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than 50 hours tends to reduce output per man hour because of fatigue, and that excessively long hours also increase losses from defective workmanship. Japanese war industries had a similar experience when absenteeism and inefficiency finally compelled the authorities to place a maximum hour limit in the working day.

Maximum Hours in Manufacturing Industries

The present Factory Act sets no limit to the hours of employment except that women and young persons under 16 may not work for more than ten hours a day. This regulation applies only to workshops employing ten or more persons. The present law provides for a minimum of two days of rest per month.

The Committee recommends that a standard work day and work week be established by law, at least in manufacturing industry. Work in excess of the standard period should be permitted, but should be paid for at a premium rate sufficiently high to discourage the continuous or excessive scheduling of overtime work. To accomplish this, the premium rate should be not less than 150% of straight time earnings.

The Committee is about evenly divided as to whether the standards established at this time should prescribe a workday of 8 hours and a standard workweek of 48 hours. The majority, who favor such a standard, believe it would help to spread work and thus reduce unemployment, and that Japan's excess labor supply is sufficiently large so that no significant reduction in employment or output would result. Other members doubt the economic feasibility of such a standard at this time and believe that the need for maximum production of essential products may require a workday longer than 8 hours and a workweek longer than 48 hours.

It is possible that legislation dealing with working hours should allow administrative flexibility which would permit a longer standard work-day and work-week in occupations which do not involve heavy or harmful work than in those occupations which involve exceptionally arduous labor. In some of the latter group, a work-day of less than 8 hours is clearly necessary to protect health and prevent excessive exhaustion.

Maximum Working Hours in Non-Manufacturing Industries

The Labor Protection Section is studying the proposal that an 8-hour day and 48-hour week should be applied in all industries, with the following exceptions: (a) no legal standards on working hours, recesses, and rest days would apply in agriculture, forestry, livestock and fishing industries; (b) working hours, rest periods, and rest days in financial enterprises, hospitals, hotels, and restaurants would be established by special ordinance.

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The Committee believes that some restriction of working hours is desirable in non-manufacturing industries, with the exceptions noted under (a) above. While not in a position to judge the exact limit which should be set in the various non-manufacturing fields, it finds little evidence that a 48-hour week would not be feasible.

The Committee believes that a considerable degree of flexibility is desirable, at least in the immediate future, in the application of provisions limiting the standard work day and the extent of overtime work. It will probably be necessary to authorize exceptions - under conditions clearly specified by statute - in seasonal industries, industries processing perishable commodities and industries which are unable to obtain additional workers so that output can be maintained with a shorter work week. It seems desirable, also, to make some differentiation in the amount of overtime work permitted in the case of children of various ages, women and adult males.

The draft bill prepared by the Labor Protection Section would permit a child over 15 to work ten hours a day for 50 days a year. Probably it would be more desirable to permit overtime work by children only in special emergencies with permission of the administrative agency. From the point of view of a sound system of protective legislation geared to the need for production, it might be more useful to permit a longer work week for adult males while maintaining quite rigid restrictions in regard to child labor.

Rest Periods

Present legislation requires a rest period of 30 minutes for each six hours of work and one hour's rest for 8 hours of work. A similar provision should also apply to most non-manufacturing industries, but there should be administrative flexibility of the type discussed above.

Vacation with Pay

The present Japanese law contains no provisions on paid annual leave. The Committee is informed that some cotton spinning mills have made a practice of giving no annual leave so that many female employees have been deprived of visits home for periods as long as several years. Proposals have been made to require at least one week of paid vacation for all workers who have been present for a substantial majority of the scheduled work days. This minimum is clearly desirable and feasible. It should be considered only a beginning - to be supplemented by collective bargaining and subsequent legislation.

Any provision requiring paid annual leave should permit the employer to schedule the vacation in such a way that operation of his business is not hampered by having too many employees absent at the same time.

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I. Safety and Sanitation

The present Factory Act, with its enforcing ordinances, provides for protective devices on dangerous machines, sets up safeguards against employment of women and children in dangerous occupations, lists a considerable number of occupations which are considered dangerous or injurious to health, and otherwise includes comprehensive measures for protecting workers against industrial hazards. Moreover, the Industrial Safety Institute affiliated with the Welfare Ministry carries on a thorough-going program of modern investigation and research in the field of industrial health and safety. The main problem has not been a lack of expert knowledge or legislative coverage, but rather lack of enforcement on the administrative level. Because of the great shortage of materials today and the generally bad conditions of the factories, little is being done by way of improving mechanical deficiencies.

Several proposals now being discussed, however, appear constructive. One of these would prohibit employers from permitting persons with less than six months' experience to perform such dangerous work as cleaning or repairing machinery in motion and would prohibit persons without the requisite skill from doing dangerous work of any kind. The types of dangerous work and degree of skill required can, of course, be fixed by ordinance. Another eminently sound proposal, which would cost little to carry out, would require employers to provide newly hired persons with health and safety education suitable to the type of plant involved. A resurgence of the popular safety movements and "safety week" campaigns that went on in Japan before the war would also be highly desirable.

It is obvious that, until effective inspection and enforcement machinery is created, there cannot be any genuine nation-wide enforcement of safety provisions. It is possible, however, that something might be done at the prefectural level to correct really dangerous conditions. Here it might be possible for prefectural labor officials, working with union leaders, employers and local officials, to survey existing conditions, to identify major situations requiring action, and to improvise methods of correcting them. There are many simple protective devices easy to make and easy to install that could give protection against such obvious dangers as movable belts and saws, especially when such machines are used by minors and unskilled persons. It is recommended, therefore, that even before new national legislation is enacted, some effort should be made at once, working through prefectural agents, to try to achieve some measure of improvement in local areas. Union safety committees, working specifically on the elimination of hazards and on the safety education of employees, might also prove useful.

The Committee has neither the technical competency nor the time to investigate thoroughly current problems in dangerous occupations. There is, however, one situation which has never before been included under occupations injurious to health to which the Committee desires to call attention. This is the seat basin type of silk reeling where female employees continuously dip their fingers in water as hot as 180°. Constant emersion in such hot water leads to a variety of skin diseases. The hours in these plants at

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the present time are extemely long; a 9½ or 10-hour day is not uncommon. There appears to be some possibility that methods can be devised to reduce or prevent injury to persons engaged in this work by the use of protective chemicals. Unless this proves successful, even an 8-hour day in this occupation would be excessive. Under present conditions, seven or even six hours of such work is more injurious to the worker's health than 9 or even 10 hours in, say, a modern cotton spinning mill.

This example suggests that there is a real need for review and extension of the present list of dangerous and harmful occupations. Drastic reduction of working hours may be necessary in some cases. There is no doubt a similar need for review and extension of the list of occupational diseases for which workers should be eligible for compensation.

Accident Compensation

The obligation of employers to pay compensation to workers in case of industrial accidents or diseases is established by the Factory Act, the Mining Act and various other legislation. At present, however, benefits payable to workers for these reasons in establishments covered by the Sickness Insurance and Pension Insurance systems are paid through these programs, which cover all employers of five or more workers in mining and manufacturing. Since the Health Insurance System is supported by equal contributions of employers and workers, the present situation is inconsistent with the usual principle that liability for industrial accident should be borne by the employer alone.

Separate legislation covers workers employed in civil engineering, construction and forestry undertakings. About half the workers and employers in these undertakings are covered by the Employer's Liability Insurance for Accidents Act which requires the employer to contribute from 0.5 to 6.0 per cent of his payroll (depending on the degree of risk) to a fund from which benefits are paid. The remainder are not covered by regular contributions, but the employer is responsible for the payment of medical costs and other benefits under the Workmen's Relief for Accident Act.

The Factory Act also provides that some employers having less than five employees are legally liable for accidents. Since these small employers are not covered by Sickness and Pension Insurance, the employer's liability is direct. Seamen and State employees are covered by still other laws.

The overlapping and differences in coverage between these various programs creates a rather confused situation. The legislation should be strengthened and at the same time simplified, but the detailed actions required must be considered in conjunction with comprehensive reforms in the Japanese Social Insurance System, which are discussed in the Committee's separate report on that subject. The following general types of change are recommended to provide workers with adequate security against economic loss due to industrial disease and accident:

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(1) Revision of financing so that either the entire cost of such compensation, or a considerably greater share of the cost, is borne by the employer.

(2) More adequate benefits for temporary disability. Most workers at present receive compensation equal to 60 per cent of the "basic wage", which does not include the special allowances and bonuses which are an important fraction of total earnings. Thus compensation often covers less than half of the worker's real wage loss.

(3) More adequate payments in case of adequate or permanent disability - the benefits now payable in such circumstances are less in many cases than the compensation for prolonged temporary disability.

J. Child Labor and Apprenticeship

A sound program of protective labor legislation must provide special protection to child workers both because they are less able than adults to protect their own interests, and because interruption of education or impairment of health in childhood may permanently impair their earning power as adults and their ability to function as fully effective members of society. Two general groups of problems require attention: those connected with the apprentice system, and those which limit the minimum age at which employment is permitted or otherwise restrict the conditions under which children may be employed.

Apprentice System

The industrialization of Japan led to the development of many abuses in the apprenticeship system which gradually evolved out of the guilds and crafts which had existed for three centuries before the end of the Tokugawa-Edo period. In this earlier system, similar to that of Europe in the feudal era, there was a strong paternalistic relationship between master and pupil - with the former furnishing home, food, clothing and education until, after several years of close supervision, the apprentice became a qualified craftsman.

With the development of factories in place of handicraft production methods, the master-pupil relationship developed into what was often no more than a method of exploiting child labor. In the small workshop, apprentices seldom learned a skilled trade, but instead provided an abundance of labor at low wages. Limited surveys in the 1930's showed that an important fraction of the workers in certain small-scale industries were apprentices, that their contracts usually ran from 3 to 5 years and that they were receiving little or no wages directly for their work (in one industry, 50 sen to one yen per month for spending money). The contract often involved an advance payment to the apprentice's parents, with a sizeable balance paid upon completion of the contract.

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In those cases where an actual trade was taught, the length of apprenticeship was often unusually long, considering the type of employment. Figures such as 5 years for tailors and 4 years for barbers are reported as typical.

Wartime conditions, which channeled labor into war production and curtailed the pre-war industries in which apprenticeship was prevalent, led to a vast reduction in apprenticeship and contract labor. The basic framework on which they were based, however, still exists both in custom and law - and their revival is extremely likely unless proper steps are taken to check their growth.

Adequate legal protection for the apprentice is sorely lacking. Article 625 of the Civil Code permits apprentice contracts for apprentices employed in trade or industry to run for as long as ten years - regardless of occupation. Article 28 of the Factory Act provides that training of apprentices should impart the knowledge and skill necessary for a definite occupation or trade, and permits the Prefectural Governor to take necessary corrective actions. However, the provisions of this law are restrictive in application to the extent that no given year did over 70 factories throughout the entire nation fall within the limitations of Article 28. The maximum number of apprentices receiving protection under this law throughout Japan in any given year is about 3,000; the minimum, as low as 500.

As the conversion of Japan to a peace-time economy progresses, there will again be a trend toward the hiring of cheap apprentice labor. Moreover, revival of industries producing consumer goods after the contraction of such industries during the war years necessitates a broad plan for training an abundant supply of skilled labor and craftsmen. The Committee therefore recommends inauguration of a program to insure proper training of apprentices under local and national governmental supervision, based upon a systematic procedure for vocational guidance, and requiring employers to register each apprentice with a government agency whose purpose will be to take necessary follow-up measures to insure that apprentices are taught their respective trades within a prescribed minimum period.

In addition, the Committee recommends that present legislation be revised to provide that all provisions of the Factory Act (or of new protective legislation) shall apply to all workers, regardless of whether certain employees are described by the employer as apprentices. Further, legislation should be enacted to protect apprentice labor from being bound into lengthy service involuntarily, especially in the small workshops where this archaic practice has been common.

Minimum Age Legislation

Minimum age legislation involves restrictions of several types on the employment of minors. Among these are the minimum age at which a child may be permitted to work, and various restrictions on hours of work and the nature of employment for children above this minimum and below the age at which they cease to need special protection.

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Legislation now on the books protects child labor in various occupations, including mining and quarrying, manufacturing, shipbuilding, construction, transportation, and hauling of goods at docks and warehouses, but for the most part is substandard at its best. Moreover, lack of adequate governmental and local administrative facilities to implement existing child labor protective legislation minimizes its effectiveness. Coverage is restricted: factories employing less than 10 workers (unless certain types of power-driven equipment are used) are completely exempt from the provisions of the Factory Act, nor does legislation exist protecting minors employed in agriculture, sericulture, fisheries, banking, postan and telegraphic services, nursing, hotels, and restaurants.

The Industrial Workers Minimum Age Act of 1923, which contains the widest application of child labor legislation, applies to nearly all mining, manufacturing, construction, transportation, and goods handling activities. The Act prohibits employment of children under 12, and permits children from 12 to 14 to work only if they have completed elementary school. The employer is required to keep a register listing all workers under 16 years of age, and a properly accredited official may inspect the premises of any enterprise covered by the Act. The penalties for contravention range from 500 to 1,000 yen.

The Factory Act, though containing no flat minimum age provision, bars children from work at certain hours and certain hazardous operations. Workers under 16 are barred from all hazardous occupations prohibited for women, and from certain others - chiefly those involving the handling of dangerous or poisonous substances. No special protection of this type is extended to children employed in other enterprises covered by the Industrial Workers Minimum Age Act.

Three other laws provide protection for children in special industries. Employment of children in underground work in mines is prohibited, with certain exceptions, under mining regulations adopted in 1928. Under the Act Respecting Seamen, children under 16 may not be employed as seamen on any vessel under the jurisdiction of the Act, and persons up to 18 may not be employed without a medical certificate stating that they are physically capable of performing the necessary work. The permission of parents is required for the employment of minors. The employment of persons under 18 as trimmers or stokers is flatly prohibited. A Special Act Concerning the Prevention of Ill-treatment of Children, passed in 1933, gives the prefectural governor discertionary powers to prohibit employment of children under 14 in certain occupations, such as peddling or entertainment, if the children are ill-treated or likely to be ill-treated.

The improvement of child labor legislation requires both the coverage of additional industries and the adoption of higher standards in those industries already covered. The desirability of such action is reinforced by the existence of a large labor surplus at present, and by the prospect that the period of compulsory education will soon be extended.

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At least in those industries now covered by such legislation, the minimum age limit for employment should be raised from 12 to 14 years, and to 15 years if the child has not completed school. (The 15 year standard is embodied in the Conventions of the International Labor Office.)

The working hours of persons under 18 should be limited in several ways. Night work for all children under 18 should be prohibited. For children under 15 (or for those under 16, if economically feasible) the maximum work day should be seven hours, counting hours in school as hours of work. The 48-hour week and 8-hour day which have been proposed above should represent the absolute maximum for children under 18, whereas adult workers should be permitted to work overtime for premium pay.

The Committee has not been able to explore the complex questions involved in extending child labor legislation to the industries which are not covered at the present but recommends that coverage be made as broad as possible--with lower age limits permitted for the time being in agriculture and certain other industries.

K. Special Problems of Women

Traditionally Japanese women have taken part in the economic life of Japan in very great numbers. It has been estimated that more than 80% of all Japanese women between the ages of 15 and 59 work for wages or in family employment. Women have taken their place beside men on the farms, have dominated sericulture, have even worked at such heavy manual jobs as mining and road building, and--in the immediate pre-war period--they made up almost half of the total industrial workers in factories employing ten or more. Women have, from the onset, dominated the all-important textile industry.

The special problems of women are important in a program of protective legislation both because of their numerical importance and because of special circumstances in Japanese industry. Many of them are drawn from the tiny farms by aggressive recruiting techniques for a term of temporary employment, which one recent survey shows averages less than three years. Their permanent return at the end of this period from the factory dormitory to the farm creates a huge labor turnover with green recruits constantly flowing in to supply the replacement demand. The particular need for adequate protection for this class of women and children, which constitutes such a large proportion of the factory workers in Japan, requires little elaboration.

Existing Legislation

Special protection for women is provided by the Factory Act, by the related Ordinance and Regulations, and by the Regulations for Employment of Miners. In many important fields, the employment of women is unregulated--including, for example, such important groups as dock workers, streetcar operators, and waitresses. Most of the types of protection provided for women can and should be extended to many other industries.

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In the fields already covered (manufacturing and mining) existing protective legislation for women is extremely inadequate. The Factory Act limits employment of women to ten hours a day and requires for them two rest days a month. It establishes certain restrictions relating to the work of women in dangerous occupations or occupations injurious to health, forbids their employment for six weeks after childbirth and requires that four weeks' leave be granted before confinement, if requested. Nursing mothers must be given two 30-minute rest periods daily. Otherwise, except for special provisions in relation to dormitories, women are in the main treated on a par with men. The mining regulations contain generally similar provisions with respect to hazardous occupations and maternity. In addition, they prohibit the employment of women in underground work, with certain exceptions.

Legislative Proposals

Since Japan's surrender, the granting of suffrage to women and the election of women members to the Diet has given added support to the idea of special legislation for women. Women also have been joining labor unions at a substantial rate, and women's sections of unions are being set up at factories to discuss special women's problems and work for improvements of conditions. In relation to proposed protective legislation, women leaders in labor and politics have been consulted for suggestions as to women's needs.

Such problems as equal pay for equal work, special rest days during periods of menstruation, longer periods of leave during pregnancy and after childbirth, and extra time for nursing mothers are being vigorously debated. Some of these suggestions are incorporated in the tentative draft of improved protective legislation. The Committee believes favorable action is desirable on the following proposals:

(a) As already recommended in Chapter I, wage differentials based on sex should be prohibited by law.

(b) The exceptions which permit women to work underground in certain mines should be eliminated.

(c) The period of rest before childbirth should be raised from 4 to 6 weeks, and employment during the first 5 weeks after childbirth (now permitted at the employee's request) should be prohibited entirely, while a rest period of 7 weeks should be allowed unless the women requests reemployment at the end of 5 weeks. Any legislative changes which are necessary to assure that women receive Health Insurance benefits during such rest periods should be enacted.

(d) Further restriction should be placed on the use of women for heavy work during pregnancy.

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(e) An absolute limit of 9 hours' work per day, six days per week, should be prescribed for women (provisions proposed elsewhere would permit adult males to work longer hours under certain conditions, with premium pay).

L. Dormitories Attached to Factories

The custom of housing workers in dormitories is a feature of the Japanese economy which gives rise to many special problems. In general, the dormitory system applies largely to women workers and especially to women workers in the textile industry. Although during the war considerable numbers of men lived in dormitories at large war production plants, and although traditionally there have been dormitories for men in the mining areas, the numbers have been small, and will probably decline under post-war conditions. Before the war more than 80% of the women workers in the textile industry lived in dormitories located within the mill compound; in the cotton spinning and weaving section of the industry, and in silk reeling and weaving, the proportion approached 90%. According to recent statistics, the percentages today are similar. Although the number of workers in the textile industry today is less than half of the pre-war total, the approximately 250,000 women workers involved constitute an extremely important segment of Japanese industry, and the importance of the dormitory problem will increase as employment expands.

Several aspects of the system have been mentioned in connection with child labor. Farm girls, many of them just out of primary school, are recruited by agents and brought to the mill under a contract. In pre-war years the usual contract ran for three years and involved the payment of an advance to the parents of the child, to be repaid out of wages. Various other sums were advanced to the worker including travel expenses, money for uniforms, etc. All of these advances were taken from wages, so that it was possible for the girl to work for several months before any money was credited to her at all. It was the usual practice to give the worker a small monthly allowance while the rest of the wages were either sent to the parents by the factory owner or were deposited by him in a savings account in the worker's name.

At the factory the girl worker lived in a dormitory, sharing a room with a number of other girls. Life was extremely routinized. The girls arose and went to bed by a special schedule, worked in the factory during the day, and frequently took part in routinized education or recreation in their free time. There were many limits to their freedom. It was not easy for them to leave the mill grounds outside working hours. There were restrictions about their receiving mail and reading material and even receiving visitors. Many of these conditions are still found in dormitories today.

Criticisms of the System

This system has long been criticized by students of the problem, some of whom would like to abolish it entirely. They have pointed to the serious abuses that are possible under the system, including misrepresentation by

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recruiting agents; extremely bad physical conditions and overcrowding in some of the dormitories; the lack of control over their earnings by the girl workers; and even on some occasions the defrauding of the girls by unscrupulous management. Even more important, in terms of the goals of the Occupation, is the fact that the dormitory system has been one of the many social patterns which have impeded the growth of democratic living and individual freedom. Life within the dormitory walls was well regimented, and left little free time for "dangerous thought", or even for any significant intellectual life.

Today many are considering very seriously the problems involved. In general, however, Japanese government officials and labor leaders favor setting up safeguards to correct abuses in the dormitory system rather than abolishing it altogether. The dormitory system developed naturally in Japan as a result of a special social and economic situation in which young girls from the ages of 15 to 22 left their country homes to work in factories in distant places. The Japanese family system made no arrangement for the independence of such workers, and when such dormitories were properly conducted in respect to the physical comforts, it was felt that the girls were sheltered and protected, housed and fed better than would be possible if they were living independently. Since the girls themselves were not permanent workers, they, in general, accepted the system without protest. Today, the changing status of women and the rapid growth of unions makes it almost certain that they will progressively demand improvements in their conditions.

While the dormitory conditions are unsatisfactory, it is also true that the living conditions for many Japanese workers outside the dormitories are deplorable - in respect to fuel, food, clothing and housing. Because of the destruction of housing in the cities, workers must travel long distances to their jobs in overcrowded transportation. Workers living in their own homes lose much time from work while they visit rural areas to search for supplementary food. In the dormitories, some of these problems are solved by the employer rather than by the individual worker. Living quarters, bad though they may be, are available without the discomfort of travel between home and the job. The employer assumes the responsibility for furnishing food. On balance, it appears that under existing conditions, the dormitory system can be useful if properly operated.

Existing Legislation

Existing legislation - especially the "Regulations for Dormitories attached to Factories" (1927), based on the Factory Act - deals with a number of problems connected with physical conditions in dormitories and establishes standards designed to protect the health and safety of the workers. Fairly detailed regulations also govern recruitment practices. Almost nothing is done, however, to deal with the "human" problems of personal freedom for dormitory workers.

The pre-war protective legislation covered with considerable completeness the mechanical aspects of the dormitory problem. For example, the regulation concerning dormitories specifies that the dormitories should be separated

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from work shops where conditions were considered dangerous, such as shops making inflammable substances or explosives, and shops where poisonous or irritating vapors, gases or dust were generated. Other standards governed the construction of sleeping rooms, precautions against fire, space for living and storing possessions, bathing facilities, cleanliness of bedding, and various other subjects. In general, the regulations are explicit and fairly inclusive. In practice, however, the enforcement left much to be desired, even in the pre-war period.

Today, there is extreme variation in conditions in dormitories from mill to mill. In respect to the construction of the dormitory itself, some of the "model" establishments leave little to be desired. The worst, however, is as bad as any city slum. Members of the Committee have seen dormitories with inside rooms without light or air, directly attached to the factory itself where overcrowding was deplorable. If the existing factory regulations were enforced, such dormitories would be abolished. One of the first tasks of a strengthened inspection service should be to enforce improvement of conditions at the earliest possible time.

Recommendations

Legislation should be adopted to correct abuses in the social side of life in the dormitories, which has been so justly criticized. Life in the dormitory is regulated by a system of custodians, dormitory matrons, and room leaders. The custodian decides the routine of factory life, such as time for getting up, going to bed, time of attendance and time of leaving the factory. Employees must obtain special permission to leave the factory area after a certain hour, and are often required to answer a roll call before retiring. Rules set by the employer or the custodian may also control visitors, entertainment, correspondence, and other personal matters.

Legislation should establish definite limits on the authority of the employer to control matters involving life in the dormitories and the freedom accorded to workers, and should provide for the greatest possible autonomy or participation by the employees in such matters. The employer should also be required to put such rules in writing and receive the approval of the appropriate Labor Ministry officials.

Legislation should also positively guarantee certain rights of employees. They should be permitted to leave the premises or receive visitors during the early evening hours, and should be protected from interference with conversation or assembly within the dormitory, except to the extent that limits are determined by the inhabitants themselves. The free circulation of written and printed material should also be guaranteed by law.

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CHAPTER VI

THE JAPANESE PUBLIC LABOR EXCHANGE SYSTEM:

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Committee's detailed report on the Japanese Labor Exchange System, submitted in May 1946, has been placed in the hands of the Welfare Ministry as the basis for revising the program and procedures of the labor exchanges. This Chapter consists primarily of excerpts from the much longer report originally prepared, or from the summary of that report. The description of the system refers to conditions prior to 1 May 1946.

A. Introduction

There are in Japan nearly 600 public labor exchanges, operated by Prefectural and local governments under the general direction of the Ministry of Welfare. The system dates back to the law of 1921, which authorized the creation of a Nation-wide system of free public placement offices. During the war, in Japan as in other countries, the labor exchange system became one of the principal mechanisms for controlling the allocation and distribution of manpower for war production, and the exchanges were closely intermeshed with the war-time labor front organizations.

This connection carried over for a few months after the surrender and after the official dissolution of the labor front; but in the spring of 1946, after the transfer of the labor exchange system from the police to the Welfare Ministry, the connection seemed to have been largely eliminated. Remnants of it are still evident, however, in the relations of some labor exchanges with the labor bosses, who in many cases are the labor front in thin disguise.

In form and function, the Japanese labor exchanges bear a strong family resemblance to their cousins in the West, especially in the U.S. This is only to be expected. Employer-employee relationships and hiring practices like those of the West have followed in the wake of the increasing industrialization of Japan. Although there are many remnants of traditional customs, especially among the small, quasi-family workshops, the tendency is toward wage employment, with freedom of both employer and employee to contract and to terminate the relationship.

The war accelerated this tendency; and in spite of the post-war limitations on the Japanese economy, it is likely that the spread of political freedom, labor organization and industrial rationalization, under American influence, will further undermine the semi-feudal and paternalistic practices and encourage the spread of Western employer-employee patterns in law and in practice. The spread of these patterns will result in increased mobility of labor with a consequent increase in the need for labor exchanges. On the other hand, the prevalence of very small, overcrowded family farms and the small amount of wage employment makes agriculture largely self-sufficient in manpower and limits the need for an agricultural placement service.

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In post-war Japan, with these tendencies, the public labor exchange system should have as its objectives the performance of the following functions:

(1) Recruitment of Japanese labor for the Occupation Forces.

(2) Recruitment and placement of labor required for revival and maintenance of Japanese industry, commerce and services.

(a) Filling permanent labor requirements of Japanese employers.
(b) Mobilizing casual labor for day-to-day employment.

(c) Conducting special Nation-wide recruitment programs (for example, coal mining and textiles).

(3) Selection and placement of unemployed for public work.

(4) Labor market analysis of post-war geographical, industrial and occupational patterns of employment and unemployment, and participation in planning the use of labor supply accordingly.

(5) Development of a vocational training program based on the needs of the Japanese labor market.

(6) Development of counseling and placement services for special classes who need special attention (such as school graduates and physically handicapped).

(7) Provision of services which will eliminate the need for, and consequently the use of, labor bosses and other uneconomic and archaic forms of recruitment.

In addition, the labor exchanges should have a central role in the administration of unemployment compensation, if such a program is later developed.

With these objectives in mind, members of the Committee have examined the operation of the labor exchange system, at all levels: the Ministry of Welfare, the Prefectural Offices, and local labor exchanges. Altogether, eight Prefectural and 15 local offices were visited, and their operations examined in detail. The visits covered all of the six largest cities and several smaller ones. The local offices included some of the largest and some of the smaller, handling both casual and general types of labor. Statistics have been gathered and analyzed; and forms, procedures and maps studied.

It must be borne in mind that the labor exchanges are operating under extraordinarily difficult circumstances. Many of their buildings have been destroyed and others badly damaged. Many millions of people are virtually homeless, and a large part of the labor supply has been scattered beyond the

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reach of overburdened transport and uncertain communications. The aftermath of the war and the inflation have disrupted production, wages and prices and thus conspire against reemployment. The Committee has been surprised at the success of some of the labor exchanges in carrying on a comparatively effective placement service under these conditions.

Members of the Committee brought to this survey a background of extensive experience in the United States Employment Service, but it has not been their object to remake the Japanese labor exchange system in the image of the American. On the contrary, they have tried to approach the problem with a view to suggesting ways in which the Japanese labor exchanges may be more effective and more useful within the framework of the present and near-future Japanese economy and society. They have tried to distill from their American experience the basic principles of good labor exchange operations and administration and to apply these principles to Japan. Since their observations of this country have been limited both in time and in space, the recommendations which follow should be considered to represent not a blueprint but a line of approach, the successful pursuit of which will require continuous effort of the Ministry of Welfare with the guidance and assistance of GHQ.

The months that lie ahead offer both a challenge and an opportunity to the Japanese labor exchanges. The readjustment of the Japanese economy requires large scale redistribution of the labor supply which will test all the resources of the system. At the same time, the general climate of fluidity and change invites bold innovation in laying the foundations of an employment service best suited to the kind of economy and society that are emerging. This cannot be done by imitating the experience of other countries. It requires understanding of the Japanese labor market, exercise of characteristic Japanese energy and resourcefulness, and, above all, constant reevaluation and adaptation to the Japanese scene.

B. Recommended Policies

Manpower is Japan's greatest asset, and the reconstruction of Japan depends very largely on mobilizing manpower for essential production and distribution. This should be the overriding objective of the labor exchange system. The over-all program should also give proper weight to the other objectives stated above.

To achieve these objectives, the Committee recommends the following policies to govern the organization, administration and operation of the labor exchange system:

Administrative policies

(1) The exclusive responsibility for the labor exchange system should be vested in a Ministry of Labor, and until such a Ministry is established, in the Ministry of Welfare.

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(2) The administrative line should extend directly from the Ministry to local labor exchanges, through field administrative offices.

(3) At all levels there should be systematic supervision, and administrative accountability through periodic reports.

(4) The direct supervision of the local exchanges should be performed at a level close enough to the exchanges to be intimately familiar with their operations, yet in units large enough to support a competent administrative and technical staff.

(5) Standards and procedures should be uniform throughout Japan, with only such variations in detail as are necessary to adapt to peculiar local conditions.

(6) Personnel should be specifically selected and trained for labor exchange work; and a line of promotion for personnel, from local exchanges up to the Ministry, should be recognized and its use encouraged.

Operating Policies

(1) The labor exchanges exist to provide a free public service to workers and employers, without coercion or favor. The service should be available to all workers and employers who need it.

(2) No preference shall be given to any employer or class of employers, or any worker or class of workers, except in conformity with priorities established Nationally to expedite economic recovery.

(3) Operating programs should be planned on the basis of facts of labor demand and supply, as determined by labor market reports.

(4) Labor exchanges should attract the largest possible fraction of job vacancies, in order to give workers and employers the widest opportunity for choice.

(5) Workers shall be referred only to jobs which they will accept willingly. As far as practicable, every worker should be referred to the best job he is competent to perform.

(6) As far as practicable, employers' orders should be filled exactly to specifications; but when there are no applicants who exactly meet specifications, labor exchanges should try to persuade employers to accept applicants who most nearly meet the specifications.

(7) Labor exchanges should not use labor bosses as a means of recruitment and should in no way cooperate with labor bosses, in whatever disguise, nor encourage their use by employers or workers.

(8) As between employers and workers, the labor exchanges shall maintain strict impartiality. Labor exchanges shall not refer workers to jobs which are vacant as a result of work stoppage arising from a labor dispute.

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(9) No referral shall be made to a job where the conditions of employment have been found to be in violation of law.

C. Administrative Organization

General

Responsibility for the administration of the Japanese labor exchanges rests in the Bureau of Employment in the Welfare Ministry. While the headquarters staff is part of the Welfare Ministry, all of the Prefectural and local personnel are appointees of the Home Ministry and administratively responsible to the Home Ministry through the Prefectural Governers. This organization setup results from the system whereby all Prefectural officials, including the Governor, are National officials and appointees of the Home Minister.

The administrative channel is from the Welfare Ministry through the Home Ministry to the Prefectural Governor, who normally carries out the instructions received from the Bureau of Employment through the Labor and Employment Section of the Prefectural Government. Under such an administrative setup, the Bureau of Employment can have only a general planning function, as all instructions must be issued or approved by the Home Ministry.

Organization of Headquarters and Prefectural Offices

The Bureau of Employment includes a Planning Section, responsible for local office training, job analysis, local office procedures, and various other technical and planning functions; a Vocational Guidance Section, responsible for supervision of vocational training programs and small-scale work relief programs; and an Operations Section, responsible for field supervision, registration of casual labor, recruitment and other operating functions.

While the organization chart indicates that most of the functions of a headquarters staff of a labor exchange system have been accounted for, little evidence was found that the functions were being adequately performed. With the present limited staff it would be extremely difficult to perform the necessary supervisory and planning functions satisfactorily. Aside from a certain amount of general planning and bureaucratic maintenance, the greatest activity of the headquarters organization seemed to be in the National recruitment drive for coal miners, where a successful job was being done; in planning for an Occupational Census; and in compiling operating statistics that are of limited value.

No organization or system exists for field supervision, either through the regular operating reports or review of Prefectural or local offices by headquarters personnel. The Bureau of Employment issues very general instructions and assumes that they will be understood and executed correctly.

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Local office procedures and training are assigned to the Planning Section, but field investigations failed to reveal any evidence of headquarters activity on these functions. In fact, there was little evidence that headquarters was providing any continuing leadership, planning or supervision, except in the coal mining recruitment program.

There is considerable variation in the organization structure of the several Prefectures as each Governor has final authority over organization structure in his Prefecture. In the larger Prefectures provision has been made for the necessary labor exchange planning and supervisory functions. However, inspection of local offices did not reveal any supervision or planning by the Prefectural Office except in the supply of labor to the Occupation Forces (in places where the boss system was not used for this recruitment)

In no case was there any provision for analysis or interpretation of available labor market information, for procedures development or review, or for systematic evaluation of operations. If a local exchange develops a good procedure or is particularly effective in meeting certain operating problems, this information is not systematically made available to other exchanges by the Prefectural Office.

Only eight of the 47 prefectures have as many as 15 local exchanges under their jurisdiction, and half the prefectures have less than 10. This is too small an operation to support the number and quality of administrative and technical personnel essential to good labor exchange management.

Overhead assigned to supervise from 5 to 13 offices in a small area is excessive and results either in under-use of good personnel, or in staffing with inferior personnel because the job is not important enough to attract competent personnel.

Recommendations - Headquarters and Regional Offices

1. The objective is to have a National system of labor exchanges in a Ministry of Labor. In such an organization, the Bureau of Employment (headquarters staff) should have authority and responsibility for the direct operation of the entire labor exchange system.

2. The line of administrative authority should extend directly from the Bureau of Employment in the Welfare Ministry to Regional Offices of the Bureau. The line should run direct from the Regional Offices to local exchanges The Prefectural Offices, as a unit in labor exchange administration, should be by-passed, although it is necessary to maintain liaison with them on matters of common concern.

3. The responsibilities of the several levels of administration should be as follows:

(a) Bureau of Employment responsible for National policies, plans, and programs; standards and procedures; general direction of operations; on the basis of labor market information, advise other Ministries with respect to policies and programs affecting employment.

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(b) Regional Offices responsible for direct supervision of the labor exchanges; serve as administrative channel for the Bureau of Employment; collect and analyze labor market information; plan Regional and local operating programs.

(c) Until the Regional Offices are able to assume these responsibilities, the Prefectural Offices will continue to be used.

4. A procedure for direct, systematic supervision, based on field inspection, should be introduced, with periodic reports of progress toward planned objectives.

5. Until such time as it is possible to bring the entire labor exchange system into a Ministry of Labor (or Welfare), the Prefectural Office will need to be continued as the supervisory unit immediately responsible for the operations of the labor exchanges. As far as possible, they should report through the Regional Offices. Pending the transfer of the budget from the Prefectural Government to a Ministry of Labor (or Welfare), budgetary control will have to remain in the Prefectural Offices.

6. All planning, analysis and technical work should be done either in the Regional Offices or in the Bureau of Employment, which can support a technical staff for the purpose.

Organization - Local Labor Exchanges and Casual Labor Exchanges

The staff of the local labor exchange is usually organized into two major divisions, General Affairs or Plans Section, and Business Affairs. The General Affairs Section is responsible for finances, statistics, files and all written reports; Business Affairs Section is responsible for all applicant and employer relations. Men and women are handled in separate sections, with the men's section frequently divided into Commercial, Clerical and Industrial groups.

Because Japanese writing does not readily lend itself to the maintenance of an efficient filing system nor to rapid reproduction of records, a very large part of the staff is engaged in "paper work." Compilation of the statistical reports of current operations is a difficult and not very productive process.

While there is organization of the office, in the sense that personnel know their assignments and lines of authority are clear, the offices are not organized to control applicant traffic, distribution of work load, employer orders, employer relations program or other operating problems. With the present low level of traffic in the offices, this lack of control over operations makes the exchanges less efficient than they should be, but it does not result in general confusion. However, any substantial increase in applicant traffic might have such an effect.

An effective system of casual labor exchanges has been operated for a number of years. The offices are organized in two main divisions; General Affairs and Business Affairs. The former section deals with fiscal matters,

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including payrolls for private and government emplyers statistics, written reports, extra rations for heavy work and all correspondence. Business Affairs is responsible for interviewing, selection, referral and employer contact. These functions are well organized and under adequate administrative control.

The general organization structure of the local labor exchanges seems to be satisfactory for the present. Within this general framework there needs to be more specialization in employer relations and in labor market information work. In achieving this greater specialization, however, care must be taken not to lose the present flexibility of the staff.

To get the greatest advantages out of the procedural changes recommended in this report, it will be necessary to establish controls over employer orders, flow of traffic, employer contacts, and flexibility of staff to meet peak loads.

No recommendations are made for organizational change in the casual labor exchanges. It is recommended that these offices be extended as a means of eliminating labor bosses.

D. Personnel - Findings and Recommendations

There are approximately 9,000 employees in the labor exchange system; 60 in Bureau of Employment in Tokyo; about 400 in the Labor Exchange Sections of the 47 Prefectural Offices; and an estimated 8,600 in about 600 local labor exchanges. Employees of the Bureau of Employment are appointees of the Minister of Welfare; officials at the Prefectural Offices are appointees of the Home Minister; both of these groups are included in the Japanese Civil Service System. A review of the personnel histories of a representative sample of Prefectural labor exchange officials and officials of the Bureau of Employment shows that they were usually promoted to their position in the labor exchange system from an unrelated job in another Ministry or Bureau. In some cases their past work record is such as to indicate a lack of sympathy with labor problems and no experience in the administration of a labor program.

In the local labor exchanges, the Manager has Civil Service status and is appointed by the Home Minister, usually from among the lowest group who pass the Civil Service exam, as these positions carry the lowest rank included in Civil Service System. All other employees are without status and are hired, promoted, demoted or dismissed by the Prefectural Governor on the recommendation of the Manager; there is no right of appeal from such actions.

The objectives of the Bureau of Employment should be to have a staff that is well informed and experienced in general labor problems and skilled in the performance of their individual tasks. In a country where personnel with experience in administration of modern labor legislation is very limited, qualified personnel must be obtained by means of careful selection, according to recognized standards, and a well-rounded training program.

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The Committee recommends the following policies in this connection:

(1) Additional administrative and technical personnel need to be recruited and trained for the Bureau of Employment immediately, and for the Regional Offices as they are established.

(2) Placement staff of local exchanges should include personnel experienced in industry and commerce.

(3) Promotions, particularly the filling of the more important positions in the labor exchange system, should be made from among qualified personnel, experienced in administration of the labor exchanges. It is recognized that this is contrary to practices of the Japanese Civil Service, but it is deemed essential if good personnel is to be retained and fully utilized by the labor exchange system, and if full advantage is to be taken of the experience gained in the lower positions in the service.

(4) An extensive program of training in the objectives, policies and procedures for all personnel is needed to reorient the system from a war-time program of control to a peace-time program of service. Local exchange personnel need to become familiar with the industries which they are to serve.

E. Operations of Local Labor Exchanges

The Committee's detailed findings and recommendations on the operation of local labor exchanges are briefly outlined in the following paragraphs:

(1) Local labor exchanges seem on the whole to be well located for providing service; the locations should be reviewed periodically in the light of changing labor market conditions. Housekeeping is worse than it needs to be and should be improved.

(2) The general method of selecting applicants for placement as they flow through the local exchanges is suited to the circumstances of the Japanese labor market. But the typical layout is not designed to facilitate traffic, and forms and procedures are unnecessarily complex. Layout should be changed to accommodate a flow of traffic, and forms and procedures should be simplified. Specific suggestions have been made.

(3) The method of classifying applicants and job orders according to occupation is not sufficiently exact for good placement. A standard occupational classification, based on definitions, should be introduced in all exchanges.

(4) Relations between employers and labor exchanges are good, but casual. They should be systematized, expanded, and made a matter of record, to facilitate administrative control of service to employers.

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(5) There is a chronic shortage of applicants to the labor exchanges. Intensive recruitment should be undertaken immediately, to attract applicants needed to fill current job orders.

(6) Recruitment of workers in one place for work in another is adding to congestion and food shortage in cities. Recommendations are made for controlling such recruitment, and at the same time facilitating migration found necessary to meet labor demands.

(7) A general program of counseling and placement of physically handicapped workers is lacking and should be initiated.

(8) Casual labor exchanges are doing an acceptable job, especially in recruiting for the Occupation Forces. The operations of the casual exchanges are too limited and should be expanded, along with other measures to eradicate labor bosses, as recommended in a separate report.

(9) Lack of administrative controls is characteristic of all phases of local labor exchange operations. Recommendations have been made for installing control procedures at important stages in the operation; notably, intake, registration, order-filling and placement.

F. Labor Exchange Reports and Statistics

Reports from labor exchanges are used to develop policies, programs, and procedures for the labor exchange system. A series of internal local exchange reports are needed to develop and operate adequate local exchange procedures. Reports made by the exchanges to the Regional and Prefectural Offices are needed to supervise the labor exchanges and to administer various programs. Reports are needed by the Ministry of Welfare to supervise and administer a labor exchange program and to develop labor exchange procedures.

The Bureau of Employment in the Ministry of Welfare has responsibilities which go beyond the operation of labor exchanges. The local labor exchange is in a unique position; operating between workers and employers, it is in a position to know the current status of management-labor relationships such as labor supply and demand, wages, hours, and other conditions of employment, labor union activities, the problems of staffing essential industries, and the problem of finding jobs for the unemployed. These relationships are important to nearly all phases of the National economy; and many other government agencies are constantly making decisions on various programs which will affect or be affected by them.

It should be the responsibility of the Bureau of Employment to insure that adequate information on these matters is brought to the attention of persons planning such policies and programs. Accurate and current reporting can provide the basis for a sound relationship between the Bureau of Employment and the other Ministries. Special attention should be given to assisting

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in the development of policies and programs concerning production and public works. Labor exchange reports are also useful in connection with programs concerning housing, wages, labor relations, cost of living, prices, and population distribution.

Recommendations

1. The statistical reporting system of the labor exchanges is cumbersome and slow, and does not provide the information needed for good administration. Recommendations have been made for simpler statistics, covering a wider variety of operating subjects, that can be reported promptly and used effectively for administrative purposes.

2. There is no system of progress reporting from local labor exchanges to higher administrative levels. Such a system is recommended.

3. Accurate, current information on the labor market is not now available through the labor exchange system. Information of this kind, covering labor supply and demand and the conditions that affect them, is indispensable not only to good labor exchange operations but to all public policies affecting or affected by the labor market. A limited, but expanding, program of this kind is recommended, and a prospectus has been prepared.

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CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF LABOR FUNCTIONS IN THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT

A. Summary

Japan's present machinery for labor administration is in need of thorough overhauling. The agencies responsible for labor administration have traditionally been weak and understaffed, even in terms of the limited labor programs which existed before the war. Events since the surrender have introduced a changed concept of labor's place in Japanese society, and have created new problems and responsibilities for which the present administrative structure is totally inadequate.

The increased importance and complexity of labor administration results from several factors: (a) Completely new functions are developing, especially in connection with labor unions and labor relations. (b) A number of programs which in recent years have existed only in rudimentary forms, such as protective legislation, are being rapidly expanded and intensified. (c) Policies and procedures in many fields must be reshaped to fit peace-time conditions instead of war-time needs. (d) Labor programs have extremely important implications not only for wage-earners and employers, but also in the general reshaping of political, economic and social institutions which is now taking place.

The Committee believes certain basic principles are indispensable to sound labor administration. Labor functions should be grouped in a single agency which is not concerned with unrelated matters. To assure that labor considerations are adequately reflected in national policies, this agency should be of Cabinet rank. The administrative structure should provide each major labor program an opportunity for growth and influence; it should assure that national policies are effectively carried out through local and intermediate administrative units directly responsible to the Ministry which creates policies and procedures: and it should be furnished with personnel and budgetary resources consistent with its task.

Since the present administrative structure fails to meet any of these basic requirements, the Committee makes the following recommendations, which are more fully discussed below:

1. The first step toward correcting the present defects must be the establishment of a strong and independent Ministry of Labor. The Committee concurs in the basic policy of GHQ/SCAP that such action should, if possible, come through Japanese initiative. It believes, however, that the need for action is so urgent, and the effects of delay so potentially harmful, that GHQ/SCAP should take all necessary steps to assure that the Cabinet acts promptly to carry out its announced intention of creating such a Ministry.

2. Establishment of a strong Labor Ministry will necessarily involve transferring to it certain labor functions now located in other agencies.

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Among these are the labor functions connected with seamen, mining, railroads, and other government enterprises - all of which should be lodged in the new Labor Ministry unless extremely persuasive reasons for continued separation are advanced. The Ministry's relationship with the Central and Prefectural Labor Relations Committees also needs to be clarified; these Committees should be attached to the Ministry but should retain complete independence in their quasi-judicial functions, while purely administrative functions should be assigned to regular Bureaus of the Ministry.

3. The Committee does not attempt in this report to propose a detailed plan for internal organization of the new Labor Ministry. It is clear, however, that separate Bureaus should be established to deal with several functions that need greater attention. Among these are labor relations; research and education; protective labor legislation; the special problems connected with women workers and child labor; and, at least during the present emergency, wage and salary administration.

4. At present the local administration of labor programs is handled by units in the Prefectural Government, which is administratively controlled by the Home Ministry. The indirect channels of supervision and control available to the Welfare Ministry clearly do not assure that policies and programs will be efficiently and consistently administered. The Committee recommends that the local and intermediate levels of labor administration be part of, and directly responsible to, the new Labor Ministry.

5. No reform of administrative structure or relation ships will have much meaning if the budgetary resources of the Labor Ministry prevent it from acquiring, training, and using a staff of the size and quality required to do its job. The Committee believes that one of the important objectives of GHQ/SCAP in the labor field must be to assure that the Labor Ministry gets the resources it needs to carry out its obligations.

6. Democratic labor administration calls for a high degree of responsiveness to local conditions and to public opinion. A bureaucratic organization in which all decisions are made at the top, and passed down through a hierarchy of major and minor officials, cannot achieve this flexibility. Nationally and locally, some provision should be made for the participation of representatives of workers, employers, and the general public in the development and interpretation of policies; but at the same time, the authority and responsibility of the administrative agencies which carry out such policies should be clear.

B. The Changing Character of the Government's Administrative Functions

In investigating the various governmental programs affecting labor in Japan, the Committee has found much evidence of need for a stronger, better integrated administrative structure. Labor programs involve a complex interaction between various economic groups, and require skill in weighing the relative importance of sometimes conflicting economic and social objectives. Only a competent, well-coordinated administrative organization can make the right decisions as to policies and operating programs, and

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assure that these policies are not obscure, mishandled or misinterpreted in individual situations.

In accordance with the Potsdam Declaration and the basic policies established to guide the occupation, sweeping changes in the status of Japanese labor and in the scope and character of programs affecting labor have occurred since Japan's surrender. As noted in earlier chapters, these changes have involved:

1. The rapid growth of substantially new labor functions. Examples are the administrative functions related to the newly legalized labor unions, the development of machinery for settling labor disputes, and the largely unmet need for extensive labor and employer education. In such fields, effective administration is especially difficult because of the shortage of experienced personnel, lack of established precedents, and the absence of suitable government instrumentalities.

2. The rapid expansion or alteration of programs which have existed only in rudimentary or weak forms in recent years. The reinstatement of protective legislation, virtually suspended during the war, has created governmental responsibilities far beyond the resources of the staff and machinery available for enforcement. In addition, legislative programs now being prepared may involve profound changes in the scope and content of the Factory Act and other protective legislation effecting the status of women workers, child labor, minimum wage programs, etc.

3. The need for reshaping administrative policies and procedures in certain field to fit peace-time conditions and objectives rather than war-time needs. Examples are the labor exchange system, vocational training programs, and programs related to wage stabilization and wage structure - all of which must now deal with problems quite different from those of a war economy. Labor programs must also assume new functions in relation to government work programs and the manpower aspects of over-all employment planning.

4. The need for creating or expanding activities which have been neglected or inadequate in previous Japanese practice. Labor administration in a democracy requires adequate programs of fact finding and research to make available to workers, employers, and the general public the facts required for intelligent participation in the development of programs and policies. Other functions which acquire increased importance in a democratic society are those related to government work programs and social security in the employment field, which are closely related to labor administration; and those related to general economic policies (such as wage and price control and the allocation of materials) which effect workers as consumers or affect their opportunity for employment.

In the light of these factors, it is clear that labor administration in post-war Japan will be something far greater in complexity and size than anything in the country's former history. It will require the immediate creation of an administrative organization comparable to those of the major Departments or Ministries which have been found necessary in all other countries where labor programs of similar scope have grown up - usually through

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decades of gradual evolution.

C. Recommendation for Establishment of a Separate Labor Ministry.

Historical Background

In every democratic modern industrial nation, effective labor administration has required the establishment of a single agency, responsible for all functions involved in a comprehensive labor program, and not required to deal with unrelated functions. To assure that labor considerations are effectively presented and have adequate weight in the development of national policies, this agency should be, and almost invariably is, of Cabinet rank.

Labor administration in Japan has always in the past been treated as a relatively minor function, although liberal and labor interests have vigorously urged the establishment of an independent department of labor. It was not until 1938 that a Bureau of Labor was created (in the newly established Welfare Ministry) with responsibility for protective labor legislation and matters concerning labor conditions generally; the administration of labor exchanges, however, remained in a separate Bureau of Social Affairs, but in the same Ministry. During the war, labor programs were largely suspended or converted to new purposes related to the mobilization of manpower for the war effort. As part of this program, the labor exchange function expanded into an independent Bureau.

At the national level, responsibility for most of the labor functions of the Japanese Government is now assigned to two Bureaus in the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare. Functions related to labor relations, protective labor legislation, and wage administration are located in the "Bureau of Labor Administration" (possibly bettertranslated as "Bureau of Labor Policy"). The general field of employment and manpower administration is assigned to the "Bureau of Employment", which has been described in Chapter VI.

Outside the Welfare Ministry, important labor functions are performed by the Central and Prefectural Labor Relations Committees, which administer the Trade Union Act and will become responsible also for the Labor Disputes Adjustment Act if the bill now before the Diet becomes law. The Bureau of Labor Administration (or the corresponding Prefectural units) have certain administrative functions under these laws, but responsibility for interpretation and application of the law in specific cases is that of the Labor Relations Committees.

Also outside the Welfare Ministry are certain labor functions performed by other ministries in connection with specific industries or groups of government employees. The Transportation Ministry, for example, is responsible for maritime workers and the employees of government railroads; the Ministry of Commerce and Industry administers labor programs in coal mining and in government monopolies.

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Defects of the Present Structure

The establishment of a strong and independent Ministry of Labor is indispensable if the present defects and weaknesses of Japanese labor administration are to be corrected. The difficulties which stem from the present submergence of labor functions in the Ministry of Health and Welfare, already suggested above, are more fully outlined here:

1. Labor functions are located in two bureaus of a Ministry which also deals with unrelated matters such as public health, sanitation, relief, and social insurance. This arrangement necessarily means that the Government's responsibility in the labor field receives only part of the attention of the Cabinet Minister. Further, this attention tends to be secondary to that devoted to non-labor functions, which are represented in five of the seven bureaus in the present Ministry. Since they have few important connections at the operating level, neither the health and welfare functions nor the labor functions are benefited to any extent by being located in the same Ministry, while the attention of the Minister, his secretariat, and the General Affairs Section is dispersed between unrelated tasks.

2. The present arrangement means that labor problems and proposed programs affecting labor are not directly represented in the policy discussions at the Cabinet level. The growth of democratic labor institutions would be advanced if a spokesman fully conversant with such problems were able to present them at the Cabinet level, without the distraction of other unrelated duties.

3. Apart from the lack of Cabinet representation, the mixed functions of the present Ministry weaken the effectiveness of top supervision in the labor field. The selection of a Cabinet Minister responsible for health and welfare, as well as labor functions, may call for experience, temperament, and training quite different from that most valuable in a Ministry of Labor. At the same time, workers and labor organizations have no opportunity to deal directly with a single Government official who can speak authoritatively on matters affecting their interests.

4. As long as labor functions are confined to two or three bureaus which are outweighed by other interests of the Ministry, it will be impossible to expand the labor functions of the Government to meet the present growing needs. A full-fledged labor program requires the attention of at least half a dozen major bureaus or units, each with responsibility as great or greater than that of the two bureaus now handling labor functions. At this point it is sufficient to note that the United States Government includes ten major agencies concerned with labor administration. Many of these, such as the United States Employment Service, Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Wage Hour and Public Contract Division, and the National Labor Relations Board have individual staffs several times greater than the entire personnel devoted to labor matters in Japan's Welfare Ministry.

Effective planning and healthy growth of various labor functions in Japan will likewise call for a number of major bureaus devoted to labor matters, with clearly recognized responsibilities and opportunities for growth in the Ministry.

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Steps Necessary in Establishing a Labor Ministry

In a series of conferences between Japanese officials and the interested units of GHQ/SCAP, including the Labor Advisory Committee, the need for reorganization has been informally discussed. Officials of the Welfare Ministry believe the separation of labor functions from public health and welfare functions, in two separate Ministries, would be beneficial to both programs. No formal proposals have been submitted, but a number of alternative plans for the internal organization of such a Ministry have been explored. It is important that the details of such a plan be crystallized promptly.

The Committee believes that the ordinance creating the new Ministry should definitely provide for the transfer to the Labor Ministry of the administrative units and personnel now dealing with labor problems in other Ministries, unless valid reasons, not now apparent, are advanced for continued separation. Such outside agencies include the Seamen's Bureau (Sen-In Kyoku) in the Transportation Ministry; certain functions of the Railway Bureau in the Transportation Ministry; and certain functions of the bureaus responsible for mines, state monopolies and Government enterprises in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The personnel involved in such transfers should have their status adequately protected.

The Central and Prefectural Labor Relations Committees should be included in the new Ministry, though with a special status, and the exact relationship between these committees and other bureaus of the Labor Ministry should be clarified.

D. Recommendations on Internal Organization of the Labor Ministry

The Present Situation

The exact internal organization and detailed distribution of functions in the two Bureaus now responsible for labor programs has only a limited bearing upon the problem of creating an effective labor agency. The fact is that the six Sections now included in these Bureaus, without exception, have neither the staff nor the status required to carry out the Government's new obligations in the labor field. These present weaknesses have been noted in more detail in parts of this report dealing with labor relations, labor exchanges, and protective labor legislation.

The Committee does not attempt in this report to spell out all details of a proposed internal organization. As a means of encouraging initiative and flexibility in the thinking of Japanese officials, many such details should be handled in the long run through the review of proposals initiated by them. Continued work with such officials, both to clarify their proposals and to assist them in developing a sound plan, should be part of the process of establishing the new Ministry. Further, the development of a suitable administrative structure will be a gradual process, affected by the rate of growth and evolution of various programs, and the final goal cannot be reached in a single step.

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On certain points, however, the Committee has specific recommendations designed to assure:

1. That major Bureaus are established to deal with certain important functions which are now lacking or lodged in subordinate units of one of the existing Bureaus.

2. That such functions receive a status commensurate to their future importance; and

3. That the quasi-judicial functions of the Central Labor Relations Committee are adequately coordinated with other work of the Labor Ministry but at the same time free from bureaucratic control.

Labor Relations Functions

The Labor Relations Committees are tripartite bodies which are primarily concerned with (a) determining policies under the Trade Union Act and the proposed Labor Disputes Adjustment Act, (b) preventing employer discrimination against employees for union activity, and (c) performing functions of conciliation, mediation, and arbitration in specific labor disputes. Within the framework of policies set by legislation, they should be entirely independent of governmental influence with regard to policies and decisions. However, to promote maximum coordination, they should be attached to the Labor Ministry and should rely upon it for various services of an administrative character.

These functions of the Labor Ministry would include: (a) obtaining an adequate budget for the committees and supervising expenditure of these funds; (b) performing necessary personnel functions with regard to staffing the committees; (c) selecting and appointing members of the Central Labor Relations Committee as provided in the Trade Union Act; (d) furnishing the committees with statistical data and other requested information; and (e) maintaining adequate records of work done by the Committees and assuring adequate distribution of information on their decisions and actions.

The labor relations functions of the Welfare Ministry are now lodged in a Labor Policy Section which should be enlarged to a major Bureau responsible for all duties connected with labor relations and labor unions which are not assigned to the Labor Relations Committees. The principal functions of such a Bureau would include: (a) Maintaining liaison with and providing services to the Labor Relations Committees, as indicated above; (b) Performing functions of the "administrative agency" as prescribed in the Trade Union Act and the proposed Labor Disputes Adjustment Act; (c) Liaison with and administrative services to the Labor Law Conference (Romu Hosei Shingikai); (d) Collecting and disseminating information on labor unions in order to assist unions in developing suitable constitutions, policies, and programs; (e) Collecting and disseminating information on collective bargaining agreements as a basis for educating unions and employers in effective collective bargaining; and (f) Performing any other functions related to the development of sound labor relations and labor relations policies.

As a matter of general policy the Labor Relations Committees should concentrate on the policy and quasi-judicial functions for which a tripartite

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body is suitable, and should not undertake administrative functions which can be handled equally well or better by a regular Government agency. The collection of statistics on unions and labor disputes, for example, and the development of educational programs for unions and employers, should be carried on by the regular Bureaus of the Ministry or by their local units, rather than by the tripartite committees.

Protective Labor Legislation

The Labor Protection Section of the present Ministry should be expanded to an independent Bureau, and should be given responsibility for administration of the various types of protective legislation discussed in Chapter V of this report. While the present Section is small, a really effective program in this field will require a sizable technical staff in national headquarters and a large field staff to carry out the local work of inspection and enforcement. The Bureau should have adequate authority for fact finding and enforcement connected with:

1. General protective legislation--governing hours of work, holidays, rest periods, dormitories, labor contracts, recruitment, prompt wage payment, etc.

2. Industrial safety--including enforcement of safety provisions of the Factory and Mining Acts, research and education on the causes and prevention of accidents, etc.

3. Compensation for industrial accidents and disease--to the extent that this is not covered by social insurance programs.

4. Labor hygiene--including prevention and compensation of industrial disease and related programs of research and education.

5. Promotion of labor efficiency.

6. General promotion of the health and welfare of workers--including recreation, consumers' cooperatives, and other programs to advance the welfare of wage-earners.

Women's and Children's Programs

To assure proper attention to the special problems of women workers and gainfully employed children, anspecial bureau should be created to deal with the development of policies, standards, and educational material affecting these groups. Special attention to Japan's women workers is especially important because of their numerical importance in manufacturing industries, where women made up nearly half the total labor force in pre-war years; and because the traditionally subservient position of women creates special problems in integrating them into labor organizations and into the new social and economic institutions which are now emerging.

The functions of such a Bureau, when it reaches full maturity, would presumably be not far different from those of the Women's Bureau and the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. It is not proposed

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that the Women's and Children's Bureau should be directly responsible for the administration of protective legislation affecting women and children. This function should probably be handled by the Labor Protection Bureau through the same staff of enforcement officers and inspectors who administer other protective legislation. The Women's and Children's Bureau should, however, have ample resources for fact finding, policy development and education and should be expected to recommend policies and legislative changes affecting these special groups of wage earners.

Wages and Salaries

The problem of wages and salaries had many remifications and poses many complex questions. A rational solution of these problems is of utmost importance to the future economic and social stability of Japan. Responsibility for the present ineffective wage control structure is lodged in the Wages Section of the Bureau of Labor Policy. In the new Ministry, this function should be expanded to the Bureau level, at least so long as wage controls are needed, and probably even after that time.

In the immediate future the main function of such a Bureau would be to administer the wage and salary controls established by the new Economic Stabilization Board; but basic reform of wage and salary structure will also be important and will eventually become the primary job of the Bureau. The Bureau should be staffed with personnel who are capable of dealing with the problems involved in (a) the establishment and operation of a wage and salary structure for the Japanese Government, at the National and other levels, and (b) advice and guidance to both management and labor in revising and simplifying the complex and often irrational wage and salary structure of Japanese industry. Any governmental programs involving special food rations or other payments in kind to selected groups of workers should also be handled at the National level by this Bureau, though local administration might be through other agencies.

Field trips made by members of the Committee have revealed that management and unions need and desire assistance and education regarding matters related to wage and salary structure. The Bureau's program should be designed to meet this need. In addition, steps should be taken to collect, analyze, and make available accurate data on prevailing wage and salary rates; on the provisions governing overtime premiums, hours of work, allowance and bonuses which are found in Japanese industries; and on the wage provisions for holidays, vacations, and sick leave. In perhaps no other field is the need for accurate data so urgent. At present, little reliable information is available as a basis for attacking the problem of simplifying the complicated wage and salary structures found both in governmental and private employment. Whether the actual collection and analysis of wage statistics should be lodged in the Wage and Salary Bureau will depend on the duties and resources assigned to the Research and Information Bureau proposed below.

Fact Finding and Information Functions

The general lack of effective programs of research, statistics and education in the labor field is one result of the low status traditionally assigned

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to labor programs in Japan. Greatly needed is a major Bureau, somewhat similar to our Bureau of Labor Statistics, which can provide authentic, complete and timely information on labor conditions and economic conditions affecting labor. Such basic information is one of the keystones for building an informed public opinion and assuring that controversies between management and labor are not aggravated by lack of available facts. It is the key, also, to intelligent planning of governmental policy and development of intelligent programs of information and education in the labor field.

The Committee recommends the establishment of a Research and Information Bureau concerned with research, statistics and education in matters affecting labor. Such a bureau should not necessarily undertake the actual collection of all forms of labor statistics, nor the operation of all possible types of labor education programs. Certain types of data should perhaps be collected by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics or by other Bureaus of the Labor Ministry where they become available as a by-product of regular operations. The Bureau here proposed should, however, have access to all types of information necessary for complete and timely measurement and interpretation of conditions affecting labor; and should have a major voice in determining the policies and standards for those statistical and educational programs affecting labor which it does not directly administer.

Labor Exchanges and Employment Policy

In the present Ministry, the general field of employment and manpower administration is assigned to the "Bureau of Vocations" which operates the labor exchange system, is responsible for vocational training and vocational guidance programs, and has important planning functions. The new Labor Ministry should include a Bureau of Employment with substantially the same functions, but with personnel and resourcesadequate to plan and supervise the programs recommended in Chapter VI of this report. Specific recommendations as to organizational and administrative changes needed in this Bureau have already been made in that chapter.

Other Functions

In addition to the Bureaus suggested above, the new Labor Ministry may require special Bureaus to deal with selected groups of workers. One outstanding example might be a Seamen's Bureau, performing many of the functions now assigned to a similarly-named Bureau in the Transportation Ministry. Appropriate sections responsible for general administrative services such as budget preparation and control, personnel, procurement, and fiscal management should also, of course, be part of the new Ministry.

E. Administrative Relationship with Local Units

While top responsibility for administration of thevarious labor programs now rests in the Welfare Ministry, there is at present no direct administrative line extending from the Ministry to the local labor exchahges and other units administering these programs. The resulting difficulties have been discussed in some detail in the Committee's findings on labor exchanges and protective legislation programs (Chapters V and VI).

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At present all personnel engaged in local administration of labor programs are part of the prefectural government. The two national Bureaus dealing with labor affairs in the Welfare Ministry have general planning functions, but instructions issued at the national level are issued by the Home Ministry, which holds the Prefectural Governor responsible for carrying them out. The Governor appoints minor officials and other employees of the lower levels, and all local employees are administratively responsible to him. Officials of the Welfare Ministry make occasional visits to prefectural offices and may make technical suggestions regarding operations, but they have no direct administrative authority.

While the Committee's study of local administration has been limited in time and has covered only a few areas, it feels justified in concluding that the present system does not provide adequate field supervision, either through regular operating reports or through effective review and control of local operations by headquarters personnel. Such functions as budgeting, personnel training, development of procedures, and evaluation of results are either neglected or handled through round-about channels passing through the Home Ministry to the prefectural government.

Recommendations

The Committee recommends that those labor programs which are national in character should be administered at all levels by employees of the Labor Ministry, directly responsible to the Ministry and with personnel selection, training and promotion controlled by the Ministry. This proposal is consistent with the general expectation that the prefectural governments will in the near future become responsible to locally elected officials and deal only with those functions of government which are local in character.

For effective supervision, some intermediate unit of the Labor Ministry must exist between the national Ministry and the local offices and local employees carrying out specific programs. The Committee believes that the existing prefectures are too small in area and population to justify the establishment of 47 prefectural offices of the Labor Ministry; it recommends instead that Regional Offices be established. The present regions which have been created for administration of other governmental programs appear to be satisfactory for this purpose, but other groupings of prefectures might be equally suitable.

Each Regional Office of the Labor Ministry should have adequate responsibility and authority to carry out all national programs and policies of the Ministry. For this purpose the Regional Office should include Bureaus responsible for supervising the technical performance of units which carry out programs of each national Bureau. Under these Regional Bureaus, the organization of local personnel should depend on the requirements of the specific program. Presumably the Bureau of Employment would directly supervise the local employment offices in its region, while protective legislation might be administered in part through subordinate branch offices in the major industrial centers or through personnel stationed in the Regional Office and assigned to handle inspection and enforcement in specific areas or industries. In labor relations, some special problems may be created by the existence

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of Labor Relations Committees in each prefecture, and the final pattern of local organization would depend on the final structure of the Committees.

F. Democratic Participation in Labor Administration

The traditional pattern of government administration in Japan has been bureaucratic in the extreme. Decisions made at the top have been passed down through a descending series of major and minor officials, whose function was to carry out orders from above. Such a pattern provides little opportunity for flexibility and for the responsiveness to local conditions and public opinion which is essential in a field as dynamic as labor affairs.

Recommendations

1. Nationally and locally, some provision should be made for the representatives of workers, employers and the general public to participate in the development and interpretation of labor programs. Such participation is, of course, not equally feasible in all parts of the labor field, but could be especially useful in connection with certain aspects of protective labor legislation and labor relations.

2. Participation should be advisory, rather than administrative. It should aim at providing a channel through which the administrative agency can obtain the guidance of public opinion and the constructive suggestions of groups affected by labor programs; such a channel can serve also to obtain the help of local and national leaders of labor and industry in interpreting labor programs to the groups that they represent. The authority and responsibility for actual execution of policies and operating programs, however, should be left with the administrative agency.

G. Budgets and Personnel Policy

The creation of an effective labor administration, at all levels, will be impossible without the provision of adequate budgetary resources. The Committee believes that administrative reforms will be largely nullified unless the Labor Ministry is assured of resources which provide:

1. A staff which is adequate in size to carry out the complex and expanding administrative tasks of the Ministry;

2. A salary scale which will attract and retain the services of high quality personnel;

3. Necessary means for the extensive fact-finding and research activities which are needed;

4. A comprehensive program of information and education, to meet the needs of workers and employers;

5. Adequate resources for training, supervision and evaluation of the

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Personnel at all levels.

It is recommended that GHQ/SCAP give special attention to assuring that the Ministry's resources are ample to assure high quality performance in this field.

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RESTRICTED

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Economic and Scientific Section

FIRST INTERIM REPORT

ON

TREATMENT OF WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS IN JAPAN

SINCE THE SURRENDER

30 June 1946

APPENDIX A

RESTRICTED

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TREATMENT OF WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS IN JAPAN SINCE THE SURRENDER

1. SITUATION ON SURRENDER

At the time of surrender there were no genuine democratic workers' organizations in existence in Japan. As the result of a system of oppressive legislation and police and military repression perfected under the authority of the "Dangerous Thought" and the National Mobilization Acts, there were no means for the Japanese laborers to express their needs or wishes on matters that affected them intimately. They were effectively denied the rights of assembly, speech, unionization, protest, collective bargaining and strike. All pre-war labor leaders had been killed, imprisoned, exiled or silenced. Two "labor front" or "patriotic" organizations effectively included and controlled all industrial and casual labor.

2. BASIC POLICY DIRECTIVES

As an integral part of the "United States Post-Surrender Policy for Japan" announced by the White House on 22 September 1945, the following general policy directives regarding labor organizations were stated:

> "The Japanese people shall be encouraged to develop a desire for individual liberties and respect for fundamental human rights, particularly the freedom of religion, assembly, speech and the press. They shall also be encouraged to form democratic and representative organizations." (Part I, (c)).
>
> "Encouragement shall be given and favor shown to the development of organizations in labor, industry and agriculture, organized on a democratic basis. Policies income and the ownership of the means of production and trade." (Part IV, 2).

3. STATEMENT OF THE SUPREME COMMANDER

On 11 October 1945, the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in a communication to Premier Shidehara stated the obligations of the Japanese Government with regard to the treatment of workers' organizations as follows:

> "I expect you to institute the following reforms in the social order of Japan as rapidly as they can be assimilated . . . .
> 2. The encouragement of the unionization of labor . . . . that it may be clothed with such dignity as will permit it an influential voice in safeguarding the working man from exploitation and abuse and raising his living standards to a higher level . . . ."

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4. IMPLEMENTING POLICIES AND ACTIONS

To carry out this basic policy on the treatment of workers' organizations eleven major lines of action have been followed by SCAP or by the Japanese Government at the direction of SCAP. There follow below statements of each line of implementing policy and actions taken pursuant thereto:

a. It was deemed essential that recognition be given the freedom of industrial and agricultural workers to join trade unions or other organizations of their choice for purposes of improving their terms and conditions of employment and mutual protection. Actions taken:

(1) On 4 October 1945, SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government, subject: "Removal of Restrictions on Political, Civil and Religious Liberties," was issued. This memorandum guaranteed the freedom of assembly.

(2) On 21 December 1945, the Trade Union Law was promulgated. This law, in Article 1, proclaims the right of organization and collective bargaining.

b. It was deemed essential to provide legal safeguards for workers' organizations in the carrying out of legitimate trade union functions. Actions taken:

(1) Article 11 of the Trade Union Law promulgated on 21 December 1945 and effective 1 March 1946 prohibits an employer from discharging a worker or inflicting disadvantages on him on account of his membership in a union, and provides further that "no employer shall make it a condition of employment that the worker must not join or must withdraw from a trade union."

(2) Article 12 of the Trade Union Law provides that "no employer shall claim indemnity from a trade union or members or officers of the same for damages received through a strike or other acts of dispute which are proper acts."

(3) Article 18 of the Trade Union Law provides that "trade unions which are legal persons shall be exempted from income taxes and taxes charged on legal persons."

c. It was deemed essential that positive encouragement to the development of labor organizations be given in the employment and labor policies of the Occupation Forces themselves. Actions taken:

(1) Command letter to the Armies, subject: "Civilian Labor Employed by Occupation Forces," dated 17 November 1945, states in paragraph 5a that "the freedom of industrial and agricultural workers to establish and to join

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democratic and orderly labor associations or trade unions for the purpose of bargaining collectively with private employers, official and semi-official companies and government industries and services will be recognized."

(2) After consultation with GHQ/SCAP instructions from Central Liaison Office were issued to Local Liaison Offices on 26 February 1946, guaranteeing the right of employees working for the Occupation Forces to organize and bargain collectively and ordering the discharge of supervisors guilty of anti-union or militaristic activities.

(3) Positive encouragement to the development of democratic labor organizations has been further carried out by Civil information and Education Section, GHQ/SCAP, through a coordinated program utilizing newspapers, motion pictures and direct dissemination of labor information. Consultation is also maintained between labor union representatives and Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP.

d. It was deemed essential that trade unions have the right of free assembly, speech and press, and access to broadcasting facilities on a nondiscriminatory basis provided only that such assembly, speech or writing would not interfere with military necessity or public security. Actions taken:

(1) SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government, subject: "Removal of Restrictions on Political, Civil and Religious Liberties," dated 4 October 1945, granted the right of free assembly, speech and press to trade unionists among others, and directed the abrogation of all contrary laws and ordinances.

(2) Civil Information and Education Section, GHQ/SCAP, has arranged access of labor organizations to broadcasting facilities on a nondiscriminatory basis. Average time per week available on the national network to labor organizations, other than political parties, is one hour.

e. It was deemed necessary that all laws and other regulations be abrogated which prevent or have the effect of preventing (1) the free organization of trade unions for the purposes of improving wages, hours and working conditions and the rendering of mutual assistance, and (2) the performance of other legitimate activities directed to these ends. Actions taken:

(1) SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government, subject: "Removal of Restrictions on Political, Civil and Religious Liberties," dated 4 October 1945, directed the removal of all laws designed to prevent the free organization of trade unions. Specific laws affected follow:

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(a) Peace Preservation Law of 1941 was abrogated 15 October 1945 by Imperial Ordinance No. 575.

(b) Protective Surveillance for Thought Offenses Law and Regulations Relative to the Protective Surveillance for Thought Offenses Law, both of 1936, were abrogated 15 October 1945 by Imperial Ordinance No. 575.

(c) Articles 4, 6 and 7 of the National Mobilization Law, which provided authority for wartime conscription, were abrogated 1 April 1946. Control of wages and prices which stemmed from the above articles will go out of effect 1 October 1946 in accordance with provisions of the grace period for establishment of such controls as may be necessary. The National Labor Mobilization Ordinance which was promulgated pursuant to the law and which provided for labor conscription was abrogated by an ordinance of the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare on 11 October 1945.

(d) Articles 3 and 8 of the Public Peace Police Law of 1900, which permitted dissolution of unions, union meetings and labor parades, were abrogated 21 November 1945.

(e) Paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 1, and paragraphs 5 and 31 of Article 2 of the Police Crimes Punishment Ordinance, hitherto used to hamper picketing and conduct of strikes, have been nullified in their application to labor disputes and labor organizations by severe restriction of police intervention in labor disputes, as directed in Home Ministry instructions to the police on 6 November 1945, 8 February 1946 and 22 June 1946.

(f) Factory and Workshop Supervision Ordinance of March 1944, which instituted military discipline among workers in war plants and mines, was abrogated by Ministerial Ordinance of Ministry of Public Health and Welfare dated 11 October 1945.

f. It was deemed necessary that persons who had been imprisoned because of activity or "thought" in connection with trade unions and other labor organization activity be released as promptly as proper examination procedure permitted. Actions taken:

(1) SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government of 4 October 1945 cited above directed release of all political prisoners.

(2) Imperial Amnesty of 18 October 1945 pursuant thereto released 300,000 persons from prison and restored civil disabilities of 600,000 others. All persons imprisoned for thought or action in connection with labor organizations were included in the release.

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g. It was deemed necessary that patriotic workers' organizations or their affiliates, such as the Patriotic Industrial Associations, be dissolved. Actions taken:

(1) Patriotic Industrial Association (Sangyo Hokoku-kai) with 8,600 local branches and 6,000,000 members during the war, was dissolved on 30 September 1945. Facilities and assets of this organization are in process of liquidation by Ministry of Public Health and Welfare under supervision of Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP, and for most part have already been put to public use. Often they have been given to a democratic trade union comprising the same workers as in a comparable local branch of the Patriotic Industrial Association. Completion of liquidation is expected shortly.

(2) Patriotic Labor Association (Romu Hokoku-kai) with 1,150 local branches and 2,000,000 members during the war, was dissolved on 30 September 1945. This organization had been supplying casual labor to the Japanese Government for use by the Occupation Forces, and, in order to maintain a regular supply of such labor, permission was granted to continue this organization in a less repressive form, under the name Laborers' Association (Romu Kyokai), until 31 December 1945. On that date it was dissolved and the casual labor supply taken over by democratically organized Boards of Day Laborers which had been established by a Ministry of Public Health and Welfare Ordinance of 24 December 1945. Facilities and assets of the organization are being liquidated in the same manner as those of the Patriotic Industrial Association.

h. It was deemed necessary that as soon as workers' organizations were formed in consonance with democratic principles they be encouraged to bargain collectively with employers regarding the terms of employment, subject to such policies on wages, hours and working conditions as would be established through the Japanese Government. Actions taken:

(1) Article 1 of the Trade Union Law, promulgated 21 December 1945, states as one of the purposes of the law the "encouragement of collective bargaining."

(2) Article 10 of the Trade Union Law empowers the representatives of a trade union to negotiate with an employer on behalf of the members of the union for conclusion of a trade agreement or on other matters.

(3) Articles 19 through 25 of the Trade Union Law give legal status to trade agreements arrived at by collective bargaining.

(4) Collective bargaining has been and is being encouraged constantly through direct consultation on the part of Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP, and Civil Information and Education Section, GHQ/SCAP, with labor and employer representatives.

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i. It was deemed necessary that the Japanese Government should establish adjustment machinery for dealing with industrial disputes that could not be settled by direct and voluntary negotiation between the worker or his representative and the employer. Actions taken:

(1) On 5 November 1945, the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare under guidance of Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP, instructed the prefectural authorities to set up temporary mediation boards consisting of employee, employer and public representatives. In all, 28 boards were established.

(2) As a result of the Trade Union Law which went into effect on 1 March 1946, tri-partite Labor Relations Committees have been established in each prefecture, together with a Central Labor Relations Committee and a special Maritime Labor Relations Committee.

(3) A Labor Disputes Bill providing comprehensive conciliation, mediation and arbitration machinery has been prepared by the Japanese Labor Legislation Committee in consultation with Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP. Public hearings were held on the bill, and it is now ready to be introduced in the current Diet session.

j. It was deemed essential that strikes and other work stoppages be prohibited only when such stoppages would interfere with military operations or military security or directly prejudice the objectives or needs of the occupation. Actions taken:

(1) Paragraphs 5b and 5c of command letter to the Armies, subject: "Civilian Labor Employed by Occupation Forces," dated 17 November 1945, state that "Strikes, lock-outs, or other work stoppages which are inimical to the objectives of military occupation are prohibited . . . . A labor dispute 'inimical to the objectives of military occupation' is one which jeopardizes the safety of Allied troops, interferes with troop supply, disrupts services or production necessary to the maintenance of public order, public service and public health or adversely affects other purposes of the occupation."

(2) In practice, transportation, communication, coal mining, public utilities, repatriation service and Occupation Forces' projects have been considered essential. This limitation has been communicated orally by Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP, to the Japanese Government, employers and labor unions on numerous occasions and has prevented several serious stoppages in those categories.

(3) Only one serious work stoppage has occurred as a result of a labor dispute in essential industries or services since the beginning of the occupation. This stoppage, a strike by 18,000 coal miners in Kyushu, lasted only three days from 9 to 12 March 1946, and was settled by negotiation without SCAP action.

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(4) In no instance have occupation troops been ordered to intervene in a labor dispute or been used to influence the settlement of a dispute or strike. Military intervention to maintain essential industries or services has at no time been necessary.

K. It was deemed essential that Japanese Government agencies which had been set up or had functioned for the purpose of or in such a way as to obstruct free labor organization and legitimate trade union activities be abolished or their powers in respect to labor revoked, and all individuals who had been directly connected in a responsible capacity with the obstruction or repression of trade union organization or activity be declared ineligible for employment in labor agencies or as mediators, conciliators or arbitrators. Actions taken:

(1) SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government of 4 October 1945 cited above directed the abolition of the Special Higher Police, the Protection and Surveillance Commission, and all other secret police organizations as well as those charged with "thought control."

(2) On 13 October 1945, the Special Higher Police in the Home Ministry, in the Metropolitan Police Board and in the Prefectural Police Bureaus were abolished by Imperial Ordinance No. 568.

(3) On 15 October 1945, the Thought Section in the Criminal Affairs Bureau of the Justice Ministry was abolished by order of the Justice Ministry.

(4) After consultation with Economic and Scientific Section, GHQ/SCAP, on 24 December 1945, all labor functions were divorced from the Home Ministry, the Metropolitan Police Board and all Prefectural Police Bureaus. All labor functions were transferred to the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare instead.

(5) SCAP Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government, subject: "Removal and Exclusion of Undesirable Personnel from Public Office," dated 4 January 1946, requires the Japanese Government to remove all militarists and ultranationalists.

(6) Instructions from Home Ministry to the Prefectural Governors on 8 February 1946 instructed the police to refrain from intervention in labor disputes.

(7) Japanese Cabinet Announcement of 10 March 1946 defines as ineligible to hold public office any person who has been a "thought control" official, who has trampled on individual rights in connection with a thought case, or who has been in the Special Higher Police Service.

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(8) On 14 June 1946, the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare announced a plan whereby all ex-police officers now employed in any governmental agency concerned with labor matters will be screened and, with certain exceptions, removed from such positions within the next six months and barred from future employment in such agencies.

(9) By direct consultation with Economic and Scientific Section, and Civil Information and Education Section, GHQ/SCAP, labor organizations have been advised to eliminate all officials who have been connected with the Patriotic Industrial Association and the Patriotic Labor Association.

5. PRESENT SITUATION

a. Unions and Union Membership

Most recent statistics concerning all unions which had registered with the local labor office of the prefectural governments pursuant to the Labor Union Law indicated that as of 1 May 1946 there were 7,357 unions with a claimed membership of 2,691,552. This compares with the highest pre-war level of 973 unions with 420,589 member attained in 1937. Breakdown by industry, prefecture and sex is given in Tables I and II.

b. National Labor Unions

As of 1 June 1946 the following national labor unions had been organized; All Japan Communications Workers' Union; All Japan Railway Workers' Union; All Japan Federation Transport Workers' Union (Streetcar Workers); All Japan Electrical Workers' Union; All Japan Iron Workers' Union: All Japan Coal Miners' Union; All Japan News and Radio Workers' Union; All Japan Publishing and Printers' Union; All Japan Movie and Theatre Workers' Union; All Japan Tobacco Factory Workers' Union; All Japan Seamen's Union.

c. Federation of Labor Unions.

Two major federations covering a number of industries had been formed as of 1 May 1946 and were preparing for formal inauguration shortly.

(1) The All Japan General Federation of Labor Unions (Zen Nippon Rodo Kumiai Sodomei) with a claimed membership of 500,000 - 600,000 persons in its affiliated unions represents the re-established pre-war All Japan General Federation of Labor (Zen Nippon Rodo Sodomei). It is generally recognized as the conservative wing of the post-war Japanese labor movement.

(2) The National Congress of Industrial Unions (Zenkoku Sangyo-betsu Kumiai Kaigi) with a claimed membership of 1,000,000 in its affiliated unions, is an entirely new

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organization and is generally considered the left-wing of the Japanese labor movement. Conservative labor leaders have estimated its membership as low as 250,000. Kataumi Kikunami of the All Japan News and Radio Workers' Union is president.

d. Regional Councils

The most important regional council of labor unions is the Kanto District Council of Labor Unions to which are affiliated unions adhering to either of the two major federations and claiming a total membership of 500,000 workers. Another regional council with 386,000 claimed members has been established in Hokkaido and local union groups have been set up in Osaka and Kyoto.

6. FURTHER DETAILS

Further details of policies, actions and results related to the treatment of workers' organizations in Japan during the occupation may be found in the SCAP Monthly Summaries of Non-Military Activities in Japan and Korea.

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Table I

LABOR UNIONS IN JAPAN

(1 May 1946)

Industry	No. of Unions	Male	Female	Total
AGRICULTURE	79	15,774	4,179	19,953
MARINE PRODUCTS	14	8,823	455	9,278
MINING	556	274,112	54,620	328,732
Metal	126	37,891	9,298	47,189
Coal	372	225,718	43,156	268.874
Other	58	10,503	2,166	12,669
MANUFACTURING	3,997	972,883	300,853	1,273,736
Metallurgy	468	122,065	21,042	143,107
Machines and Tools	1,276	401,555	83,385	484,940
Chemicals	616	137,301	46,695	183,996
Gas, Electricity and Water Supply	251	88,584	11,664	100,248
Ceramics	135	20,797	6,280	27,077
Textiles	383	41,507	91,326	132,833
Lumber & Woodworking	320	30,826	10,685	41,511
Food Stuffs	182	23,244	13,480	36,724
Printing and Binding	61	10,674	7,377	18,051
Civil Engineering and Construction	224	87,651	5,193	92,844
Other	81	8,679	3,726	12,405
TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION	1,642	600,217	131,365	731,582
Railroad & Tramways	432	362,906	65,113	428,019
Water (Inland)	27	10,457	627	11,084
Other	609	134,230	21,705	155,935
Communications	574	92,624	43,920	136,544
COMMERCE	310	48,339	26,081	74,420
TEACHING AND LIBERAL PROFESSIONS	665	121,297	82,723	204,680
Public Service	235	46,126	20,388	66,514
*Teachers	335	69,034	57,147	126,841
Other	95	6,137	5,188	11,325
OTHER	94	43,110	6,061	49,171
TOTAL	7,357	2,084,555	606,337	2,691,552

*Included in total is one union with membership of 660 for which no breakdown by sex was reported.

Source: Report of Ministry of Public Health and Welfare, 17 June 1946.

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Table II

LABOR UNIONS IN JAPAN, BY PREFECTURE

(1 May 1946)

Prefecture	No. of Unions	Male	Female	Total
Hokkaido	819	191,374	40,349	231,723
Aomori	45	12,535	2,047	14,582
Iwate	96	28,113	7,248	35,361
Miyagi	147	28,855	8,723	27,578
Akita*	152	39,742	10,078	50,480
Yamagata	214	30,407	13,217	43,624
Fukushima	173	37,888	11,832	49,720
Ibaraki	92	27,609	7,476	35,085
Gumma	226	40,696	17,321	58,017
Saitama	211	42,081	12,211	54,292
Chiba	89	15,737	5,548	21,285
Tokyo	704	179,281	50,535	229,816
Kanagawa	280	93,839	22,293	116,132
Niigata	239	59,623	22,384	82,004
Toyama	104	28,171	12,703	40.874
Ishikawa	142	35,256	9,512	44,768
Fukui	50	13,122	5,164	18,286
Yamanashi	38	15,183	6,589	21,772
Nagano	205	43,519	17,533	61,052
Gifu	104	25,384	13,886	39,270
Shizuoka	189	47,470	16,684	64,163
Aichi	240	96,348	27,305	120,653
Mie	101	31,778	8,980	30,758
Shiga	68	20,577	10,749	31,326
Kyoto	179	46,340	10,768	57,108
Osaka	359	167,978	44,057	212,035
Hyogo	312	95,525	26,092	121,617
Nara	48	19,326	2,538	21,884
Wakayama	41	7,683	3,537	11,220
Tottori	66	12,476	2,803	15,279
Shimane	71	9,178	4,151	13,329
Okayama	81	28,704	7,696	36,400
Hiroshima	94	33,306	8,853	42,159
Yamaguchi	128	46,937	9,613	56,550
Tokushima	45	7,686	4,009	11,695
Kagawe	92	24,034	7,418	31,441
Ehime	76	26,543	8,891	35,434
Kochi	43	4,854	1,848	6,702
Fukuoka	397	207,838	52,770	260,608
Saga	77	21,066	6,043	27,109
Nagasaki	110	64,860	14,754	79,614
Kumamoto	65	16,220	5,144	21,364
Oita	99	19,177	8,791	27,968
Miyazaki	75	17,586	6,865	24,451
Kagoshima	37	4,708	1,804	6,512
TOTAL	7,357	2,084,555	606,337	2,691,552

* Included in total is one union with membership of 660 for which no breakdown by sex was reported.

Source: Report of Ministry of Public Health and Welfare, 17 June 1946.

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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS

140-24

AG 091.4 (4 Dec 45)GB
~~4254~~ 399A

APO 500
4 December 1945

TO : Liaison Committee (Tokyo) for the Imperila Demboilization Ministries.

FROM : A. C. of S., G-2

SUBJECT: Japanese Manpower.

1. The desired statistics on Japanese manpower should follow insofar as possible, the topical outlines attached. All statistics necessary to complete this outline should be arranged in accordance with two basic and separate methods of tabulation.

A) Tabulation concerning the period from 7 July 1937 to 14 August 1945.
Figures within this period should be broken down to show totals by months, if possible, or in any event by annual periods. If periods are used they may be the ones formerly used by the 1st and 2nd Demobilization Ministries.

B) Tabulation by administrative district (regimental district) from which personnel was recruited.
For satellite areas, the figures should be tabulated as nearly as possible to conform to areas and time periods used by the Japanese.

2. It is desired that the 1st and 2nd Demobilization Ministries complete as soon as possible those items in the attached outline which are marked by asterisks (*).

3. If exact figures are not available, estimated figures may be used, but such estimates should be clearly marked by enclosing figures in parentheseis.

For the A.C. of S., G-2

F. P. MUNSON,
Colonel, GSC,
G-2, GHQ, SCAP

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140-22

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MAR 1946

HEADQUARTERS EIGHTH ARMY
United States Army
Office of the Commanding General
APO 343

AG 230.145 (MR)

SUBJECT: Report on Wages and Workers.

TO: Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, APO 500.
(Attention: General Procurement Agent)

1. Period covered - 1 January 1946 - 31 January 1946.

2. Average number of workers requisitioned per work day 182,532.

3. Average number of workers furnished per work day 175,997.

4. Number of laborers working for occupation forces on last work day of month 188,338.

5. Total amount of cash wages actually paid by Japanese Government to workers ¥78,926,587.46.

6. Estimated value of wages in kind advanced to workers by Japanese Covernment ¥247,157.20.

FOR THE COMMANDING GENERAL:

RALPH H. SELBY
Major, AGD
Asst Adjutant General

RECEIVED
14 MAR 1946
STATISTICAL AND REPORTS SECTION
8

SRS

Labor Form #2

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1140-21
Copy

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
ECONOMIC AND SCIENTIFIC SECTION
LABOR DIVISION

LABOR DIVISION ACTIVITIES

AND

LABOR DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

Prepared for the Far Eastern Commission
29 January 1946

Encl #2

DECLASSIFIED E.O. 11652 SEC. 3(E) AND 5(D) OR (E) NNDG # 775015

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LABOR DIVISION ACTIVITIES AND LABOR DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

Objectives and Organization of Labor Division

The objectives of the Labor Division are: (1) the abolition of wartime controls over labor, (2) the reinstatement of protective labor standards, (3) the removal of legal hindrances to the formation of democratic employee organizations, (4) the prevention of work stoppages inimical to the objectives of the occupation, (5) the curbing of inflation through wage controls, (6) the encouragement of democratic labor organizations, (7) the fostering of unemployment relief measures, (8) the coordination and supervision of Japanese governmental labor agencies and (9) the procurement of civilian labor for the occupation forces. The organization of the Labor Division with an allocation of functions by branches is included in the "Outline of Labor Division Activities." The paragraphs which follow outline the major aspects of Japanese labor affairs under the occupation and activities of the Labor Division with respect to them.

Japanese Government Agencies Concerned with Labor Affairs

The Ministry of Welfare is primarily responsible for labor matters in the Japanese Government but the following ministries have jurisdiction over special categories of employees: (1) the Commerce Ministry governs postal, telegraph and telephone workers, who are government employees, (2) the Transportation Ministry has charge of railway workers, who are also government workers, and marine labor and (3) the Commerce and Industry Ministry has authority over workers in government monopoly and semi-official corporation enterprises. Prior to the occupation, labor functions on the prefectural level were performed by the Police Bureau but subsequently these functions were transferred to the Prefectural Departments of General Affairs. Japanese authorities have been instructed to disassociate police and labor functions on all levels of government and the Welfare Ministry has issued orders to effectuate this policy.

Procurement of Labor for Occupation Purposes

The Japanese Government has been directed to provide civilian labor for the occupation forces in such quantities and with such skills as may be required. This arrangement has been functioning in a satisfactory manner through Local Liaison Committees which have been established by the Japanese in areas occupied by Allied troops. These committees were formerly composed of police officials and Romu Kyokai (Labor Association) representatives but with the abolition of the latter organization on 1 January 1946, procurement responsibilities have fallen to the newly created Boards of Day Laborers, which are government instrumentalities designed to eliminate police and "labor boss" controls. Exact figures as to the number of Japanese civilians employed by the occupation forces are not available but it is estimated that they are at least 175,000. In Tokyo, the total employed as of 30 November 1945 was 28,387.

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Unemployment and Occupational Distribution of Japanese Workers

Unpublished data pertaining to the censuses conducted in October 1940 and February 1944 is being transcribed and microfilmed for preservation and forwarding to Washington. No detailed analysis of this data has been attempted but complete statistics regarding age, sex and occupational groups can be readily obtained. Table I gives the occupational classification of the population, exclusive of the military, for 1930, 1940 and 1944.

Commencing in 1945, the Japanese Government compelled a semi-annual registration of labor within certain specified age groups. Data gathered in these registrations is available in incomplete form. However, the results of the 1 December 1945 registration which required all males between 12 and 59 inclusive, and all unmarried females, 12 to 39 inclusive, to register is becoming available in complete form. This registration disclosed that 22,683,725 persons in the above age groups were employed as of 1 December 1945. Of this total, 14,732,021 were male and 7,951,704 female. The breakdown of the employed by industrial classification is shown in Table II. The 1 December 1945 registration also indicated the unemployment status within the particular age groups. The number who considered themselves unemployed totaled 3,336,750, of which 1,781,884 were males and 1,554,866 were females. Table III presents a breakdown of the unemployed by type of worker, sex and reason for unemployment while Table IV gives the unemployed by age groups and sex.

Unemployment Measures

An Imperial Ordinance promulgated on 3 December 1945 provides for the creation of a Central Unemployment Measures Committee and Prefectural Unemployment Measures Committee. The functions of these committees shall be "to investigate and to deliberate on important matters affecting measures for unemployment." The Central Committee is currently preparing recommendations concerning the following problems:

a. Expanding production of civilian commodities.

b. Stimulating labor to enter industry.

c. Relief of unemployed white collar workers.

This committee has been conferring with authorities in the fields of finance, industry and government in order to formulate a practical plan to cope with unemployment. A preliminary report is expected by 1 February 1946. Prefectural Committees are organizing local projects and reports show progress in commencement of road repairs, erosion reconstruction and land reclamation. A widespread reluctance to work has existed among Japanese laborers. The psychological effect of defeat after Spartan-like wartime efforts created a "shikata ga nai" (cannot be helped) attitude which was accentuated by the availability of accumulated war earnings and by the payment of sizable severance

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TABLE I.

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE POPULATION OF JAPAN

OCCUPATION		OCT 1930	OCT 1940	FEB 1944
Total Population	M	32,390,155	34,848,794	34,764,067
	F	32,059,850	36,531,849	38,601,055
	T	64,450,005	71,380,643	73,365,122
Agriculture and Forestry	M	7,734,858	6,618,378	5,860,973
	F	6,396,167	7,223,198	7,908,456
	T	14,131,025	13,841,576	13,769,429
Marine Products	M	515,727	476,384	380,330
	F	52,709	66,574	82,514
	T	568,436	542,958	462,844
Mining	M	370,719	528,526	666,894
	F	44,757	69,229	123,068
	T	315,476	597,755	789,962
Industry	M	4,428,365	6,178,584	7,112,506
	F	1,447,626	1,953,730	2,277,067
	T	5,875,991	8,132,314	9,389,573
Commerce	M	3,406,465	3,005,651	1,209,756
	F	1,499,190	1,875,887	1,280,896
	T	4,905,655	4,881,538	2,490,652
Transportation	M	906,665	1,213,929	1,352,921
	F	38,451	150,467	264,943
	T	945,116	1,364,396	1,617,864
Public Service	M	1,611,648	1,515,281	1,845,268
	F	393,544	679,612	1,008,085
	T	2,005,192	2,194,893	2,853,353
Domestic	M	92,259	38,738	53,534
	F	709,908	670,207	436,104
	T	802,167	708,945	489,638
Miscellaneous	M	63,531	134,157	79,355
	F	7,051	63,984	61,753
	T	70,582	218,141	141,108

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TABLE I.

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE POPULATION (CONTD)

Employed	M	19,030,237	19,729,628	18,561,537
	F	10,589,403	12,752,888	13,442,786
	T	29,619,640	32,482,516	32,504,323
Unemployed	M	13,359,918	15,119,166	16,202,530
	F	21,470,447	23,778,961	25,158,269
	T	34,830,365	38,898,127	41,360,799

SOURCE: Bureau of Census.

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TABLE II.

INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED IN JAPAN a/

1 December 1945

Industrial Group	Industrial Class	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture and Forestry	Agriculture	6,318,996	5,465,601	11,784,597
	Sericulture	17,422	24,330	41,752
	Forestry	244,703	37,672	282,375
	Others	40,178	9,698	49,876
	Total	6,621,299	5,537,301	12,158,600
Fishery	Fishery	404,208	42,768	446,976
Mining	Metal	120,791	13,049	133,840
	Coal	211,792	49,186	260,978
	Other Mining	30,875	6,019	36,894
	Clay and Stone	23,238	3,489	26,727
	Total	386,696	71,743	458,439
Industry	Metal Refining and Materials	123,236	15,352	138,588
	Other Metal Industries	289,794	39,034	328,828
	Railway Car Building	71,994	8,114	80,108
	Ship Building	162,190	16,887	179,077
	Other Machinery and Tools	697,162	120,062	817,224
	Drugs	30,683	20,523	51,206
	Salt	23,811	5,830	29,641
	Pulp and Paper	36,466	15,511	51,977
	Other Chemical Industries	200,992	58,103	259,095
	Gas, Electricity, and Water Supply	149,719	17,721	167,440
	Cement	14,395	2,667	17,062
	Ceramics	81,415	27,095	108,510
	Clay and Stone Processing	37,299	2,947	40,246
	Silk Reeling	16,272	43,352	59,624
	Spinning	37,111	58,258	95,369
	Weaving	30,568	59,340	89,908
	Mixed and Other Textiles	137,755	155,986	293,741
	Lumbering	141,295	29,246	170,541
	Wood Articles	235,029	38,980	274,009
	Food Products	177,081	65,047	242,128

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TABLE II.

INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED IN JAPAN (CONTD)

Industrial Group	Industrial Class	Male	Female	Total
Industry (Contd)	Printing and Bookbinding	54,402	15,407	69,809
	Civil Engineering and Construction	809,059	28,324	837,383
	Other Industries	331,787	98,016	429,803
	Total	3,889,515	941,802	4,831,317
Transportation and Communication	Railway and Tramcar	420,691	85,831	506,522
	Other Land Transport	384,015	39,937	423,952
	Marine Transport	85,856	11,182	97,038
	Postal, Telegraph and Telephone	148,439	89,373	237,812
	Other Communication	42,733	9,686	52,419
	Total	1,081,734	236,009	1,317,743
Commerce	Foods and Fuel Dealers	204,965	56,731	261,696
	Other Dealers	393,048	93,858	486,906
	Department Stores	10,978	7,917	18,895
	Brokers and Commission Agents	25,115	3,400	28,515
	Banking and Insurance	117,375	77,517	194,892
	Storage and Leasing	11,904	3,744	15,648
	Amusement and Exhibition	22,491	11,407	33,898
	Licensed Houses	65,053	95,778	160,831
	Other Commerce	45,563	13,312	58,875
	Total	896,492	363,664	1,260,156
Liberal Professions	Officials and Employees of Public Associations	233,710	138,410	372,120
	Priests and Ministers	77,175	9,449	86,624
	Medical Treatment and Sanitation	126,169	101,298	227,467
	Other Liberal Professions	81,318	23,745	105,063
	Total	518,372	272,902	791,274
Public Service and Education	Government Employees	490,940	145,216	636,156
	Teachers	271,409	185,896	457,305
	Total	762,349	331,112	1,093,461

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TABLE II.

INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED IN JAPAN (CONTD)

Industrial Group	Industrial Class	Male	Female	Total
Domestic Service		19,133	128,223	147,356
All others		152,223	27,180	179,403
TOTAL EMPLOYED		14,732,021	7,951,704	22,683,725

SOURCE: Ministry of Welfare, Occupational Registration of 1 December 1945.

a/ Only males between the ages of 12 to 59 and unmarried females between the ages of 12 - 39 are included.

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BLE III.

CAUSE OF UNEMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATION[a]

1 December 1945

ex	Previous Occupation	Total	Demobilized Servicemen[b]	Suspension or Termination of Business	War Disaster	Returning from Abroad	All Other
LE	Technicians	46 444	15,632	17,638	3,464	3,308	6,
	Workers	964,493	215,457	377,989	172,919	29,208	168,
	Clerks and Office Workers	296,089	93,861	80,845	34,991	28,226	58,
	Not Clear or Without Previous Occupation	474,858	96,352	7,459	20,020	8,464	342,
	Total	1,781,884	421,302	483,931	231,394	69,206	576,
EMALE	Technicians	2,567	128	1,184	481	116	
	Workers	389,796	9,251	211,668	64,645	8,859	95,
	Clerks and Office Workers	305,402	9,995	132,725	49,326	12,393	100,
	Not Clear or Without Previous Occupation	857,101	890	9,175	37,346	13,946	795,
	Total	1,554,866	20,264	354,752	151,797	35,314	992,

SOURCE: Ministry of Welfare. Occupational Registration of 1 December 1945.

a/ See Table II, Note a.

b/ Demobilized servicemen are classed by previous occupation.

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TABLE IV.

UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX AND AGE

1 December 1945

MALE						FEMALE		
Total	12 - 19	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 60	Total	12 - 25	26 - 40
1,781,884	421,235	449,664	379,121	268,331	263,533	1,554.866	1,221,725	333,141

SOURCE: Ministry of Welfare, Occupational Registration of 1 December 1945.

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allowances by munitions companies. Demobilized soldiers have also been advanced retirement funds which precludes immediate necessity for working. Other factors which tend to keep workers from the labor market are: (1) skilled personnel evacuated to rural relatives are not disposed to return to cities where food supplies are limited; (2) homeless families are concentrating on the construction of winter quarters; (3) shortage of food supplies compels constant search for sustenance; (4) black market profits are lucrative; (5) current wages and salaries are not abreast of current prices.

Labor Exchanges

The Japanese labor exchange boards conform to the organizational pattern of the United States Employment Service but they are basically weak in administration and personnel techniques. There are 484 exchanges which have been nationally controlled since 1938. They process various types of workers but two impertant classes, casual laborers and skilled workers, do not utilize labor exchanges to any great extent because of their customary recruitment through "labor bosses." The strengthening of the labor exchange system is of prime importance and technical personnel to advise SCAP on essential requirements has been requested from the U. S.

Labor exchange statistics for the period 1 December to 15 December 1945 show that 176,840 job vacancies existed throughout Japan and that there were 96,377 job applicants, of whom 59,839 were placed. The fact that there were less job applicants than jobs available emphasizes the unwillingness of Japanese labor to return to work.

Recruitment of Special Categories of Workers: Coal Miners

The liberation of approximately 130,000 Koreans and Chinese experienced in underground coal mining operations created a critical decline in coal production. In addition to their refusal to continue work, the Koreans and Chinese also prevented Japanese, through fear and violence, from doing so. The rapid evacuation of these foreign nationals from mining areas was coupled with a strong recruitment campaign to secure Japanese replacements but the notoriety of the coal mines as death traps, the hard work, the poor pay, the long hours and strict discipline of mine operators constituted serious handicaps to recruitment. Inducements in the form of increased food rations for miners and families, higher wages, issuances of clothing, footgear, sake, food oil, etc., were provided, and the 1 January 1946 goal of 60,000 new miners was successfully attained. An additional 70,000 workers must be recruited by 1 April 1946. The Japanese Government is charged with the responsibility for recruitment.

Recruitment of Special Categories of Workers: Seamen

The shortage of seamen to man Liberty Ships and LST's, which are to be used in the repatriation of Japanese abroad has necessitated the institution of remedial measures by SCAP. In this instance, considerable

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dependence for meeting manpower requirements has been placed upon the Seamen's Union, to which the majority of Japanese seamen belong.

Contract Labor and the Indenture System

One of the most discreditable aspects of pre-war Japanese labor conditions was the extensive use of contract labor, particularly the indenture of young women from the poverty-stricken rural areas into the textile and entertainment industries. Wartime conditions practically eliminated contract labor through manpower demands, enrichment of rural areas and existence of labor conscriptions but current developments are being checked to insure the non-recurrence of pre-war conditions. One concrete measure taken to forestall contract labor was the inclusion of a provision in the Labor Union Law which stipulates that conditions specified in a collective bargaining agreement invalidate and supersede those of an individual labor contract.

Prison Labor in Private Enterprises

The proportion of prison labor employed by private industry is minute but an increasing tendency to use such labor has been noted. On 1 November 1945, about 4,200 convicts were laboring for private concerns; the Justice Ministry estimates that this had increased to approximately 8,000 on 1 January 1946. The extent to which prison labor is depressing wage levels and is displacing free labor in employment is being studied.

Japanese Wage Systems

The Japanese wage system is usually based upon either a daily or a monthly pay period, but it is complicated considerably by the addition of a variety of allowances and special considerations. Dependency and semi-annual allowances and bonuses based upon diligence, night work, experience and piece work are the most common wage supplements. In addition to cash wages, companies frequently issue food, clothing and other daily necessities at low prices to relieve workers from full dependency upon the black market. Furthermore, many concerns issue material produced by the firm, such as cement, coal and paper, to their workers who are expected to trade these goods in the black market for food and other needs. The primary deductions from a worker's pay are for taxes, health insurance and retirement allowance.

Wages of Japanese Nationals on Occupation Projects

Japanese nationals employed by the occupation forces are paid by the Japanese Government in accordance with wage rates established by prefectural authorities. Wage supplements are not extended, although in some cases the Japanese Government does provide on-the-job feeding to attract and to retain skilled workers. Wage rates established by the Japanese officials are usually commensurate with local practice, and have served as an effective means of curtailing inflation, particularly in those areas where employment of occupation forces has been

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particularly heavy.

Methods of Japanese Wage Control

The Imperial Wage Ordinance of 1940, which is the basic legislation for wage control, does not regulate the wage rates of individual workers but simply limits the total overall wage payment which a factory or mine can grant. In order to determine this amount, standard hourly wage rates were fixed for various types of industries by regions and the total permissible monthly wage could be ascertained by multiplying man-hours worked by the standard hourly wage. Should a company desire a revision of the standard hourly wage, the Prefectural Governor has authority to permit the increase or decrease. Wage control is decentralized to a considerable extent and the Prefectural Governor, advised by a Prefectural Wage Committee, is charged with major responsibility for its enforcement.

The wage control system is so flexible and so loosely applied that for all practical purposes it is ineffective, except in the cases of salaried and government workers, whose salaries are paid at a fixed monthly rate and thus less easy to pad. In the past and particularly during the war, the addition of a variety of allowances was used to evade wage controls, but at present basic wage rates have been increased two and three-fold without either authorization or objection. These increases are admittedly justified in light of current subsistence living costs, and the pressure of newly-formed labor unions is being widely applied to compel comparatively large wage concessions from employers.

Attitude of SCAP Towards Maximum Wage Controls

The co-existence of wage controls and unrestricted collective bargaining on wage issues is somewhat of a paradox, but in view of the uncontrolled rise in prices, any enforcement of wage stability would be impracticable. Up till the present, SCAP has permitted the retention of wage control administrative machinery without effective application because (1) through the moral suasion implied by the existence of such controls, wage increases are retarded sufficiently to prevent the pressure of "runaway" wages from price control authorities who are attempting price stabilization and (2) the immediate application of effective wage control as part of a comprehensive anti-inflation plan, if such a program could be applied in the future, is made possible.

Minimum Wages

The wage control Ordinance of 1940 also contains a stipulation as to minimum wages. With the likelihood of a deflationary wage trend in the future due to increasing unemployment, the establishment of an effective minimum wage system is being planned.

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Wage and Cost of Living Studies

In December 1945, the Welfare Ministry appointed a Central Wage Committee to consider various aspects of the wage problem. This committee will submit recommendations on minimum wages, wage control amendments and stability of living costs.

A wage survey conducted by the Welfare Ministry indicates that a wide disparity exists between average monthly earnings in representative factories and the estimated cost of living. For example, the survey showed that the average monthly earnings of a 40-year-old male factory worker with at least four years experience was about 213 yen whereas it was estimated that a family of five persons consisting of a man, wife and three children required 509 yen monthly to live in a metropolitan city. Living costs were estimated at 345 yen for food, 21 yen for housing, 34 yen for fuel, 37 yen for clothing and 72 yen for miscellaneous items.

Reduction of Working Hours

The ten-hour day which was practically universal in Japan during the war and pre-war years is rapidly being reduced to an eight-hour day. Labor unions are insisting upon a curtailed work day as a primary device to spread work for the unemployed. This demand is further reinforced by the arguments that:

a. Current food rations are insufficient to sustain workers through a long day.

b. Transportation to and from work is often delayed.

c. Time outside working hours is required by family breadwinners to search for reasonably priced commodities.

Removal of Legal Restrictions on Organization of Labor Unions

The Memorandum to the Imperial Japanese Government dated 4 October 1945, subject: "Removal of Restrictions on Political, Civil and Religious Liberties" permitted Japanese labor union advocates the liberty to conduct organizational activities without interference and surveillance. This liberty was strengthened immeasurably on 11 October 1945 when General MacArthur stated that encouragement of unionization among workers should be encouraged by the Japanese Government.

The abrogation of wartime labor ordinances designed to regiment labor was accomplished by the Welfare Ministry on 11 October 1945. Among the regulations abrogated were the National Labor Mobilization Ordinance, which permitted labor conscription, and the Ordinance for Management of Labor in Important Factories, which required industrial establishments to be patterned along militaristic lines with saluting and military discipline prevailing.

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Restoration of Protective Legislation

On 1 November 1945, the Wartime Exceptions to the Factory Act Ordinance and the Wartime Exceptions to the Miners Act Ordinance, both of which had suspended restrictions upon working hours, holiday and night work and hazardous occupations for women and children in factories and mines were revoked. These actions restored protective labor standards to 1937 conditions.

Establishment of Mediation Committees

The mediation of labor disputes has traditionally been a responsibility of the police authorities. With SCAP instructions to disassociate police and labor functions, however, the Japanese Government was left with no instrumentality to settle labor disputes. On 5 November 1945, under SCAP guidance, the Welfare Ministry ordered prefectural authorities to appoint temporary Mediation Committees composed of equal representatives of management, labor and the public for the purpose of mediating and arbitrating local labor disputes. At present, 19 such Mediation Committees have been formally appointed but few problems have been referred to them for settlement. The primary reasons for this lack of activity are the relative short duration of disputes and the reluctance on the part of both workers and management to utilize a government inspired innovation after their sad experiences of the past.

Repeal of Japanese "G. I. Bill of Rights"

The Japanese Government has been directed to abrogate all laws and regulations which provide for preferential employment opportunities for demobilized military personnel. In keeping with the directive, the Diet abolished the Guarantee of Employment for Demobilized Soldiers Act (the Japanese version of a "G. I. Bill of Rights") in December 1945.

Anti-Discrimination Measures

The Japanese Government has also been directed to insure that no discrimination will be exercised against any worker in either private or government work, with respect to wages, hours or working conditions by reason of nationality, creed or social status. In particular, the Eta or "outcast" class has been afforded legal protection by this measure.

Passage of the Labor Union Law

The Labor Union Law, which was signed by the Emperor on 21 December 1945, legalizes the status of labor unions for the first time in Japanese history. The principal provisions of the Law are as follows:

a. Workers are guaranteed the right to organize.

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b. Collective bargaining is encouraged.

c. Laws and regulations which infringe on proper labor activities are invalid.

d. Government employees other than police, firemen and prison officials have the right to organize but strikes may be suspended or curbed by Imperial Ordinance.

e. Employers are prohibited from discharging or discriminating against a worker because of union membership.

f. Registration of unions is required but incorporation is voluntary.

g. Incorporated unions are exempt from income taxes and other assessments.

h. Collective bargaining agreements are recognized as over-riding any individual labor agreement in the plant covered.

i. Prefectural and national Labor Relations Committees, which will displace the temporary Mediation Committees, are established with the following functions:

(1) Investigation of labor conditions.

(2) Compilation of statistics on labor disputes.

(3) Mediation and prevention of disputes.

(4) Arbitration of certain disputes.

Revision of Labor Disputes Adjustment Act

As a supplement to the passage of the Labor Union Law, the revision of the Labor Disputes Adjustment Act of 1926, which has been utilized only four times in its 20-year history, is under consideration by the Labor Legislation Committee of the Welfare Ministry. The current draft contemplates the utilization of Labor Relations Committees or subcommittees thereof as conciliation authorities and the creation of "Labor Courts" for compulsory arbitration of specific types of labor disputes.

Labor Amendments to the Constitution

The various amendments to the Japanese Constitution as proposed to date by several committees include a number of provisions pertaining to labor. The majority of these proposals include an eight-hour day, sex equality, old age benefits and the prohibition of racial discrimination.

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Dissolution of Wartime "Labor Front": Sampo

Sangyo Hokoku-kai (Industrial Patriotic Societies), popularly known as "Sampo," served during the war years as Japan's principal labor front organization. Independent unions had been dissolved in 1940 and subsequent to that date, the government insisted that Sampo units be organized in practically all mines, factories, communications and agricultural enterprises. The primary mission of "Sampo" was to distribute rations among workers, to maintain the productive spirit of workers and to promote welfare activities. It was loosely organized. Nominally there was a highly centralized control; actually local units were practically autonomous. Membership statistics for 1943 disclose about 86,000 "Sampo" locals with an approximate membership of 6,000,000.

Although "Sampo" dissolved voluntarily on 30 September 1945, plans of former Sampo officials to convert the defunct association into a semi-official labor union became known to SCAP. These plans were abandoned after conferences with SCAP headquarters. At present, "Sampo" assets are in process of liquidation by a government commission which is charged with the duty of converting such assets to proper public use. The entire liquidation is supervised by SCAP.

Dissolution of Wartime "Labor Front": Romu Hokoku-kai and Romu Kyokai

Romu Hokoku-kai was organized in 1943 as a supplement to "Sampo" for the purpose of controlling casual labor, i.e., construction workers, coolies, stevedores and transportation employees. The 1945 membership amounted to about 2,000,000 with 1,161 branches throughout the country. Like "Sampo," this organization also voluntarily dissolved on 30 September 1945, but on the following day announced the creation of its successor, the Romu Kyokai.

Romu Kyokai (Labor Association) took over the assets and many key officials of Romu Hokoku-kai. The Japanese Government was to provide approximately 75% of the association's anticipated revenue for 1945-46, in return for which Romu Kyokai was to act as the principal organ through which the Japanese Government supplied skilled and common labor to the occupation forces. Because of its immediate importance for occupation objectives and the absence of suitable alternatives, Romu Kyokai was permitted to continue until 1 January 1946, on which it was abolished. It has been succeeded by government agencies, known as Boards of Day Laborers, to whom its assets have been transferred.

Emergence of Labor Union Organizations and the Revivification of the Japan Federation of Labor

Immediately after Japan's surrender, pre-war labor leaders initiated steps to reorganize labor unions and to create an alignment of labor forces to achieve economic and political ends. The leftist and rightist elements of the 1930's effected a rapprochement. Komakichi Matsuoka and Kanju Kato who were outstanding opponents in pre-war labor organizations agreed to consolidate forces. On 10 October 1945, approximately 120 of Japan's labor leaders assembled in Tokyo for the purpose of

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laying the foundation of a national labor federation. The Japan Federation of Labor Preparatory Committee was organized with Mr. Matsuoka as chairman, but no concrete program to complete the formation of a labor federation has been announced to date. The delay may be ascribed to several reasons: (1) labor leaders have not fully agreed among themselves as to organizational structure; (2) political activities are absorbing the major interests of leaders; (3) the ideological differences between pre-war labor leaders are not fully reconciled although mutual solidarity is temporarily preserved.

Connections with the Social Democratic Party

Labor union officials are convinced that political action along lines followed by the British Labor Party is the most positive means of attaining their objectives. In keeping with this belief, labor leaders were among the prime movers behind the Social Democratic Party (Nippon Shakai-to) and they serve as key party personnel.

Communist Labor Union Activities

The Communist Party has launched an aggressive union organizational campaign and has achieved considerable success among coal miners, railroad workers, dock hands, metal workers and municipal employees. Party leaders assert that they will discourage strikes which hinder reconversion of industry and that they will not insist upon socialization of industry, other than mines and electric power industries.

Organizational Tactics of Social Democrats and Communists

A difference exists between the Communist and Social Democrat methods of organizing labor unions, which both parties regard as their primary source of political strength. The Social Democrats are reorganizing pre-war unions and drawing upon past leadership. On the other hand, the Communists are negotiating directly with workers in individual plants and stimulating new local movements. It appears that the Communists are more aware of workers everyday problems than are the Social Democratic labor leaders.

Union Membership Statistics

Statistics of union membership are unreliable, but it is estimated that at least 300,000 workers belong to labor unions at present. The Japanese Government is recording data on labor unions and admittedly incomplete data as of December 1945 disclosed 103 unions with 148,819 members. The relative strength of the Communists and other groups is unknown but it is believed that at least half the unionized laborers are members of Communist-influenced unions.

The Federation Movement

A growing development among individual plant unions is the formation of federations or councils, usually on prefectural levels. Such

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federations are being formed in Hokkaido, Tokyo, Kanagawa, Saitama and Fukuoka Prefectures, the Kansai District and other areas.

The association of individual labor unions in similar industries has not been particularly noticeable but there are several outstanding examples of such unification. Thirty-three coal mine unions in Hokkaido with a membership of about 45,000 have formed a regional federation while government employees on railroads are attempting a similar association. The Federation of Transport Workers, which includes tram workers in six major cities, has also been organized.

Industrial Distribution of Unionization

Unionization is progressing in all industries and services of Japan to some extent. Organization has been particularly strong among school teachers, coal miners, seamen, communications employees, railway workers, fishermen, metal workers, shipyard employees and municipal employees.

Unionization of Women

The response of women to union organization has been slow. The traditional monopoly of male leadership in public affairs carries over into labor union activities, but efforts are being made by leaders to guarantee women a place in the labor movement.

Obstacles to organization of Labor Unions

The primary obstacles encountered in the formation of labor unions are (1) organization of company unions by employers and (2) the utilization of former "Sampo" officials to counter the development of independent unions. These obstacles have not constituted serious handicaps to date but it is anticipated that they will increase in seriousness in the future.

SCAP Labor Relations Policies

The labor relations policies adopted by SCAP Headquarters are as follows: (1) strikes, lockouts or other work stoppages which are inimical to the objectives of the occupation are prohibited. In the event that work stoppages which might be classified in this category occur, the decision as to military intervention will be made by SCAP Headquarters. (2) Settlement of work stoppages which are not inimical to the objectives of the occupation is a responsibility of the Japanese Government. Occupation authorities will neither mediate nor arbitrate labor disputes of this type.

Labor Disputes

The number of labor disputes has increased steadily since the occupation commenced but no serious work stoppages have occurred. According to a report submitted by the Welfare Ministry, the number of recorded labor disputes from 1 September to 24 December 1945 totalled

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112 involving 82,269 participants. Of this number 48 were strikes with 28,752 workers involved. A breakdown of disputes by industrial classification follows:

Number of Labor Disputes and Strikes by Industry

(1 September 1945 to 24 December 1945)

Industry	Number of Disputes	Number of Strikes
Total	112	48
Metal	10	4
Mechanical	24	7
Chemical	7	1
Printing	3	1
Wood	5	3
Food	1	1
Construction	4	2
Other Industry	2	1
Mines	41	24
Transportation	11	2
Miscellaneous	4	2

The primary causes of disputes appear to have undergone some changes since October. Initially workers demanded collective bargaining, protection against discharges and increased retirement allowances but at present the chief demands appear to be increased wages, adequate distribution of food and participation of workers in management. The demand for participation in management is a phenomenon peculiar to the current Japanese labor movement. Workers take the position that "autocratic capitalism" has deprived labor of an adequate livelihood, consequently, it is incumbent upon workers to bring about democratic reformation of management. Recent disputes in which labor participation in management was a primary demand occurred in the Mitsui Bibai coal mine, the Yomiuri Hochi newspaper and the Keisei Electric Railway. In each of these instances, workers seized the concern's facilities and proceeded to carry on operations while barring management from participation. Control reverted to management upon settlement of disputed issues.

Child Labor

General MacArthur in a statement to the Prime Minister on 1. October declared that the Japanese Government should institute "such measures as may be necessary to correct the evils which now exist in child labor practices." In light of this policy and no concrete action on the part of the Japanese Government, steps are being taken to determine the adequacy of existing child labor legislation and administrative machinery.

Labor Advisory Committee

The War Department was requested in October 1945 to dispatch an advisory labor committee from the United States to assist and to advise

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MILITARY GOVERNMENT SECTION,
HEADQUARTERS, V AMPHIBIOUS CORPS,
FLEET POST OFFICE, SAN FRANCISCO.

25 October, 1945.

Subject: LABOR

Scope : KAGOSHIMA KEN

Source : SURVEY BY VAC KEN MILITARY GOVERNMENT SURVEY TEAM

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I LABOR SUPPLY

A. Current State of Labor Supply in Kagoshima

1. This ken is largely agricultural, with some forestry and light industries; the latter mainly food processing and brewing.

2. Information on the amount of labor available at the present time is not obtainable. Future reports will be submitted to establish reliable estimates.

3. Figures on the percentages of labor engaged in different types of industry is not yet available but is being procured.

4. Under the present circumstances, there is a shortage of labor in Kagoshima shi which is almost completely destroyed. Over 300 laborers were sent from this city to Konoya for the U. S. forces. Prisoners from the ken prison and about 5,000 school boys and girls are working at clearing ruins, etc., It is also difficult to get labor because money is no incentive. There is at present nothing to buy with it.

5. There was no previous unemployment because of the war effort. And there is at present no unemployment in this area. Major TOKAJI, head of the Kagoshima office for Vocational Guidance and Protection of Bereaved Families, Wounded Soldier, and Demobilized Soldiers, estimates that half of the returning soldiers will have jobs to return to. He expressed the opinion that it would be difficult to obtain jobs for all of the others because most of the factories will remain closed. He expressed some concern about this and after questions said he felt that returning soldiers who remained unemployed might make trouble, not immediately, but possibly next year. Ken Military Government officials are inclined, however, to discount this danger from unemployment because of the vast amount of reconstruction needed in the shi of this ken.

6. Major TOKAJI estimates that 150,000 soldiers will return to Kagoshima Ken, of which 30,000 have already returned. He is unable to prepare a schedule of the return of remaining 120,000 because they are scattered in the theatres. He is attempting to contact the authorities (War Office) to get this information and will prepare a forecast of prospective monthly returns.

7. Procurement of labor is made more difficult by the lack of consumer's goods available for purchase with wages. Thus the incentive of working for wages is much less than it would be under normal times, and offering wage supplements of food is a great incentive in procuring workers.

8. The number of English speaking people in this area is not large. However there are sufficient interpreters for both the Kagoshima and Konoya offices.

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Labor Supply (Cont'd)

B. Labor Agencies

1. Labor Mobilization Offices (formerly People's Vocational Guidance Offices) are in operation. Ten are reported in the Ken. (See Attached list). When these offices become the N.L.M.O. a Ken staff department was created known as the Mobilization Section of which the chief in this Ken is Kurikawa, Hisao, whose duties during the war were primarily the mobilization of labor for the war effort. In the event this position is abolished as it may be in the near future offices will probably again be known as labor mobilization offices.

On the Ken staff there is also a labor section headed by Nishisako, Yoshio. This department is similar to our conception of a labor department and is concerned with the enforcement of labor regulations, compilation of statistics, complaints, etc.,. Both of these staff sections are under the police dept. headed by Ikeno, Kiyomi.

2. Workers secure assignments through the N.L.M.O. If secured otherwise they must register at and have the approval of, with the exception of officials ans professional, the labor office.

C. Registration

1. Where damage is indicated on list of N.L.M.O. offices, labor records are destroyed. In any event the bombing, typhoons; and resulting movement of population have made such records almost worthless even where they do exist. Kagoshima's labor records were completely destroyed, the status of other offices throughout the Ken is being determined.

2. A new registration of labor is necessary. It is understood that a new census will start 1 November, 1945 probably not to be completed before July 1946. (note: No clarification as to whether this is a labor or a complete conses) was included.

3. Major TOKAJI's office (see I,A,4) is having returned military personnel register with the Labor Mobilization Office upon employment, but the condition of these records is such that without a complete reregistration the records are of little value.

II WAGES

A. Current Wage Level.

1. (See attached list for latest wage level)

2. Reports indicate that perhaps as much as 75% of all labor in Kagoshima shi is paid double the legal maximum.

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LIST OF NATIONAL LABOR MOBILIZATION OFFICES IN KAGOSHIMA KEN

No.	Name	Location	Name of Chief	District Cond.
1.	Kagoshima	Kagoshima shi	Mizuma, Kanetake	Kago shi burned Oshima Gun Kagoshima gun Kumake gun
2.	Ibusaki	Ibusaki Cho	" "	Ibusaki Gun good
3.	Bansei	Bansei Cho	Kawano, Muneyuki	Kawanabe Gun
4.	Ijuin	Ijuin Cho	Kukita, Torataro	Hioki gun
5.	Sendai	Sendai Shi	Watanabe, Yasushi	Sendai shiburned Satsuma gun
6.	Akune	Akune Cho	Takesako, Iwao	Izumi gun burned
7.	Oguchi	Oguchi cho	Iwato, Ahiko	Isa gun
8.	Kokubu	Kokubu cho	Tabata, Buemon	Aira gun bombed
9.	Iwakawa	Iwakawa cho	Tanaka, Yoneho	Zoo gun
10.	Kanoya	Kanoya shi	Tanaka, Yoshio	Kanoya shi Kimotsuki gun

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LEGAL MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM WAGES--KAGOSHIMA KEN

Classification	Wages	
	Maximum	Minimum
Carpenters	7.20 Y	2.50 Y
Plasterers	7.20	2.50
Day Laborers	6.60	2.20
Stone Masons	7.50	2.70
Earth Movers	5.20	2.20
Miners	6.50	2.20
Coolies	4.80	1.70
Mechanics	7.20	2.80
Drivers	6.80	2.20

NOTE: Special allowances granted for special work and commissions.

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Wages (Cont'd)

B. Wages for women are about 70% those of men on attached list.

B. Ken Wage Situation concerning labor furnished by the Japanese Government for the occupying forces.

1. Japanese officials understand that they are to pay workers used by the U. S. forces.

C. Wage Supplements

1. Food is now given to workers only by black market employers--mainly farmers who are about the only ones in a position to have extra food.

2. Trucks are scarce but about 40 Japanese military trucks are available and being used to transport laborers to and from work.

3. Extra wages are legally paid for certain special types of work. Such schedules are not prepared but are forthcoming.

4. Extra rations are allowed for extra heavy physical labor. The Shokuryo Aidan (Food Distribution Cooperative) handles distribution of food. They are directed by the Section on Agriculture under the First Department of Economy on the Ken staff. The FDC has a headquarters for the ken and branches where coupons and food are obtained.

5. No workers have received food as payment--except from the black market employers.

III HOURS AND WORKING CONDITIONS

A. Hours

1. Labor hours are normally ten hours a day except in November, December, January and February when they are nine.

2. Women work the same hours as men.

3. There is no information at present concerning part-time workers.

B. Housing of Labor

1. Additional housing is needed, particularly in Kagoshima shi which is at least 90% destroyed. At present this city is constructing a standard, small house in as great a quantity as possible.

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IV LABOR RELATIONS

A. Labor Unions

1. Labor unions are reported to be in existence, but detailed information is not yet available.

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MILITARY GOVERNMENT SECTION
HEADQUARTERS, V AMPHIBIOUS CORPS
FLEET POST OFFICE, SAN FRANCISCO

Transmitted 23 Oct 45

Subject: Labor.

Scope: Saga Ken.

Source: Survey by VAC Ken Military Government Survey Team.

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I. Organization of Labor in Saga Ken.

A. " Labor Mobilization and Service Section " (Kokomindoinka to Roseika)

1. Located at the prefectural capitol at Saga Shi. It is now under the control of the Prefectural Chief of Police. The Chief of the Section is K. Matsuda and his assistants are T. Enaga and N. Taira. It has been reported that eventually this control will pass to the Inner Section.

2. Functions of the " Labor Mobilization and Service Section ".

a. Compile from reports sent to the Ken office from the District offices (Kinrosho) and the District Labor Associations (Romu Hokokukai Shibu) the number of workers available. These reports are sent in once a month.

b. Receives requests for laborers from areas where there is a labor shortage.

c. Fills requests from areas where there is a labor deficit by obtaining laborers from " Labor Pools " in the 15 districts.

d. Publishes the " Saga Ken Public News and Supplement ". This booklet lists the wages paid all classes of laborers in Saga Ken. (Note: see attached translation of this booklet)

e. Enforces wage ceiling through police.

B. " The District Labor Mobilization Section " (Kinrosho)

1. Under the direct control of the Prefectural " Labor Mobilization and Service Section ".

Encl (A)

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2. Functions of the District Labor Mobilization Section.

a. Acts as an employment agency.

b. Registers all workers except those under the control of " Labor Associations ".

c. Handles employers requests for labor. (Note : see attached translation of Employment card)

d. Maintains record of all workers. (Note: see attached translation of Emplyees Card)

e. Sends monthly report of number and classification of workers to Ken " Labor Mobilization and Service Section "/

f. Fills requests for workers from Ken " Labor Mobilization and Service Section ".

g. Names, locations and officers charged with operating Kinrosho. (Note: see attached sheet " Labor Mobilization Offices and Officers in Saga Ken ".

C. " Labor Associations " (Romu Hokokukai Shibu)

1. Locations, names of local Police Chief in charge. (Note : see attached sheet " Labor Association offices in Saga Ken ")

2. Functions of " Labor Associations ".

a. Registers such classifications of labor as Carpenters, Masons, Bricklayers, Common Labor, etc.

b. Registration of labor by:

(1) Place of residence.
(2) Place of work.

c. All laborers for district listed in " Laborers Registration Book ". Each class of labor has a separate volume.

d. Registration of workers not an annual process. Laborre once registered remains a member of the District " Labor Association " until he moves elswwhere or retires. However, new names are continually being added to list.

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e. Submits monthly reports to Ken " Labor Mobilization and Service Section " of the number and classification of laborers available.

f. Fills request for needed labor.

g. Issues registered laborer a " Labor Notebook ". (Note: See attached translation of " Labor Notebook ")

h. Issues to registered laborer a " Food Notebook " Special Distribution (Note: See attached translation of " Food Notebook Special Distribution ". The " Food Notebook- Special Distribution " is to be presented along with the " Labor Notebook " by the laborer at certain distributing centers where such items as food, clothing, tools (picks, trowels, shovels, hammers, etc) shoes, toilet articles (soap) and beer are given to the laborer. There are ten distributing centers in Saga City. The names of some of them are: Saga Commerce Association, Fiber controlling Association, Toilet Goods Association, and Rubber Controlling Association.

D. " Method of contacting groups of laborers.

1. The employer, Police Chief of District, or the Labor Mobilization Office may appoint a group leader. The head of the group is called Boss (Bosu) and is required to round up men assigned to the job. He receives an extra ¥3.00 per day for this.

2. There are no english speaking workers known to the Ken Labor Mobilization Office.

3. According to the Prefectural Chief of Police the National labor laws are being enforced.

4, Transportation and feeding of workers: The Ken officialsunderstand that they are to pay and transport all workers hired by the occupational forces. The Transportation will be by Truck and bus, etc. Workers will provide their own food (Note: see attached translation of Standard Daily Distribution c ard)

5. Unemployment.
a. Prior to occupation - none.
b. At present - about 10% of people unemployed.

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II. DAILY WAGES OF VARIOUS LABOR CLASSIFICATIONS IN SAGA KEN

Carpenter		¥8.20
Bricklayers		¥8.50
Plasterers		¥8.20
Common Laborers	men	¥6.20
	women	¥4.06
Helpers		¥5.80
Miners	¥6,00 to	¥8.00
Planters		¥7.80
Masons		¥8.80
Painters		¥7.80
Furniture makers		¥7.80
Zinc Workers		¥7.80
Mat makers		¥7.50
Straw roof makers		¥7.80

Remarks:

1. These wages are for a ten hour day from March to October and for a nine hour day from November to February.
2. Workers are paid three times a month.
3. Skilled workers with less than one years experience are paid ¥3.00 less.
4. Women receive about 70% of daily wage.
5. Especially skilled workers receive a bonus of ¥1.00 per day.
6. Dangerous occupations have special wage increases. Greatest increase cannot exceed 50% of basic daily wage.
7. Boys under 18 years of age receive 80% of daily wage.
8. Clerks, typists, ect. are paid according to their abilities. Their wages are not controlled by the Ken Labor Mobilization and Service Office. Employer advertises directly for this type of worker as well as using the District Labor Mobilization Office.
9. " Gang Bosses " receive about ¥3.00 more per day than the highest paid workers of group.
10. Interpreters are receiving ¥10.00 per day in Saga Shi.

A. Labor presently available, physically and geographically in the various classifications.

1. See attached sheet " The Total Number of Workers by Classification and Sex in Saga Ken "

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF WORKERS BY CLASSIFICATION AND SEX IN SAGA KEN

Labor Office	Saga		Karatsu		Imari		Takeo		Kashima		Tosu		Kanzami		Ogi		Total	
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
Carpenters	154		186		125		123		61		36		50		78		813	
Plasterers	44		39		36		46		22		13		21		39		260	
Stoneworker	28		170		52		53		23		20		21		32		400	
Earthworker	130		172		110		240		58		120		60		110		1000	
Coolie	150	25	110	25	100	10	170	25	25	5	85	15	100	20	110	15	860	140
Carpntr shop worker	1		10		3		4										18	
Plasterer (special)	5		9		2		1										17	
Tin man	10		8		7		6		7		5		3		4		50	
Tatami layer	25	1	25		24		25		10		15		15		8		147	1
Joiner	15		14		10		30		15		16		8		5		113	
Gardner	10		10		8		15		5		6		3		7		64	
Mason	5		5		1						5	2	15		2		18	2
Tileworker	10		35		2		6		2		15		2		2		74	
SteelConcrete					1												1	
Glass worker	5		7		2		2		1		3		2		2		26	
	592	26	800	25	483	10	721	25	241	5	339	17	285	20	400	15	3861	143

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III. Factors affecting Labor

A. Labor registration of discharged Military Personnel.

1. It is estimated that there will be 25,000 discharged military personnel in Saga Ken.

2. Approximately 80% will return to their former occupancy of farming.

3. The Central government plans to register all returned military personnel at District Labor Mobilization Office on 1 December 1945.

B. " Housing "

1. The normal population of Saga Ken is about 700,000. About 100,000 more people have moved into the Ken from areas which have been bombed and burned raising the population to 800,000.

2. Most of the 100,000 additional people have gone to live with relatives and it is reported that often two or three families are living in homes constructed to house only one family.

C. Economic features of Saga Ken.

1. The Ken is largely agricultural with some light industry and about 20 mines.

2. Statistics on several of the industries are:

Industry	No. engaged	No Families (houses)
* Mining	2949	584
Agriculture	329920	8179
Fishing	17837	3034
Industries	28424	5195
Merchants	65942	12781
* Transportation	6645	1154
	451,717	30,897

* about 70% of these are Koreans

D. Trade Unions- There are no trade unions in Saga Ken, the only labor leader reported is U. Kimura, his residence is close by the Nishikaratsu Station, Higashimatsuura-gun Karatsu Shi.

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LABOR ORGINIZATIONAL CHART, SAGA KEN

Prefectural Governor

Prefectural Police Chief

Chief of the Labor Mobilization and Service Section (Kokomindoinka to Roseika)

Service Section
Labor Associations (15)
Romu-hokokukai-shibu each is under supervision of local Police Chief

1. Kashima
2. Ureshino
3. Takeo
4. Rokkaku
5. Imari
6. Arita
7. Karatsu
8. Ochi
9. Yobiko
10. Ogi
11. Taku
12. Saga
13. Morodomi
14. Kanzaki
15. Tosu

Labor Mobilization Section

(Kinrosho) 8

1. Saga
2. Karatsu
3. Imari
4. Takeo
5. Ogi
6. Kashima
7. Kanzaki
8. Tosu

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LABOR MOBILIZATION OFFICERS AND OFFICES IN SAGA KEN

" KINROSHO "

Name of Office	Mobilization Chief	Location	District of Juris.
1. Saga	xS. Takazono	Saga	Saga city and dist.
2. Karatsu	Y. Yoshiki	Karatsu	Karatsu City and Higashimatsuura district.
3. Imari	S. Yamajaki	Imari	Nishimatsuura dist.
4. Takeo	T. Fukuda	Takeo	Kishima district
5. Ogi	M. Urago	Ogi	Ogi district
6. Kashima	M. Ogata	Kashima	Fujitsu district
7. Kanzaki	B. Nakashima	Kanzaki	Kanzaki district
8. Tosu	K. Nonaka	Tosu	Miyaki district.

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LABOR ASSOCIATION OFFICES IN SAGA KEN

Note: The offices are under the control of the local Chief of Police. (Romu-hookokukai-shibu)

Office	Chief of Police	Location
1. Kasima	M. Fujimoto	Fujitsu-gun
2. Uresino	U. Ikeda	Fujitsu-gun
3. Takeo	S. Ogata	Kijima-gun
4. Rokkaku	K. Imaizumi	Kijima-gun
5. Imari	M. Nonaka	Nishimatsuura-gun
6. Arita	T. Egashira	Nishimatsuura-gun
7. Karatsu	K. Koda	Higashi-matsuura-gun
8. Ochi	K. Taniguchi	Higashi-matsuura-gun
9. Yobiko	T. Matsuda	Higashi-matsuura-gun
10. Ogi	N. Uchikawa	Ogi-gun
11. Taku	K. Okoba	Ogi-gun
12. Saga	K. Ito	Saga-gun
13. Morodomi	M. Nichino	Saga-gun
14. Kanzaki	K. Yoshitani	Miyagi-gun
15. Tosu	K. Morita	Miyagi-gun

EMPLOYMENT CARD

Class of Occupation

Employing Conditions

Registration No.	Date	Period Of Time
Name Of Company		Name of Manager
Address of Company	Number of Employees	Number in Family
Type of Business		Telephone
Occupation	Work	Hours
Number		Holidays
Ages		Guarrantor
Daily Wage		Ability Capacity
Living with Employer		Experience Proof
Placement Date	Method of Selection	Physical Condition
Accepting Area		Remarks

Signature

Does the Employer wish record of career of worker or not

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CONDITIONS AFTER EMPLOYMENT

First Week	2nd Week	3rd Week

Directions are given in this space telling the individual where to report to work.

How to make connections

Date Address to notify

Registration Number	Name	Reason why individual is not employed.

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EMPLOYEE CARD

Sex

Class of Occupation					
Registration Number			Registration Date		
Name			Native country		
			Present address		
Date of birth		Head of family	Relation	Occupation	
Married		No. to be helped	No. of children	Others to be helped	
Guaranter		Address	Occupation	Duration	
Schooling			Other		

Employer	Occupation	Address	Type of Work	Wage	How long worked
					When retired
					Reason for retirement

Ability and experience

What occupation desired	Location desired	Salary expected

Remarks

SIGNATURE

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CONDITIONS AFTER EMPLOYMENT

1 st Week	2nd Week	3rd Week	Etc.					
Registration Number	Name	Occupation	Address	Telephone	Occupation	Reason for not Employing	Name of person reporting	
REGISTRATION DATE								
Physical Condtion						Date	Address to Notify	

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Page one

Name and location of assigned Distribution center	Name of police chief Name of mayor name of investigator FOOD NOTEBOOK (SPECIAL DISTRIBUTION) Date of issue Document No.
Name of local Chief of Police	
Name of the office of the Labor Association issuing book.	
Certificate of the Chief of the Labor Association.	
Age Occupation	
Name of person getting special distribution.	
Name of head of family	
Address	

Page two

" Rules and Regulations "

1. A certified person is the only one permitted to indicate the number of days worked and the amount of the distribution.
2. A workers special distribution is bhsed on the amount of work done in the previous month.
3. As a rule a workers family can receive their distribution of commodities at the same time the worker receives his.
4. A worker whose home is outside of the prefecture is permitted to obtain his distribution at the place where he is working.
5. Farmers are not permitted to obtain food distribution. He receives money in place of food.
6. Any person obtaining distribution under false pretenses will be prosecuted.

Page three

Date	Period Covered	Work Days	Stamp	Amt. Distr. K. Gr.	Distr. Date	Completed date.

Page four

CLASS OF WORK			AMOUNT TO BE DISTRIBUTED EACH DAY			
Date	Period Covered	Work Days	Stamp	Amt Distr. K. Gr	Distr. Date.	Completed Date.

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STANDARD DAILY DISTRIBUTION CARD

Family Distribution and Laborers Special Distribution

Age brackets	Type of work	Sex	Standard Distribution	Amount of Special Distribution
1 - 2			120 gr	
3-5			170 gr	
6 - 10			250 gr	
11 - 15	Common labor		360 gr	
	Light labor		360 gr	30 gr
	Common Labor		330 gr	
	Light labor		330 gr	60 gr
16 - 60	Heavy Labor	men	400 gr	170 gr
	Heavy labor	wom	330 gr	150 gr
	Sp Heavy Labor	men	400 gr	310 gr
	Sp Heavy labor	wom	330 gr	230 gr
	Common labor		300 gr	
61 - over	Light labor	men	300 gr	60 gr
	Light labor	wom	300 gr	60 gr
	Heavy Labor	men	300 gr	180 gr
	Heavy labor	wom	300 gr	80 gr
	Sp Heavy Labor	men	200 gr	320 gr
	Sp Heavy labor	wom	200 gr	220 gr

1. Soldiers living out of barracks can receive 330 gr per day.

2. Pregnant women receive 50 gr per day extra.

(see revers side.)

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KIND OF OCCUPA TION

Class A	Class B Light Labor	Class C HeavyLabor
Common Labor Except " B " Clacsification	1. Agriculture, Livestock worker, Fish Canner 2. Metal workers 3. Machine and Instrument workers 4. Laborers not engaged in iron wk. 5. Chemical worker 6. Earthware worker 7. Mill worker (spin) 8. Leather worker 9. Printer and paper makers 10. Furniture makers 11. Cooks 12. Public Work Architects. 13. Electrical workers. 14. Painters 15. Transportation work. 16. Distribution of food and firewood. 17. Motor crane operator 18. Postmen, Ricksha men 19. Carpenters who make small articles. 20. Policemen	1. Firewood makers, woodcutters, farmers 2. Fishermen 3. Mineral extractors, stone cutters 4. Metal workers 5. Blacksmiths 7. Salt workers 8. Carpenters and Public road builder 9. Masons and R.R. Constr. workers. 10. Public water works men, Gas plant men, Electric plant men 11. Boatmen, Carriage men 12. Longshoremen 13. Firemen 14. Special Heavy workers Shipbuilders Iron foundrymen Coal miners.

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Page One

Name of Laborer	No. of Notebook
LABOR NOTEBOOK	
Date	

Page two

Rules for use of notebook.

1. This book must be produced to secure daily neccesities
2. This book must be returned to this office when completely filled.
3. This book must not be loaned to another person.
4. The owner of this book must not make false statements in regard to its use.

Page three

DISTRIBUTION OF NECCESITIES

Name of neccesities----	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp
Name of neccesities	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp
Name of neccesities	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp	Amount Date Stamp

Page four

SAME AS PAGE THREE

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Page five

Degree of skill certified by Police Chief.	" Articles of faith"
Occupation number	1. We must make every effort to preserve our country.
Class of occupation	2. We must endeavor to produce fighting power
Date of birth	3. We must be willing to bear our country's distress.
Sex	
Address	PHOTOGRAPH OF WORKER (now omitted)
Native country	

Page six

Mo	10 HOUR DAY							9 Hour day				
Day	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												
6	Days worked are stamped under appropriate day and month. This notebook plus " Food Notebook - Special distribution " are needed for obtaining necessities that are distibuted at various distribution centers throughout city											
7												
8												
9												
10												
11												
12												
13												
14												

Page seven

LISTS DAYS FROM 15th through 31st of month in same manner as on page six

Page eight

Change of address

Class of Work and Date	Stamp

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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS

AG 091.3 (20 Oct 45) ESS Scapin 260

10 November 1945

MEMORANDUM FOR: IMPERIAL JAPANESE GOVERNMENT.

THROUGH : Central Liaison Office, Tokyo.

SUBJECT : Monthly Labor Report.

1. The Imperial Japanese Government will direct local Liaison Committees, inspector generals or prefectural authorities responsible for procurement and payment of laborers furnished to the occupation forces, to prepare and to submit the following certified data to the local Allied Labor Officer:

a. Average number of workers requisitioned by Allied Forces per work day during month.

b. Average number of workers furnished to Allied Forces per work day during month.

c. Number of laborers working for occupation forces on last work day of month.

d. Total amount of cash wages actually paid by the Japanese Government to laborers supplied to occupation forces during month.

e. Estimated value of wages in kind, such as food, furnished by the Japanese Government, without cost, to laborers working for occupation forces during month.

2. Initial reports covering the months of September and October 1945 will be submitted separately by 30 November 1945. Succeeding reports will be due by the 5th of the month following the period reported.

FOR THE SUPREME COMMANDER:

H. W. ALLEN,
Colonel, A. G. D.,
Asst Adjutant General.

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SCAPIN 260

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