
Entertainer	Employable	Unskilled	Entertaining	Asia
Student	Employable for 4 Hours Per Day	Unskilled, Skilled	Service, Professional Service	Asia
Company Trainee	Unemployable	Unskilled	Manufacturing, Service	Asia
Spouse or Child of Japanese National	Employable	Unskilled	Manufacturing	South America, Asia

Table 3 Status of Residence at Arrival in Japan by Region of Nationality of Origin: 1991

Region	Temporary		Professional		Entertainer		Student		Trainee		Family and Long-Term		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Asia	1,950,531	65.1	17,414	33.8	64,078	71.5	26,295	86.9	38,535	88.3	8,750	31.8	2,105,603	65.1
Europe	342,897	11.5	8,742	17.0	13,133	14.7	950	3.1	1,367	3.1	298	1.1	367,367	11.4
Africa	9,412	0.3	1,055	2.0	284	0.3	117	0.4	873	2.0	38	0.1	11,779	0.4
North America	533,416	17.8	17,920	34.8	9,970	11.1	2,044	6.8	1,017	2.3	1,005	3.7	565,372	17.5
South America	100,250	3.3	1,008	2.0	1,147	1.3	283	0.9	1,541	3.5	17,269	62.9	121,498	3.8
Oceania	57,435	1.9	5,385	10.5	946	1.1	575	1.9	303	0.7	114	0.4	64,758	2.0
Total	2,993,941	100.0	51,524	100.0	89,558	100.0	30,264	100.0	43,636	100.0	27,474	100.0	3,236,397	100.0
Total %	92.5		1.6		2.8		0.9		1.3		0.8		100.0	

Source: Kokusai Jinryu, 1992.

Footnotes: "Temporary" includes cultural activist, temporary visitor, and family visitor; "Professional" includes fifteen categories for professionals; and "Family and Long-Term" includes family of Japanese nationals, family of permanent residents, and long-term residents.

Foreign Workers In the Japanese Labor Market

Table 4 The Number and Increase of Asian and South American Visitors to Japan by Nationality of Origin: 1986-1990

Year	Korea	Taiwan	China	Philippines	Thailand	Malaysia	Singapore	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Iran	India	Bangladesh	Pakistan	Brazil	Peru	Argentina
	<u>Number</u>															
1986	299,602	300,272	75,275	80,508	30,296	45,589	33,943	32,271	31,649	16,404	20,300	4,417	13,385	13,434	1,674	5,227
1987	360,159	360,636	73,030	85,267	33,719	40,080	35,973	30,569	24,254	20,325	20,956	5,854	12,214	12,126	1,947	4,613
1988	515,807	392,723	112,389	86,567	41,994	45,887	35,211	29,127	21,425	14,693	21,736	14,500	20,034	16,789	2,045	4,624
1989	806,065	501,907	100,144	88,296	49,117	54,569	38,201	32,007	26,205	17,050	21,500	3,425	7,060	29,241	6,084	5,452
1990	978,984	610,652	117,814	108,292	69,477	58,112	43,512	38,622	32,605	32,125	20,623	3,078	5,545	67,303	11,478	6,040
	<u>Increase a</u>															
1986	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1987	20.2	20.1	-3.0	5.9	11.3	-12.1	6.0	-5.3	-23.4	23.9	3.2	32.5	-8.5	-9.7	16.3	-11.7
1988	72.2	30.8	49.3	7.5	38.6	0.7	3.7	-9.7	-32.3	-10.4	7.1	228.3	49.7	25.0	22.2	-11.5
1989	169.0	67.2	33.0	9.7	62.1	19.7	12.5	-0.8	-17.2	3.9	5.9	-22.5	-47.3	117.7	263.4	4.3
1990	226.8	103.4	56.5	34.5	129.3	27.5	28.2	19.7	3.0	95.8	1.6	-30.3	-58.6	401.0	585.7	15.6

Source: Table 3-1, Summary Statistics on Immigration Control, the Japan Immigration Association, 1991a.

Notes: a. An increase shows the change (in percentage) in the number for each year compared to number in 1986.

Table 5 The Number and Increase of Foreign Visitors Who Entered Japan by Area of Origin of Nationality: 1986-1990

Year	Asia		Europe		Africa		N.America		S.America		Oceania		Total	
	Number	Increase	Number	Increase	Number	Increase	Number	Increase	Number	Increase	Number	Increase	Number	Increase
1986	1,014,787	-	358,164	-	10,771	-	550,200	-	26,488	-	56,784	-	2,017,194	-
1987	1,136,710	12.0	376,164	5.0	9,675	-10.2	551,911	0.3	25,797	-2.6	57,777	1.7	2,158,034	7.0
1988	1,387,050	36.7	395,843	10.5	10,083	-6.8	530,767	-3.5	31,269	18.0	56,542	-0.4	2,411,509	19.5
1989	1,791,652	76.6	451,968	26.2	11,653	8.2	611,779	11.2	48,778	84.2	67,390	18.7	2,983,220	47.9
1990	2,164,373	113.3	516,450	44.2	12,095	12.3	644,525	17.1	92,863	250.6	71,547	26.0	3,501,853	73.6

Source: Table 3-1, Summary Statistics on Immigration Control, the Japan Immigration Association, 1991a.

Notes: a. An increase shows the change (in percentage) in the number for each year compared to the number in 1986.

Foreign Workers In the Japanese Labor Market

Table 6 Status of Residence of Asian and South American Visitors to Japan by Nationality of Origin: 1990 a

Status of Residence	Korea	Taiwan	China	Philippines	Thailand	Malaysia	Singapore	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Iran	India	Bangladesh	Pakistan	Brazil	Peru	Argentina
CATEGORY I																
Residence Status I																
Diplomat	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.4	1.8	1.1	0.1	0.4	0.6
Official	0.5	0.0	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.1	0.9	0.7	3.8	0.1	0.1	0.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Residence Status II																
Entertainer	0.3	0.4	1.4	50.7	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.5	1.0	0.2	2.9
Others	0.1	0.1	1.7	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.1	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.1
Residence Status III																
Cultural Activist	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Temporary Visitor																
Tourist	54.5	87.0	8.1	14.6	57.6	61.7	61.6	74.1	51.2	76.5	30.1	-	-	73.2	-	-
Business	33.3	9.5	28.6	10.7	26.3	24.1	30.2	21.9	24.3	13.6	51.7	-	-	3.7	-	-
Cultural Activist	2.0	0.3	6.3	0.7	1.1	2.0	4.2	0.2	2.4	1.0	4.5	74.8 b	84.8 b	0.5	74.6 b	77.5 b
Relatives	5.2	1.5	7.1	10.2	2.4	2.1	1.2	1.9	2.5	5.6	2.8	-	-	3.9	-	-
Other	1.6	0.4	9.6	6.0	1.8	1.3	1.0	0.4	2.3	2.1	2.3	-	-	0.4	-	-
Residence Status IV																
Univ. Student	0.3	0.2	3.5	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.0	0.3	3.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4
Other Student	0.8	0.3	14.0	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1	4.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1
Trainee	0.7	0.2	10.3	4.1	7.9	6.5	0.9	0.1	9.3	0.2	3.6	11.8	5.7	1.6	3.8	4.5
Dependent	0.4	0.1	1.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.4	1.0	2.5	1.9	0.3	0.1	0.4
Residence Status V																
Designated Activist	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
CATEGORY II																
Family of Japanese	0.1	0.0	1.5	1.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.8	11.9	7.1	8.6
Family of Peoples Rep	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Temporary Refugee	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Long-Term Resident	0.1	0.0	3.5	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	2.8	13.5	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	675,956	557,631	74,264	84,327	64,313	54,849	41,910	36,481	30,947	31,289	16,724	2,427	4,293	63,462	10,942	5,435

Source: Table 4-1, 2, 3 and 4, Summary Statistics on Immigration Control, the Japan Immigration Association, 1991a;

For Bangladesh, Pakistan, Peru, and Argentina, Table 7, Annual Report of Statistics of Legal Immigrants for 1990, the Ministry of Justice of Japan, 1991.

Footnotes: a. The number includes new entrants only. b. The percentage indicates a total of temporary visitors.

Table 7 Occupations of Brazilians and Peruvians in Japan: 1990

Occupation	Brazilian						Peruvian					
	Men			Women			Men			Women		
	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%	%	N	%	%
Craft, Manufacturing	20,155	57.1	84.0	9,714	45.9	79.0	3,107	44.2	85.7	996	30.7	79.7
Clerical	2,298	6.5	9.6	1,301	6.2	10.6	233	3.3	6.4	97	3.0	7.8
Manual	671	1.9	2.8	294	1.4	2.4	139	2.0	3.8	52	1.6	4.2
Service	140	0.4	0.6	665	3.1	5.4	35	0.5	1.0	66	2.0	5.3
Engineer	257	0.7	1.1	54	0.3	0.4	49	0.7	1.4	7	0.2	0.6
Other	480	1.4	2.0	267	1.3	2.2	65	0.9	1.8	32	1.0	2.6
Not Employed	11,283	32.0	—	8,850	41.9	—	3,404	48.4	—	1,997	61.5	—
Total	35,284	100.0	100.0	21,145	100.0	100.0	7,032	100.0	100.1	3,247	100.0	100.0

Source: Table 6, Alien Resident Statistics, The 1991 Edition, the Japan Immigration Association, 1991 b.

Table 8. Governmental standards Concerning Company Training

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1. Training must be intended to impart skills. These skills should not be acquired through repetitive, unskilled work.
 2. A trainee must be 18 years or older. He or she must have a plan to engage in work that requires the newly acquired skills upon his or her return to the home country.
 3. It must be determined that it is impossible or difficult to acquire such skills in the home country.
 4. The company providing the training must have a tainer with more than five years of experience on the job for which he or she provides training.
 5. Requirements concerning a receiving organizaiton which may offer on-the-job (OJT) training (exceptions-state or local public organizations, or organizations designated by the decree of the Ministry of Justice):
 - (1) It must secure a lodging facility;
 - (2) It must secure a training facility;
 - (3) The number of trainees must be within a twentieth of the total regular employees of the organization;
 - (4) It must have a life consultant;
 - (5) It must provide protective measures for health management; and
 - (6) It must provide necessary measures for industrial safety and hygiene.
 6. Requirements concerning trainees who may be offered OJT training (exceptions-state or local public organizations, or organizations designated by the decree of the Minister of Justice):
 - (1) A trainee sent by a state or local public organization, or an equivalent organization of a foreign country;
 - (2) A trainee sent by a joint company or local corporation (including those not yet established but whose establishment been approved) of the receiving organization;
 - (3) A trainee sent by an organization which has had business transactions for more than one year with the receiving organization; and
 - (4) A trainee sent by an organization which as had business transactions of more than one billion yen with the receiving organization during past one year.
 7. Requirements concerning time when practical training is offered:

Practical training hours hould not exceed two thirds of the total hours of training.
 8. The receiving organization and the related personnel must not have committed any wrongdoings concerning the receiving of trainees during the past three years.
 9. In the case of a private organization, the purpose must not be profit making. The receiving organization and the personnel in charge must not have committed any wrongdoings concerning the receiving of trainees during the past three years.
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Source: Tezuka, 1991: 212.

Table 9 Local Community by Foreign Workers by Nationality of Origin: Kanagawa Prefecture and Shizuoka Prefecture
Kanagawa Prefecture, June 1991

Nationality of Origin	Yokohama-shi	Kawasaki-shi	Fujisawa-shi	Hiratsuka-shi	Yamato-shi	Atsugi-shi	Ayase-cho	Alkawa-cho	Sabukawa-cho
Brazil	2,954	1,249	1,539	920	350	743	435	340	323
Peru	1,234	554	441	56	305	261	93	341	84
Argentina	243	56	653	24	104	40	15	5	25
Vietnam	361	94	260	8	205	47	136	31	6
Cambodia	280	17	25	129	141	53	29	33	1
Laos	67	5	31	69	94	33	167	3	0
Other a	34,157	15,012	1,664	1,154	1,543	1,018	369	200	131
Total	39,296	16,987	4,613	2,360	2,742	2,195	1,244	953	570
All Population	3,234,000	1,165,000	350,000	245,000	194,000	194,000	78,000	40,000	44,000
% to All Population	1.22	1.46	1.32	0.96	1.41	1.13	1.59	2.38	1.30

Source: Miyajima, 1992:216.

Notes: a. Other includes Koreans.

Shizuoka Prefecture, December 1991

Nationality of Origin	Hamamatsu-shi	Fuji-shi	Kosai-shi	Shizuoka-shi	Gotemba-shi	Numazu-shi	Iwata-shi	Shimizu-shi	Daito-cho
Brazil	5,771	1,169	1,075	291	739	492	725	570	655
philippines	791	49	92	494	115	126	32	152	37
Peru	686	187	208	20	137	176	210	23	19
China	513	146	7	382	23	171	54	91	1
Korea	2,325	416	102	1,874	249	443	107	535	6
Other	887	126	197	336	199	153	96	85	26
Total	10,973	2,093	1,681	3,397	1,426	1,561	1,224	1,456	744
All Population	547,000	226,000	42,000	473,000	79,000	214,000	84,000	242,000	20,000
% to All Population	2.01	0.93	4.00	0.72	1.85	0.73	1.46	0.60	3.72

Source: Fact-Finding Survey Report of Foreign Workers (Shizuoka Prefecture, 1992: 8-9).

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