International Labour Review, Vol. 122, No. 2, March-April 1983

Working conditions in the hotel, restaurant and catering sector: A case study of Japan

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Growth of the hotel, restaurant and catering sector

The tourism industry is an area of economic activity that has grown rapidly in the past few decades throughout the world, as is shown by the number of rooms in hotels and inns being built to accommodate increasing numbers of travellers. This implies that it still has potential for offering jobs to a greater number of men and women seeking employment.

In Japan the "hotel boom" began around 1964, when the Olympic Games were held in Tokyo: this event drew many foreign visitors to Japan, which in turn generated the upswing in the Japanese hotel industry. Statistical information provided by the Ministry of Welfare indicates that in 1965 there were only 258 hotels with a total of 24,169 rooms (excluding *ryokan*, traditional Japanese inns). By 1970, when the World Exposition, another important event attracting foreign visitors, was held in Osaka, the figures had risen to 454 hotels with 40,652 rooms. By 1975 they had sharply increased to 1,149 hotels with 109,998 rooms and by 1979 to 1,768 hotels with 154,722 rooms.[1]

This expansion is due not only to foreign visitors but also to the growing volume of domestic travel, especially after the mid-1960s, as Japan became more industrialised, business boomed, and households became affluent enough to afford more frequent travel. Furthermore, hotels these days do not provide only accommodation and meals; many large establishments now offer facilities for sports and entertainment. In addition, they accommodate conferences, banquets, cocktail and dinner parties, and wedding receptions, thereby creating more jobs in the hotel, restaurant and catering (HRC) sector.

In 1975 the total number of restaurants and similar establishments was 194,917, with 828,861 employees, increasing to 227,556 establishments with 1,001,454 employees by 1978.[2] Furthermore, according to the 1980 *Annual Report on the Labour Force Survey*,[3] the number of people, including self-employed, family workers and employees, working in such establishments amounted to 2,220,000, or 4 per cent of the total labour force in 1980; 59

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per cent of these workers were women. The 1978 Establishment Census of Japan [4] reports the total number of employees in hotels, inns and other types of lodging establishments as being 643,688.

Notwithstanding the importance of today's HRC sector as a provider of jobs to millions of men and women, little has been known about the working conditions in the sector, perhaps because of the extremely low degree of unionisation among hotel and restaurant workers [5] (practically nil in the case of the latter) which makes it more difficult for them to voice their demands and attract public attention. However, such information is now gradually being released, implying that the sector has finally been recognised as a vitally important area that deserves more attention.

Methodology

This article attempts to examine and analyse the data provided by surveys conducted in recent years (mainly by the Labour Ministry), in order to give an idea of the general working conditions in the HRC sector. The Survey Report on Working Conditions in the Tertiary Industry,[6] hereafter referred to as Survey A, released in 1980, covers 32 selected branches in the tertiary sector, including restaurants and hotels, that were considered, at the time of the survey, to have expanded rapidly in the last several years. For purposes of comparison we shall refer to figures for travel agencies and large retail stores. The number of workers covered was 6,265,700, or 34.3 per cent of all workers in the private tertiary sector. The Survey Report on Working Conditions in Small-scale Establishments in Selected Branches,[7] published in 1979 and hereafter referred to as Survey B, covers business establishments employing between ten and 29 regular workers in four selected wholesale and retail sectors and 13 selected service sectors. A third nation-wide survey to be examined is the 1981 Survey on Working Conditions in the Tertiary Industry,[8] hereafter referred to as Survey C, conducted by the National Liaison Conference for the Commerce, Service and Office Workers' Union, covering selected unionised establishments in finance, commerce, services and mass communications.

The surveys cover men and women, full-timers and part-timers, the unionised and the non-unionised, and workers in small and larger establishments. No survey can be completely exhaustive; however, the three in combination should give a fairly accurate picture of the overall working conditions in the HRC sector in Japan.

Remuneration

The HRC sector and other sectors

According to the data provided by Survey A, the average monthly remuneration for full-time workers, including the basic pay and various

allowances and excluding overtime pay and bonus, in June 1979, was 171,700 yen for men and 112,200 yen for women. As table 1 shows, it was below the average for workers in hotels and restaurants [9] and above the average for those in large retail stores and travel agencies. However, it is difficult to judge solely on the basis of this table whether one group of workers is underpaid in relation to another. Factors such as hours of work, which will be considered later, length of continuous employment (on which Survey A does not provide information), and educational background, must be taken into account in comparing them.

The most one can say, therefore, is that the lower remuneration in the restaurant and hotel sectors may be partially explained by the shorter duration of schooling of their workers.

Smaller establishments

According to Survey B, which covers smaller establishments, the average monthly remuneration, including the basic pay and various allowances and excluding overtime pay and bonus, for full-timers (both sexes) was 133,727 yen in the restaurant sector and 121,835 yen in the hotel sector. The corresponding figures for Survey A were 135,150 and 136,500 yen respectively. The Survey B data on remuneration were collected in September 1979, three months after those for Survey A. Since the interval between the times of data collection is very short, the two sets of figures can be compared without having to take inflationary adjustment into consideration. Because Survey B does not provide information on the average amount of education among workers in smaller establishments, it cannot be stated that their lower remuneration compared with that of Survey A workers is due to their lower level of education. However, it seems that the smaller the establishment, the lower the remuneration of the employee.

Women

As in other parts of the world, an increasing number of women are now entering the labour market in Japan and many are being absorbed into tertiary activities, including the HRC sector. However, the question is in what manner they are employed and how fairly they are paid for their services. The difference between the remuneration of men and women, according to Survey A, has already been mentioned. This evidence is borne out by a further survey, conducted by the Leisure Service Industry, Labour Information Development Centre,[10] of the total annual income for 1980 of men and women employed in seven selected unionised establishments in the hotel sector. According to the result, while only 15.5 per cent of men earned less than 2 million yen for that year, 48.4 per cent of women were in this low-income bracket. Among those with incomes of more than 4 million yen were 15.5 per cent of men and only 1.6 per cent of women.

Table 1. Education and average monthly pay for full-time workers, by sex, selected sectors, June 1979

Sector	Junior high school (A) %		High school (B) %		Junior college (C) %		College (D) %		Average education (years) [1]		Average pay ('000 yen)	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Large retail stores	4.2	9.5	46.1	75.9	2.6	11.5	47.1	3.1	13.81	12.07	210.7	113.3
Travel agencies	6.0	5.1	42.6	63.5	4.1	21.3	47.3	8.2	13.79	12.63	188.2	123.0
Hotels	16.3	29.9	57.1	54.9	8.3	10.1	18.3	4.8	12.41	11.46	164.1	108.9
Restaurants	26.9	30.1	56.5	65.6	1.8	3.1	14.7	1.0	11.81	11.18	163.2	107.1

[1] Calculated as follows: $\frac{A\times 9+B\times 12+C\times 14+D\times 16}{100}$. The numerator was divided by 98 for women in travel agencies, since the level of education of 2 per cent of this group could not be ascertained.

Sources: Survey A; figures for women's education calculated from Survey A data by the author.

It is not clear, though, whether this gap is a result of wage discrimination *per se*. A possible explanation may be sought in Survey C, which lists income scales, including the starting salary, for the newly employed, as well as the old-timers, in some of the unionised establishments in the HRC sector. It indicates that there is hardly any wage gap between men and women upon graduation from high school. The gap gradually widens, however, from the second or third year in some places and from the fourth or fifth year in other places, until the men begin to acquire dependants, when a clear-cut difference appears. For example, at one catering establishment the difference in the total annual income (including the bonus) of men and women in the second year of employment was only 70,800 yen in favour of men. The gap widens to 1,076,800 yen at the age of 27, when men on the average claim one dependant. On the other hand, at one of the major hotels in Japan, the wages of men and women remain the same until the age of 27, at which time men in general claim one dependant, thus raising their remuneration by 261,600 yen. While discrimination does not appear to exist in the latter case, this is not so in the former, where women receive much smaller increments than men.

Another factor which causes the gap to widen is that men with several years of experience in the same establishment have much better chances than women of getting promoted to supervisory positions that are accompanied with higher pay. For example, an income scale for supervisors and section managers is devised only for men in all but one catering establishment. In other words, women in general are not expected to advance to managerial positions even if they happen to have the same amount of experience as men. They are expected to get married and terminate their employment in their mid-20s, which makes the management hesitant to promote them to responsible posts. The position is, however, changing: as reported in Survey C, the average lengths of employment for men and women in seven selected hotels were 9.79 and 7.6 years respectively. The period is still shorter for women than for men; however, there are enough of the former with sufficient experience who intend to stay on the job and who therefore should be given equal opportunities for promotion.

A final factor influencing the remuneration of women and their general status in the HRC sector is that many of them are "part-time workers", a group which, as we shall see, suffers from a number of disadvantages by comparison with full-time workers.

"Part-time workers"

"Part-time workers" are attracting the attention of labour economic researchers because of the rapid increase in their numbers in recent years.[11] In Japan there are different categories of non-full-time workers such as day labourers, part-timers and so-called *arubaito*,[12] but these are not clearly defined and distinguished. For instance, a day labourer, by definition, may be

understood as anyone working only for a few days or a very short period of time under the same employer, but in Japan he or she may work up to a year, or even longer in many cases. By the same token "part-timers" may be understood in other countries as those who do not work a full week, but in Japan, as will be pointed out later, the definition is less clear-cut, since many of those classified in this group in fact work as many days and as many hours as full-timers. Therefore, in this case study the three categories of workers mentioned above are classified together as "part-timers", i.e. those who work, *on the average*, shorter weekly hours than full-timers.

It may be asked why people working as much as full-timers are still classified as part-timers. In efforts to rationalise management and to minimise labour costs, especially after the energy crisis of 1973-74, an increasing number of people have been hired as part-timers. Although, as is well known, Japanese workers generally enjoy "life-time" employment in which they are guaranteed jobs until the mandatory retirement age, there still exists a vulnerable category of employees, the part-timers, who form a supplementary labour force that can be advantageously hired and fired by employers to cope with economic fluctuations.

The disadvantages suffered by part-time workers are largely due to the fact that they are often not covered by collective agreements. This was the case in 1979, for example, in 82.8 per cent of hotels and 69.5 per cent of restaurants covered by Survey B, although the figures for Survey B establishments in other sectors are just as high or even higher. The absence of collective agreements also has adverse effects on other working conditions of this group, as will be seen below.

Survey A reports that 58.2 per cent of workers employed in the restaurant sector were part-timers, the figure being 28.0 per cent for the hotel sector. In June 1979 part-timers (both sexes) earned an average of 76,550 and 70,250 yen in the restaurant and hotel sectors respectively as opposed to 135,150 and 136,500 yen earned by full-timers. Considering that 66 and 86 per cent of part-timers [13] in the restaurant and hotel sectors respectively are women, it is clear that a large majority of women workers are poorly paid.

Bonuses

Bonuses, which are usually paid in summer and winter, account for a considerable chunk of the full-timer's annual income. They are a remnant of the time when young apprentices away from home used to receive room and board at the master's home while working and learning the trade without cash payment. As a reward for loyalty and diligence they would receive a small sum of money to cover the round-trip train ticket to visit their parents and families in summer and around New Year's Day and an additional amount to pay for some gifts and souvenirs to take home. This custom of a twice-yearly payment has been carried over to modern days as a bonus.

Its amount and the frequency of payment vary from one establishment to another; however, the generally accepted practice is that the full-time worker is paid twice a year, with the total annual amount equivalent to monthly remuneration multiplied by five.[14] The payment of bonuses is not mandatory; it is provided for in collective agreements, where they exist, or is payable at the discretion of the employer with the business results taken into account. Yet, because it is a big portion of a full-timer's annual income, all such workers are greatly concerned with the amount they may receive as bonus each year. For example, Survey C on income for the year 1980-81 indicates that at two large unionised hotel establishments workers received bonuses amounting to around 30 per cent of their total annual income.

With regard to part-timers covered by the survey, some establishments do not indicate whether or not they award bonuses; however, a majority of part-timers appear to be paid some amount at least once a year. What percentage of their annual income is paid as bonus is not clear, however.

Similarly, although information on the amount is missing, Survey B indicates that virtually all establishments in the HRC sector paid some bonus at least once–twice in most cases–to full-timers. In respect of part-timers, however, 29.2 per cent of restaurants and similar establishments and 50.1 per cent of hotels did not grant any at all. Even at places where it was awarded, the amount was calculated at a different, generally much lower, rate than for full-timers. A great gap between the total annual income of the full-timer and that of the part-timer is thus often created by the lack of bonus in the latter's annual income. Employing part-timers and not having to pay them the pro rata amount of bonus for the hours they work means a substantial saving of labour cost for the employer.

Weekly hours of work

As shown in table 2, both men and women full-timers in the restaurant and hotel sectors work much longer hours than their counterparts in large retail stores and travel agencies; in fact, their hours exceed the maximum for normal work (48) prescribed by the Labour Standards Law beyond which the overtime supplement of at least 25 per cent is payable. Admittedly, men part-timers in these sectors work shorter hours than their full-time colleagues, but they still work nearly as many as the full-timers do in the other two sectors. When the hourly rates are compared, it is evident that both men and women full-timers in the sectors in question are paid extremely low wages in comparison with those employed in the others. The table also shows how women full-timers in all the sectors concerned are underpaid in comparison with men. What is more, part-timers are inadequately paid relative to the value of their contribution.

The rate per hour in table 2 is derived from basic monthly remuneration, but if the bonus had been included in its calculation the results would have been much more unfavourable to part-time workers since, as pointed out

Table 2. Average incomes, weekly hours of work and hourly rates for full-time and part-time workers by sex, selected sectors, June 1979

Item	Category of workers	Sector			
		Large retail stores	Travel agencies	Hotels	Restaurants
Average income ('000 yen) (A)	Full-time men (1)	210.7	188.2	164.1	163.2
	Full-time women (2)	113.3	123.0	108.9	107.1
	Part-time men [1] (3)	–	–	75.1	96.85
	Part-time women [1] (4)	56.8	–	65.4	56.25
Average weekly hours of work (B)	(1)	42.6	42.5	49.0	50.7
	(2)	41.8	43.6	48.4	48.9
	(3) [1]	–	–	41.5	39.35
	(4) [1]	30.0	–	33.6	30.45
Rate per hour [2] (yen) (C)	(1)	1 237	1 107	837	805
	(2)	678	705	563	548
	(3) [1]	–	–	452	615
	(4) [1]	473	–	487	462

[1] Including *arubaito* but not day labourers. [2] $(C) = \frac{(A)}{(B)\times 4.}$

The figures under (C) obviously do not represent the accurate hourly rate of wage because there are a little more than four weeks in June and (A) does not include the overtime payments for hours worked beyond 48 per week. Therefore, (C) should be looked at as rough estimates of hourly wages for different categories of workers in the selected sectors.

Source: Compiled by the author from Survey A data.

earlier, many of them do not receive bonuses, and even those who do get much less than full-timers.

What then is the situation in smaller establishments? According to Survey B the average weekly hours of work for men and women full-timers in the restaurant sector were 48.05–the longest in any of the wholesale and retail sectors covered in the survey–and 51.33 in the hotel sector, the longest in any sector at all. This is, however, totally unreflected in their earnings.

As for part-timers, the survey reports that 55 per cent of employees in the restaurant sector worked more than six hours a day, while 16.9 per cent worked more than eight hours. Nearly half of all part-timers in the hotel sector worked more than six hours a day, while nearly a quarter worked more than eight hours. In both sectors well over 40 per cent of part-timers worked as many as six days per week. Thus many part-time workers in the HRC sector work long hours–in some cases long enough to be classified as full-timers in other sectors–for relatively low wages.

Night work

Although section 62 of the Labour Standards Law [15] generally prohibits night work by women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. subsection 4 of section 62

Table 3. Hotel and restaurant workers doing night work, by sex, 1979 (%)

Sector	Full-time		Part-time	
	M	F	M	F
Hotels	26.8	8.5	21.1	9.0
Restaurants	21.6	13.0	14.9	2.0

Source: Survey A.

exempts some sectors, including the HRC sector, from its application, provided that the work is not injurious to the health and welfare of women. Thus the employer can lawfully retain them on duty even beyond 10 p.m. Table 3 shows the percentages of those who had done night work at some time during the period covered by Survey A. As can be seen, the proportion was substantial, particularly among full-time workers and part-time hotel workers, and many women had worked at night. The number of hours of night work averaged 9.6 for men and 5.7 for women full-time workers in the restaurant sector and 12.5 for men and 5.5 for women in the hotel sector.

Weekly rest

Section 35 of the Labour Standards Law prescribes that the employer shall allow the worker at least one rest day per week. In recent years pressure has been mounting on the Government to gradually institute a two-day rest per week. Although the workers have been the most active in this respect, some employers and labour economists find it a convenient solution during economic slow-downs when there is not enough work available for every worker for 48 hours a week. If the weekly rest is extended, Japanese workers may finally be able to enjoy the kind of leisure which has been taken for granted by workers in other industrialised nations. Some industries are already taking action under the impetus of the Government, but there is no way of knowing how long it will be before a two-day weekly rest period becomes the common practice throughout Japan.

Table 4 shows the 1979 position in large retail stores, travel agencies, hotels and restaurants, as far as full-time workers were concerned. The situation among part-timers was not much different: only very small percentages of employees, approximately 9.6 per cent of restaurant workers and 0.5 per cent in the hotel sector, enjoyed a two-day rest per week. Thus, as regards the length of weekly rest, as in other respects, those employed in the HRC sector are at a disadvantage in comparison with their counterparts in large retail stores and travel agencies. Furthermore, when the results of Survey A and Survey B are compared regarding entitlement to weekly rest, it seems obvious that those employed in smaller establishments are worse off

Table 4. Weekly rest of full-time workers in selected sectors, 1979 (%)

Sector	A	B	C	D	E
Large retail stores	12.5	4.9	22.2	46.2	14.2
Travel agencies	27.7	10.3	5.5	41.8	14.7
Hotels					
All sizes	49.4	6.5	0.3	10.4	33.4
Small-scale	94.2	1.5	0.0	0.0	4.3
Restaurants					
All sizes	37.2	7.0	5.3	21.3	29.2
Small-scale	90.0	0.0	0.0	7.0	3.0

A: 1 day per week. B: 1½ days per week. C: 2 days per week. D: 2 days once a month or more. E: Other arrangements and unascertained.
Sources: Survey A and Survey B.

than those in bigger ones. This is borne out as well by the information provided by Survey C, indicating that a majority of workers in the unionised HRC sector (mainly larger establishments) covered in the survey enjoyed a two-day rest every other week.

Paid annual leave

As regards annual holiday with pay, section 39 of the Labour Standards Law provides that the employer shall grant six working days to workers who have been employed continuously for a year and were present for more than 80 per cent of working days. Subsection 2 provides that the employer shall increase the holiday by one working day per year of continuous service from the second year on; however, the employer does not have to grant holiday in excess of 20 days.

Survey A reports that 14.1 per cent of full-timers in the restaurant sector and 15.1 per cent in the hotel sector were not awarded any paid holiday, as compared with 2.5 per cent of employees in large retail stores and 4.3 per cent in travel agencies. This does not necessarily indicate a violation of the Law on the part of the employer; those workers might simply have been employed for less than a year, in which case the provision would not have been applied. However, because the provisions set in the Law are the minimum standards, the actual working conditions may be better than those prescribed by law. For example, the employer may award a pro rata holiday with pay to those with even less than one year of service. That few small-scale establishments availed themselves of this possibility may be seen from Survey B, which reports that 90.5 per cent of restaurants and similar establishments and 86.9 per cent of hotels did not grant any paid holiday to workers with less than a year of service. The average figure of establishments granting no paid

holiday was 69.7 per cent in the wholesale and retail industries and 65.3 per cent in the service industries.

The average length of paid vacation for full-timers with at least one year of employment in the restaurant or the hotel sector (6.2 days for both) is comparable to averages for other sectors covered in Survey B, which range from 6.1 to 8.0 days. The same goes for those with five, ten, and 15 years of continuous employment with the same employer.

As far as part-timers are concerned, Survey A indicates that while 62.1 per cent of those employed in large retail stores were entitled to paid holiday, though its length is not indicated, only 8.0 per cent [16] in the restaurant sector and 7.6 per cent in the hotel sector enjoyed such a privilege. As for those who replied that they were not entitled to any paid holiday, the figure was 18.6 per cent among those employed in retail stores while they amounted to 60.5 per cent and 70.8 per cent in the restaurant and hotel sectors respectively. In comparison with those employed in large retail stores, part-timers in the restaurant and hotel sectors are poorly treated in this respect–in fact almost exploited–because of their vulnerable status.

Fringe benefits

Because there are no provisions in the Labour Standards Law regarding fringe benefits such as attendance bonuses, family allowance, transportation allowance, meal allowance and housing allowance, whether the worker is awarded any of these depends solely on the content of the collective agreement, where one exists, or is subject to negotiation between the employer and the individual worker.

Table 5 indicates the percentages of Survey B establishments [17] granting various types of fringe benefits to full-timers. With the exception of attendance bonuses, fringe benefits were found to be granted by a higher percentage of establishments in all other sectors.

As regards part-timers, 50.3 per cent of restaurants–and as many as 74.2 per cent of hotels–were found not to grant any allowance. However, high percentages of part-time workers in other sectors were just as badly off.

As for the unionised establishments in the HRC sector covered in Survey C, all of them are reported to have awarded family allowances ranging from 8,000 to 13,000 yen per month for the spouse and from 2,000 to 9,000 yen per child per month, though some limit the number of dependants that employees can claim. In addition, housing allowances are granted by all the HRC establishments in the survey, with the amount ranging from 6,000 to 20,000 yen per month depending on the area of residence and on whether or not rent is paid. Likewise, all the hotel establishments covered in the survey have dormitories, mostly for single employees, with a great portion of the rent being subsidised by the company. However, Survey C does not provide information as to what value the average dormitory quarter has in the housing market.

Table 5. Small-scale HRC establishments granting fringe benefits to full-time workers, 1979
(%)

Benefit	Hotels	Restaurants
Attendance bonus	48.8	69.1
Family allowance	32.0	35.6
Transportation allowance	59.0	64.3
Housing allowance	20.4	25.6

Source: Survey B.

When it comes to meal allowances, however, at least half of the Survey C hotel and catering establishments do not seem to grant any. Even among those that do, the amount ranges from 1,000 to 5,000 yen per month, which is negligible. Considering what the unionised full-timers are granted as allowances, it is safe to assume that the part-timers in the same establishments receive little or nothing in the way of family housing and meal allowances.

Pension funds

Survey B [18] shows that while 52.7 per cent of small-scale restaurants and similar establishments had for their full-timers retirement funds of various types, 96 per cent of which granted a lump-sum retirement allowance, the rest of them offered no lump-sum allowance or any pension plan. On the other hand, 68.0 per cent of the hotel establishments are reported to have had schemes of one kind or another; 95.7 per cent of these schemes granted a lump sum on retirement. Among the 17 sectors covered in the survey, the restaurant sector had the lowest percentage of schemes while the percentage for the hotel sector was the fourth lowest.

Different kinds of pension plans are available to workers depending on the size of the establishment in which they are employed or on the kind of mutual benefit association to which it subscribes. In general, however, if a worker is employed in an establishment with at least five regular employees, he must automatically be included in the Employees' Pension Insurance Scheme, the monthly premium of which is computed on the basis of income. Under this scheme half of the monthly premium, or even more than that in some establishments where unions are very effective at the bargaining table, is borne by the employer. On the other hand, a worker employed in an establishment with fewer than five employees must participate in the National Pension Scheme, the premium being borne totally by the insured.

However, when these two schemes are compared from the viewpoint of the long-term benefit that a worker can expect as opposed to the total

amount he has to pay into the scheme, it appears to be much more advantageous, especially for women, to subscribe to the Employees' Pension Insurance Scheme than to the other. One reason is that if a woman is insured with the National Pension Scheme she must wait until the age of 65 to receive the benefit, though it can also begin five years earlier with a lower amount; under the Employees' Pension Insurance Scheme, on the other hand, she can start benefiting at the age of 55.[19]

Although information is not available on pension coverage of part-timers, it is thought that not many of them are included in the Employees' Pension Insurance Scheme even if they happen to be employed for more than a year in large establishments. Bearing in mind their generally less favourable working conditions and their inadequate fringe benefits in comparison with full-timers, it does not require any special effort to infer this because including them in the Employees' Pension Insurance Scheme would mean a greater labour cost to the employer as he is required to finance at least half of the monthly premium.

Concluding remarks

As examined here, the working conditions in the HRC sector as a whole compared with other sectors can be summarised as unsatisfactory or even deplorable. For example, average hours of work are over-long for both men and women and the average income is inadequate, particularly for women. Women in the HRC sector also enjoy less protection as regards night work by comparison with those in many other sectors. As for weekly rest, too, a great majority of HRC workers have only one day, unlike many workers in other sectors who enjoy one-and-a-half or even two days' rest. The group of workers whose conditions are the least favourable is part-timers, most of whom happen to be women. As already indicated, they are, in a majority of cases, compensated only for the hours they have worked, with hardly any allowances and fringe benefits; despite the fact that many of them work long hours for five or even six days a week, they often receive no paid annual holiday or bonus entitlement.

Despite the provisions of the Labour Standards Law on paid leave, many part-timers do not enjoy it even if they have worked continuously for over a year. This is due to the obscurity of the Law regarding its applicability to part-timers, whom it does not mention. However, it is the Labour Ministry's intention that they, too, should be protected by the standards prescribed in the Law. Thus, the extent to which their rights are protected will depend on how vigilant the Labour Standards Inspection Office is.

According to Survey A, despite the inadequate conditions under which most part-timers work, a large portion of them still wish to retain their status. Nearly half of women part-timers work in order to supplement the income earned by the head of the household, and in order to be able to devote more time to their family and household responsibilities. If the terms proposed by

the employer with regard to hours and days of work meet the wishes of part-timers, both sides can benefit from the arrangement, since it cannot be overemphasised that, for most employers in the HRC sector, the complement to their regular labour force represented by the part-time workers is both invaluable and indispensable. Thus, in addition to a decent hourly wage, they should be granted fringe benefits and bonuses pro rata to the amount of work that they do regularly per week, and they should not be the victims of exploitation.

Notes

[1] Leisure Service gyô, Rôdô Jôhô Kaihatsu Centre: *Hotel gyô no genjô to shokadai* (Present conditions in the hotel industry and various matters affecting it) (Tokyo, Oct. 1981), pp. 13-15.

[2] Tokyo to Rôdô Keizai Kyoku: *Service keizaika to chûshô service gyô: Jittai chôsa hôkokusho* (II) (Rationalisation in the service sector and small- and medium-scale service establishments: Survey report on actual conditions) (Tokyo, Mar. 1981), p. 89.

[3] Prime Minister's Office, Statistics Bureau: *Annual Report on the Labour Force Survey, 1980* (Tokyo).

[4] idem: *Jigyô sho tokei chôsa hôkoku, 1978* (Tokyo).

[5] In June 1980 the Labour Ministry estimated the extent of unionisation of hotel workers at about 3 per cent as compared with 30.8 per cent for all sectors.

[6] Labour Minister's Secretariat, Statistical Information Bureau: *Dai sanji sangyô koyô jittai chôsa hôkoku* (Tokyo, Nov. 1980).

[7] idem: *Tokutei sangyô shôkibo kigyô rôdô jôken jittai chôsa hôkoku* (Tokyo, 1979).

[8] Zengoku Shôgyô, Service, Jimushoku, Rôdô Kumiai Renraku Kaigi: *Dai sanji sangyô rôdô jôken chôsa* (Tokyo, 1981).

[9] As tipping is not customary in Japan, the workers are unable to augment their income by this means.

[10] Leisure Service gyô, Rôdô Jôhô Kaihatsu Centre, op. cit., p. 76.

[11] See the recent editions of the *Annual Report on the Labour Force Survey*.

[12] A loan-word taken from German *Arbeiter*; very roughly speaking, designates students and housewives who work to supplement their own or their husbands' incomes.

[13] Including day labourers and *arubaito*.

[14] See Survey C. The generally accepted custom in many establishments is to award full-timers bonuses equivalent to two months' pay in June or July and equivalent to three months' pay in December.

[15] See *Legislative Series* (ILO), 1947–Jap. 3.

[16] Unless otherwise indicated, the figures used for the part-timers in this paper have been the approximate average for part-timers and *arubaito* combined because, as has been explained, there is no clear distinction between them other than the fact that they are both non-full-timers. However, the figures quoted here have disregarded *arubaito*, as they included too large percentages in the category "unascertained" for most sectors covered in Survey A. The balance of the figures quoted here is accounted for by "unascertained".

[17] Survey A contains no information on fringe benefits.

[18] Survey A contains no information on pension funds.

[19] See K. Sakurai and S. Matsumoto: *Part-timer* (Tokyo, Gakushu no Tomo sha, 1981), pp. 88-91.