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Attitude and Consciousness of Japanese Women towards Career Commitment and Continuity: The Role of Personality and Family Support

By

Md. Mohsin-Ul Islam*

Abstract

A survey was conducted on 230 non-working women and working women in Japan to examine the attitude and personalities for career commitment and continuity if family support, in the form of husbands' roles and family role re-definition, is available. The working women are employed in private firms and local government organizations. The ANOVA results suggest that no significant differences in the personalities i.e. personal initiative and zeal are found between working variants irrespective of their marital status. Working women have expressed a strong attitude to keep themselves attached to the labor market and to continue their career, but attitudinal differences in personality are found between non-working women variants. The ANOVA tests also show that family role re-definition is inactive in developing the positive attitude and consciousness for each group of women in this study but the husbands' roles are highly demanded by married working women variants. The regression results suggest that schooling has significant positive effects, particularly for all of the working variants, in developing their attitude and consciousness for their career commitment and continuity. The regression results also show that the parental demand of married working women has a negative effect on working attitude and consciousness but the husbands' roles, in the form of support for career continuity and help in household chores, have a positive effect on developing women's attitude and consciousness for career commitment and continuity.

Key Words

career commitment and continuity, family role re-definition, husbands' role, factors, personality, family support

I. Introduction

The Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Law has already observed its tenth

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anniversary and showing the moderate effect of the EEO Law, the recent studies document that Japanese companies have modified and introduced many Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and practices to accommodate the female labor force during the past ten years but Japanese women's attitude and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity has not yet developed compared to their western counterparts (Lam, 1993; Edwards, 1994) rather Japanese women still adopt traditional patterns of two or three working profiles (JMOL, 1989; Lam, 1992). The typical Japanese women's career pattern is 'M' shaped indicating — entering full-time positions immediately after graduation, quitting the job upon marriage or first birth and finally re-entering the labor market in part-time positions after the children grow up.

The adoption of such types of career profiles by Japanese women is sometimes explained by three causes i.e. *internal role* at home, *external role* at work and *personal interest and initiative* (often used as personality in this study). Compared to men, women's working behavior and labor force attachment are different because of the responsibility to which women attach to family lives. The degree of responsibility of a woman in the family varies according to the life cycle of the woman. In practice, a woman enters family life on the agreement of marriage and she has to perform an internal role at home for household chores. When she enters in a career life, her external role as an additional duty begins and she has to follow corporate rules and practices, and then work-family conflict starts. This work-family conflict becomes severe with the parental demand which begins on the birth of a child.

This is normal phenomena in family lives everywhere but in Japan, where the traditional bound of thinking is that women will play the role of 'good wife and wise mother', this thinking is changing gradually, in family and society whether the woman works or not. This type of family system creates a severe problem for women performing three functions simultaneously. The studies (Lam, 1992, Edwards, 1994) also document that Japanese women themselves are unconscious and ambivalent about their career formation and continuation.

Thus, this study was undertaken to explore what types of family support women desire in developing their attitude towards career commitment and continuity, how far the women are personally interested and motivated towards their career commitment and continuity, how far the attitude and consciousness of women is to be developed for career commitment and continuity if their husbands' supports and the family role re-definitions are available.

Very few studies are available on the attitude and consciousness of Japanese women towards career commitment and continuity. Matsui, et al. (1991) investigated the Japanese clerical women's personality in relation to education, liberal sex role values, instrumentality and expressiveness. Another study by Matsui, et al. (1995) was confined only to married women and investigated women's work-family conflict and stress buffering effect of the husband's role. Thus, these studies showed neither the effects of personality nor the role of the husband and family. But the present study, to my best knowledge, is a pioneer attempt to investigate women's attitude and consciousness for career commitment and continuity covering many aspects: working women of Japanese private and public firms and non-working women were used as the sample for this study, and the combined effects of personality, husbands' roles and the family role re-definition on career commitment and continuity of Japanese women are shown in

this study.

This study includes: literature review for understanding the changing dimensions of working women and the present state of affairs; theoretical framework and hypothesis; methodological aspects; descriptive and empirical findings and, finally, conclusions and recommendations are shown in discussion.

II. Literature Review

Female participation in the paid labor force in contemporary Japan has many features. Sano (1993) has stated that both economic and demographic developments have substantially altered the labor market environment for female employment, and Shimada and Higuchi (1985) have stated that the drastic change in women's participation in the labor force is remarkable in the recorded experience of advanced economies.

II.a. M-shape and U-shape Pattern of Participation

On the basis of statistical evidence, most studies mention that the female labor force participation rate by age-group is characterized by the M-shape curve. This means that the female labor force participation rises after women leave school, declines during the period when they are most likely to give birth to children and to rear them and rises again after child care responsibility has been reduced. In recent years, however, the bottom level of the M-shape curve has been rising and the latter peak of the M-shape curve has also been rising. The proportion of unmarried women in the paid labor force has increased and that of women who continue to work even after marriage has also increased in recent years (Lam, 1992; Edwards, 1994; Ogawa & Clark, 1995).

In the evaluation of women's participation in the overall labor force in Japan from 1960 to 1990, we have found a U-shape pattern falling through the mid 1970s and reaching 46 percent in 1975 before beginning to rise again. The U-shape trend of Japanese women's participation in the overall labor force attributable partly due to the sensational nature of labor force participation behavior in response to short-run economic fluctuations like the two major oil crises in the 1970s. The cyclical changes in the employment of women in Japan underscores the frequently heard claim that Japanese women are marginal workers who are employed in greater numbers during the economic expansion only to be laid-off during the down-turns (Ogawa & Clark, 1995; Mizuno, 1982).

II.b. Women's Employment Pattern

Some studies (Sano, 1987; Parkinson, 1989) have stated that among the stratas of workers in permanent full-time employment, full-time and part-timer employment women, particularly married women have proved an ideal source of low paid workers. Low pay and lack of job security are exchanged for abundant liberty to leave work at any time and they can refuse overtime work, etc. to fit in with their domestic duties. A study (Sano, 1993) also shows that the ratio of part-time workers in the female labor force has been rising and the statistics also show that part-timers' share of total female employees went from 12 percent in 1970 to 19 percent in 1980 to 27.9 percent in 1990

and further to 32.5 percent in 1994.

Most studies state that the employment behavior of women, particularly for domestic responsibilities, leads to them being concentrated in small and medium sized firms; their numbers in large firms is very limited. A recent study by Professor Sano (1995) on the labor force rate in 68 leading big companies in different industrial sectors like food, textiles, railways, airlines, gas, electricity, finance, oil, banking, insurance, construction, etc. has observed that during the period from 1968 to 1994, though a minor increase is found in few sectors, there was a gradual declining trend of female employees in almost all sectors during the periods under review. This situation was unexpected, particularly after the enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Law (EEO law).

II.c. Factors influencing Women's Participation in the Paid Labor Force

There are many factors that lead to an increase in female participation in the labor market. Demand side analysis reveals that the demand for labor has increased in parallel to economic growth, particularly since 1975 when the economy grew mainly in tertiary industries. Tertiary industries have employed a large number of female workers and their operations are suitable for part-time work (Japan Institute of Labor (JIL), 1990; Lam, 1993; Sano, 1993).

On the supply side, it can be explained by changes in women's life cycle, such as lengthening of the average life span, the rise of the marrying age (reflecting a rising level of educational attainment) and the decrease of the birth rate (Osawa, 1987; Edwards 1994). Another reason stated that the desire to enjoy a higher standard of living has become very strong among women (JIL, 1990). However, Shimada & Higuchi (1985) provide a valid empirical document on the participation of women in the labor market by presenting a time-series analysis and a cross-sectional analysis. The overall results of their (Shimada & Higuchi) study show that the household income and wage rate have significant effects on women's participation in the labor force particularly in the 31-54 age group and, moreover, working hours also turned out to be associated positively with the labor force participation of women in general.

The number of women workers with higher education attainments has increased remarkably (Nakata, Y. & Mosk, C., 1987; Osawa, 1987) and a greater proportion of women are selecting business related majors. Also the proportion studying home economics and education is declining (Edwards, 1994). This trend has brought a change in the educational background of workers. This type of increase in the number of workers with high educational attainment means a long-term labor force of good quality with a strong will to work and a high degree of ability (Edwards, 1994; Ogawa & Clark, 1995). There are both direct and indirect returns from women's education though the direct returns from the human capital investment remains elusive because of traditional employment practices and pay determination in the Japanese labor market (Shimada & Higuchi, 1985; Parkinson, 1989; Lam, 1996). However, Osawa (1988) shows that indirect returns generate through the marriage market and subsequent investment in children's education by educated mothers.

Decline in the fertility rate is difficult to determine since the decision to have children is the result of cultural and economic factors. One can say that the accelerated decline in fertility is consistent with the view that women have increased participation in the labor market. The empirical evidence suggests that the decision to have children

is influenced by the women's time-cost, changing life styles and the labor force participation pattern of women in the Japanese labor market. In the 1960s very few women stayed in the labor force after marriage or childbirth. However, this pattern has been gradually changing and recently an increasing number of Japanese women began to re-enter the labor market after having children. Correspondingly, the spacing and timing of births for Japanese women has been changing. Women are now marrying later and having their final pregnancy at a younger age; in other words, the child bearing period is being compressed, freeing up more time for career related activities (Osawa, 1988). However, the proportion of married women working outside has been increasing and Osawa's (1988) time series analysis shows that the time-cost has significant effect on women's labor market participation which in turn leads to a decline in the fertility rate. Parallel to increased education and the decline in the fertility rate among women, the average job duration has apparently grown (Ogawa & Clark, 1995). The Ministry of Labor reports that the mean value of tenure among female workers was 5.6 years in 1971 but grew to 7.3 years in 1990 and to 7.6 years in 1994.

II.d. Women's Career Aspirations and Expectations

Traditionally, women's working habits are controlled by their family as well as society. They have to spend a portion of their lifetime in childbearing and childrearing. Japanese women are no exceptions to this universal law. Moreover, they have to do household work since there is a clear-cut demarcation in the division of household work between men and women in Japanese families. Parkinson (1989) illustrates that another insoluble problem for women is taking care of aged members of family a responsibility which is invariably assigned to women.

II.d.1. Women's traditional role vis-à-vis HRM practices in Japanese companies

The dual roles of women at home and in the workplace influences women's labor force participation behavior. Thus, Edwards (1988) argues that the characteristics of Japanese employment practices and family relations make it difficult for Japanese women to take up the same employment opportunities as men. The majority of women can not enter into the framework of traditional HRM norms which are followed by lifelong commitment and the *nenko* (age and year of service) based appraisal system. Therefore, they have to shelter in a non-regular pattern of jobs like part-time and contract work. Women employed as part-timers and contract workers increased from 26 percent in 1981 to 36 percent in 1990 whereas men in the same group increased from 6 percent to 8 percent over the same period (Somucho, 1990). Moreover, women, particularly women with children, try to avoid jobs need extensive job training, geographical relocations, job rotation (probably with low pay and low status) to make work compatible with their family life. This type of avoidance is the greatest constraint for the upward mobility of women (Cannings & Lazonick, 1994).

II.d.2. HRM changed policies and practices

With the introduction of the EEO law in 1986, major changes occurred in Japanese management such as in employee recruitment and selection, modes of advertising (Sugeno, 1987; Cannings & Lazonick, 1994), introduction of career tracking system (*kosubetsu koyo seido*) (WVI, 1990; Women's Bureau, 1990; Lam, 1992), career conver-

sion system (Yashiro, 1986; Lam, 1992) and equalization of starting pay of new entrants irrespective of sex (Roshi & Jiho, 1987; Edwards, 1994; Ogawa & Clark 1995).

But women's working attitudes and consciousness of career commitment and continuity has not been found to have changed concurrently with the changes in HRM policies and practices. Studies by the Prime Minister's Office before and after the implementation of the EEO law in 1979, 1983 and 1989 show a declining trend of women's intentions to continue their careers. The studies also reveal that the preference of adopting two phases of work profile, i.e. stopping work when they have families and re-entering the labor market when their children have grown up, rose from 39 percent in 1979 to 55 percent in 1983 and up to 64 percent in 1989.

Lam (1992) made interesting observations of Seibu's experience regarding women's attitudes relating to career development. She conducted surveys in the Seibu Department Store in 1984 and 1988 to investigate women's positions before and after the implementation of the EEO Law covering the three major areas of job preferences, their aspirations and expectations for upward mobility and finally their intention to pursue a continuous career.

The study reveals that majority of women showed no particular job preference and management jobs were at the bottom of women's preferences. There was no evidence that women's aspirations for promotion increased though it was hypothesized that the aspirations and expectations of women with higher education would increase more than less educated women. However, the result was rather disappointing as they prefer to stay in the same position and their desire for promotion to higher positions declined to two percentage points whereas the majority of men exhibited an increased expectation both in 1984 and 1988. Regarding the continuity of career, a comparison of the survey results in 1988 with that of 1984 shows that the proportion of women wishing to pursue a continuous career has declined over time and an increasing number of women would prefer to adopt a compromise of two phases of work i.e. resign from a job for domestic purposes and re-enter at a later stage of the working life.

The author (1995) made an extensive literature survey of Japanese women's paid work — its dimensions and present situations covering the areas of women's employment, wages, human resources management (HRM) and women's career attitudes under present conditions. The study reveals that women are concentrated in medium and small types of businesses as temporary workers on low pay, probably with weak career plans resulting from the assumption of family responsibilities. The study also states that HRM practices are changing since the enactment of the EEO Law in 1986 but women employee's attitudes are still passive as regards career commitment and continuity.

III. Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis

Under the Japanese employment system, organizational commitment and career continuity are vital for the career development of employees. Thus, in this study, career commitment and continuity means that career commitment i.e. begins a career in an organization and continues the same without any interruption. The theoretical frame and hypotheses have been developed based on the views and suggestions of different studies relating to women's personal initiative and attitude, the family and

social role of women in Japan, the husband's role and the re-defining of family roles.

III.a. The Personal Initiative and Zeal of Japanese Women

Usually, from childhood a girl is taught by family and society that she will assume family responsibility on marrying. In practice, this assumption leads women to have a shorter and disrupted working profile which, ultimately, affects their return to the workplace (Blue, F.D. & Ferber, M.A., 1991). The lack of career planning of women is a hindrance to women's career commitment and continuity. In practice, Japan's family and social system always affects Japanese women's career profile. Iwao (1993) states that compared to western women, Japanese women are less career goal-oriented because of family responsibilities. In an international attitudinal survey by the Japanese Prime Minister's Office in 1987, 36.6 percent of women still believe that women's sphere is the home. In another study, Lam (1992) found that the majority of women showed no particular job preference, they wanted to stay in the same position and they still want to adopt two or three working profiles, i.e. entering full-time positions immediately after graduation, quitting the job upon marriage or first birth and finally re-entering the labor market in part-time positions after the children grow up. But, now a days, women should realize that their participation in terms of career commitment and continuity is desired by the workplace. A study by the Japanese Ministry of Labor (1990) states that Japanese companies demand *personal initiatives and willingness* from women, such as a sense of responsibility, adoption of job rotation, attachment to the work force, etc. However, there may be large variations of attitude towards career commitment and continuity among women depending on their obligations and self-perceptions. Thus, Matsui, et al. (1991) state that career consciousness may differ between career-oriented women and home-oriented women, women doing jobs traditionally done by men and women doing jobs generally regarded as women's work. But, in recent years, a large number of Japanese women are entering into higher education. Thus, it can be expected that their attitude and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity may be developed. In the Matsui, et al. (1991) study, they found a positive correlation between education and women's career commitment. Moreover, working helps women to familiarize themselves with the HRM policies and practices of the work place and thus, working women may have stronger personalities than non-working women. The Japanese social and family system is one of the major determinants for women's career commitment and continuity.

III.b. The Effect of the Japanese Family and Social System on Women's Career

Unlike men, career women are expected to perform dual roles at home and at work. This family responsibility is sometimes cited as a big hindrance to women's career commitment and continuity (Kelly & Guy, 1991; Wentling, 1992). Sacrifice, tradeoff and compromise are the ways to successfully coordinate a woman's working life with her family life. Women either sacrifice their personal lives to have successful careers or sacrifice their careers for their family lives (Hellwig, 1991). Theoretical studies (Greenhaus, 1970; Sedney & Turner, 1975; Steward & Winter, 1974) state that women's career commitment and continuity basically involves an alternative decision such as choosing either home making or career priority or both i.e. choosing home making along with career attachment and then selecting an occupation. Japanese women's career profiles are quite different from their western counterparts. The

stereo-typical pattern of Japanese women involves entering a full-time position at the initial stage of their careers immediately after graduation; quitting the job on marriage and/or the birth of a child and re-entering in a part-time position at a later stage of life after a long interruption. Thus, Matsui, et al. (1991) and Iwao (1993) state that for better understanding of Japanese women's careers, explanation of Japanese culture and its traditional social and family system are very important.

The adoption of such stereo-typed women's career profiles is largely explained by Confucian social norms which dictate that a woman's primary role in Japanese society and family is as a wife and a mother. Compared to other developed nations, Japanese women of all ages either working or not, normally admit that family and home life is 'the centrality of their identity'. Family and home life is also viewed as 'warmth and comfort' while outside is treated as 'cold and often indifferent' (Iwao, 1993).

Generally, marriage is viewed as a joint venture between husbands and wives who will co-operate in raising their family. In Japan, husbands are traditionally treated as sole breadwinners and women are treated as sole homemakers. Thus, the traditional pattern of the Japanese family system still believes that the wife alone will do all household chores and take care of children and the husband alone will work for an income outside. Thus, if women devote themselves to outside work, they cannot make their appropriate contributions to their joint venture i.e. the family.

Another important responsibility for women, beside their household chores, is to educate and train their children to work independently and to make them fit into Japanese social environments. As a normal practice, children pre-school particularly, are accustomed to learning everything from their mothers. It would be hard to make this interplay with children if a mother started working outside suddenly or were absent from home (Iwao, 1993). Thus, such demands on parents which include the necessity of mothers to build up their children's morale and independence, create a severe problem for women working outside. Thus, the demands of children on their parents are expected to have a significant effect on women's attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity.

III.c. Husband's Role and Family Role Re-definition

In an empirical study, Cohen and Wills (1985) have identified social supports, emotional supports and instrumental supports as necessary for career development. Emotional supports indicate one's recognition and acceptance by important persons and instrumental supports mean the necessity of significant other services. A husband may provide emotional and social support by allowing his wife to work outside. A husband can also provide instrumental support by helping his wife with housework and their children's education. Since Japanese women are encumbered with household chores and childcare, a *husband's role* as an emotional and instrumental support possibly determines their career attitude and consciousness.

According to Hall's (1972) study, among these three types of strategies: structural role re-definitions, personal role re-definition and reactive role re-definition. It is the structural role re-definition that can play an important role in the development of women's attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity by moderating conflicts between work-related activities and family-related chores. The structural role re-definition means altering one's traditional or structurally imposed roles to other roles. Working women can arrange the structural role re-definition in

two ways: work role redefinition and family role re-definition. Work role re-definition can be done by requesting supervisors to change the content and timing of a job but this is sometimes impracticable. Thus, *family role re-definition* for example, women's work outside as a way to finance their family, household chores partially done by family members, household work helped by a maid, etc. may play an effective role in expanding the attitude and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity among Japanese women. Iwao (1993) states that a woman commuting to work can not be sustained without help from her husband, friends, parents and family members. Thus, the family role re-definition is expected to be an effective way of forming positive attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity among Japanese women.

III.d. Hypotheses

By overviewing the above theoretical aspects and women's practical roles at home, work and demands on parenthood, the following hypotheses have been developed on the attitude and consciousness for career commitment and continuity of different types of women:

Groups of women	Expected roles of women	<i>Attitude and consciousness</i> towards career commitment and continuity of Japanese women is expected to be under		
		<i>Personality</i>	<i>Husband's role</i>	<i>Family role re-definition</i>
a. Working and Non-working	internal role at home & external role at work	(higher level)* Ha₁ significantly different	(higher level) Ha₂ significantly different	(higher level) Ha₃ significantly different
	internal role at home	(lower level)*	(lower level)	(lower level)
b. Married working and Unmarried working	internal role at home & external role at work	(lower level) Hb₁ significantly different	(higher level) Hb₂ significantly different	(higher level) Hb₃ not significantly different
	external role at work	(higher level)	(lower level)	(higher level)
c. Married working and Married non-working	internal role at home & external role at work	(higher level) Hc₁ significantly different	(higher level) Hc₂ significantly different	(higher level) Hc₃ significantly different
	internal role at home	(lower level)	(lower level)	(lower level)
d. Working with children and Working without children	internal role at home, external role at work & parental demand	(lower level) Hd₁ significantly different	(higher level) Hd₂ not significantly different	(higher level) Hd₃ not significantly different
	internal role at home & external role at work	(higher level)	(higher level)	(higher level)

Note: * indicates higher level and lower level of commitment for career continuity.

IV. Research Methodology

The research methodology of this study comprises a research framework explain-

ing the variables used for evaluation of the attitudes of respondents, methods of collecting data, scale used, sources of data and finally the statistical tools and techniques used for analyzing and interpreting and testing the hypotheses.

IV.a. Research Framework

Of course, a number of models of career commitment and continuity have been proposed and many determinants have been suggested in the literature. Considering the objectives and purposes of the study, emphasis has been placed upon the groupings of women and variables which are used to examine the attitudes and consciousness, particularly among Japanese women since it is normally expected that women's attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity differs according to their schooling, position, responsibility at home and at work. Thus, the whole sample of women has been divided into a few groups for detailed and accurate investigation into women's attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity. The definitions of the variables used in this study have been shown in appendix A.

IV.b. Questionnaire and Scale used

A questionnaire survey method was used in this study. The questionnaire was examined and verified by professionals and academics and was pretested before it was put into an actual survey. The questionnaire was divided into two parts: part one was used for information relating to the demographic and career aspirations of the respondents and another part was chalked out to evaluate the personal initiative; zeal, attitude and perceptions of the respondents towards career commitment and continuity in cases where family support in the form of the husband's role and family role re-definition are available.

A 5-point Likert-type scale format was used to measure the respondents' attitudes and perceptions ranging from never accepted (1) to well accepted (5).

IV.c. Sources and Collection of Data

The sample was drawn from two types of people: female employees of private companies and local government office (city office) and non-working Japanese women. Women employees of private companies and those of local government office were questioned on their attitudes and perceptions about their practical working lives and career commitment and continuity and non-working women were included in the sample and questioned on their hopes and aspirations regarding career commitment and continuity within their family lives if some changes were available in roles of the family.

Permission was obtained by writing to human resources managers in each of the participating Japanese private firms, local government office and PTAs (Parent-Teacher Association) through schools' heads by explaining the objectives of the study. After receiving positive replies from participating firms and local government offices and schools, questionnaire packages were randomly distributed to individuals through each organization's internal mail. Each questionnaire had an attached letter explaining the objective and purpose of the survey and assured the respondents of their anonymity and of the confidentiality of responses. They were requested to complete and return the questionnaires sealed in the attached envelope to the human resources managers,

schools' heads, and international exchange division of the city office. Details of the survey are shown in the *Characteristics of Respondents* in appendix B.

IV.d. Statistical Tools

Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean and standard deviation were used for detailed analysis of the variables to predict the attitude and consciousness of the Japanese women and also to examine the demographic, work history and career plans of the respondents.

The principal component factor procedure with varimax rotation was used to identify the underlying construct or factors which explain the correlation among the ten themes. An eigen value greater than 1 was used in determining factor extraction because it is popularly used and is neat and easy to understand in solving the number of factors problem. Factor scores were computed for each of the influencing factors in order to understand the basic dimensions of the interrelation.

From the three methods: Anderson-Rubin, least squares regression and Bartlett are available in 'SPSSX FACTOR', the least square regression method was used in computing the factor scores in the present study. These factor scores were used as dependent variables and four groups of women were used as independent variables in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test to determine the groups' differences. The coefficient *alpha* (cronbach alpha) was calculated as a measure of internal consistency of each group.

A regression analysis was also undertaken for the in-depth analysis which shows the effects of demography on husbands' roles and family re-definition on women's career commitment and continuity. The details of the variables used in the regression analysis have been shown in appendix C. Personal initiative and zeal were measured in terms of some indicators (see appendix A for details) and used as a dependent variable in the regression analysis of all groups of women.

V. Results

The results of this study are explained in terms of descriptive findings and empirical findings. The responses to the question 'will you be more committed to and continue your career if family support is available?' (see appendix A for details), are explained with references to tables and appendices.

V.a. Descriptive Findings

For detailed investigation of each of the variables used in this study, Table 1 has been designed to explain the descriptive statistics. All respondents showed a higher level of attitude (average value is 3 and above) for their career commitment and continuity with lower variations, except a few variables like 'working outside is inconvenient for family', inverse score of 'quitting job as soon as possible' and 'help of maids'. The average highest rating is found for husband's support and husband's help in household work in favor of their career commitment and continuity but the lowest score is found for the help of maids.

The descriptive results also show that attitudes are varied (F-value) by the variable between married and unmarried as well as between working and non-working

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Variables used in ANOVA Test

Variables	All groups	working non-working		married unmarried working		married non-working		working with children		working without children	
		mean (s.d)	mean (s.d)	mean (s.d)	F-value (ANOVA)	mean (s.d)	mean (s.d)	mean (s.d)	F-value	mean (s.d)	F-value
Child		3.27 (0.70)	3.34 (0.69)	3.02 (0.68)	8.68**	3.43 (0.75)	3.25 (0.62)	3.43 (0.75)	11.8***	3.39 (0.72)	0.12
Marriage		3.45 (0.74)	3.46 (0.73)	3.41 (0.73)	0.167	3.51 (0.78)	3.41 (0.68)	3.52 (0.79)	1.08	3.48 (0.78)	1.24
Inconvenient		2.72 (0.93)	2.76 (0.91)	2.54 (1.0)	2.61	2.84 (0.91)	2.69 (0.90)	2.85 (0.91)	8.29**	2.84 (0.90)	0.08
Quit		2.21 (0.83)	2.17 (0.84)	2.33 (0.79)	1.59	2.12 (0.85)	2.21 (0.82)	2.13 (0.86)	2.64	2.18 (0.85)	4.0*
Hard work		3.37 (0.89)	3.46 (0.88)	3.02 (0.88)	9.67**	3.42 (0.96)	3.51 (0.78)	3.44 (0.95)	10.1**	3.41 (0.92)	0.29
Finance		3.58 (0.80)	3.49 (0.80)	3.86 (0.73)	8.31**	3.66 (0.85)	3.32 (0.71)	3.66 (0.85)	2.02	3.75 (0.81)	9.2**
Family member's help		3.04 (1.03)	3.40 (1.0)	3.04 (1.1)	0.002	3.07 (1.1)	3.01 (0.93)	3.07 (1.1)	0.11	3.10 (1.08)	1.67
Maid		2.41 (1.03)	2.41 (1.0)	2.41 (1.0)	0.001	2.48 (1.1)	2.33 (0.94)	2.49 (1.1)	0.07	2.46 (1.16)	0.05
Husband help		4.31 (0.73)	4.33 (0.72)	4.23 (0.76)	0.65	4.40 (0.73)	4.26 (0.71)	4.40 (0.73)	2.35	4.23 (0.69)	0.66
Husband support		4.11 (0.80)	4.13 (0.77)	4.02 (0.90)	0.67	4.21 (0.73)	4.04 (0.82)	4.22 (0.72)	2.51	4.25 (0.70)	0.51

Note: ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05.

women regarding 'working outside to finance family' and 'hard working for career development'. Non-working women have weak attitudes and less consciousness to continue their career 'after the birth of child' than working women.

Attitude and consciousness slightly differed regarding 'working outside to finance family' between married working and unmarried working women as well as between working women with children and working women without children. The attitude and consciousness between married working women and married non-working women was found to be significantly different regarding 'working continuously after birth of a child', 'working outside is inconvenient for family' and 'hard working for career development' whereas a significant difference is only found for 'quitting the job as soon as possible' between working women with children and working women without children.

Table 2 explains that factors like personal initiative, husband's role and family role re-definition are important in expanding the attitude and consciousness for career commitment and continuity among Japanese women. Ten factors under the three types of conditions explain 60.0 percent of the variations and thus, seem to be very helpful in fostering a positive attitude and consciousness for career commitment and continuity among Japanese women.

To examine the weight of each situation, three factors were extracted under the confirmatory factor analysis (Table 2). The loading value of at least 0.40 was used as

Table 2. Results of Factor Analysis (Varimax) for Career Commitment and Continuity of Working and Non-working Women

Personality, Husband's & Family role	Variables	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III	h*
Personalities & career commitment	I will work though I have children	0.77	—	—	0.625
	Marriage is not barrier to a career	0.79	—	—	0.692
	Though working outside is inconvenient for my family, I will work	0.63	—	—	0.484
	Quit work as soon as possible	—0.64	—	—	0.497
	Ready to do hard work for career development	0.53	—	—	0.429
Family role redefinition	Women should work outside to help family finances	—	0.16	—	0.362
	Family members should help in household work	—	0.84	—	0.717
	Help of maid servant in household works is necessary	—	0.85	—	0.748
Husband's role	Husband should help in household work	—	—	0.80	0.726
	Husband should support wife's career continuity	—	—	0.79	0.720
Eigen value		3.30	1.55	1.14	
Percentage		33.0	15.5	11.5	

* Communalities

Note: Figures in bold indicating significant factors

the cut-off point to select the variable under the factors which contribute to respondents' career attitudes and consciousness study. Table 2 also shows that all variables relating to personality were concentrated under factor 1 which has the highest eigen value of 3.30 and these variables explain 33.0 percent out of the total variables relating to career commitment and continuity.

Factor 2 (Table 2) represents the weight of variables relating to family role re-definition for respondents' career commitment and continuity. Family role re-definition occupies the second position which carries an eigen value of 1.55 and explains 15.5 percent of the total variations of respondents' attitudes and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity if family support is available. But, the factor loading for 'working outside to finance family' was below the cut-off point i.e. at least 0.40. The possible reason may be that wives' earnings are not expected in Japanese family system.

Variables relating to husbands' roles have come under factor 3 (Table 2) and show an eigen value of 1.14 and explain 11.5 percent of the total variations of attitudes and consciousness of respondents towards career commitment and continuity.

V.b. Empirical Findings

The empirical results have been explained in terms of bivariate analysis (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis (regression analysis). The ANOVA (variance of analysis) technique has been used to test the attitudinal differences regarding personal initiative and zeal, husbands' roles and family role re-definition according to their responsibility at home and at work. The regression analysis technique has been used to explain the effect of demographic variables and others on the career commitment and continuity of different groups of Japanese women.

Average factor scores (Table 3) reveal that working women have stronger personal initiative for career commitment and continuity than non-working women whereas non-working women demand husbands' roles and family role re-definition in developing their attitude and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity more than working women. The ANOVA tests rejected the hypotheses **Ha₂** and **Ha₃** and showed no significant differences in the attitude and consciousness of working and non-working women regarding husbands' roles and family role re-definition for career commitment and continuity. However, the ANOVA tests accepted the hypothesis **Ha₁** and showed that a higher level of significant statistical difference is found between working and non-working women with regard to personal initiative for their career commitment and continuity (Table 3).

Table 3 shows that married working women have a higher level of career commitment (higher factor score ratings on average) for all three conditions than unmarried working women. The ANOVA tests rejected **Hb₁** and thus, show no significant differences in attitudes towards personal initiative between married working and unmarried working women. However, the ANOVA results accepted **Hb₂** and thus, show a significant difference in attitude towards husbands' roles in favor of career commitment and continuity between married working and unmarried working women. The ANOVA tests also accepted **Hb₃** and show no difference in attitudes towards family role re-definition for their career commitment and continuity between married working and unmarried working women.

Factor mean scores (Table 3) show that married non-working women rated the

Table 3. Alpha Score, Mean Ratings and ANOVA Test

Groups	Conditions					
	Personal initiative (alpha 0.76)		Husband's role (alpha 0.76)		Family role re-definition (alpha 0.47)	
	mean (s.d)	F-value	mean (s.d)	F-value	mean (s.d)	F-value
a. Working Vs. Non-working	0.11(0.99)	10.21**	-0.04(0.98)	0.71	0.003(1.0)	0.005
	-0.38(0.96)		0.01(1.1)		0.01(0.98)	
b. Married working Vs. Unmarried working	0.13(0.99)	0.05	0.12(0.91)	4.39*	0.05(1.1)	0.61
	0.09(0.99)		-0.19(1.0)		-0.07(0.90)	
c. Married working Vs. Married non- working	0.13(0.99)	13.18***	0.13(0.91)	0.045	0.06(1.1)	0.13
	-0.50(0.93)		0.10(1.0)		-0.01(1.1)	
d. Working with child Vs. Working without child	0.03(0.79)	6.44*	0.21(0.85)	5.72*	0.08(1.1)	1.66
	0.79(0.99)		-0.43(0.96)		-0.35(1.1)	

Note: *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$ & * $p < 0.05$

variables for personality and family role re-definition negatively but married working women have a higher level of career commitment (higher and positive factor mean scoring) for all three conditions. Thus, ANOVA tests rejected hypotheses **Hc₁**, **Hc₂** and **Hc₃** of this group and show only a statistically significant higher level of differences in personality and husbands' roles between married working and married non-working women possibly because married working women are accustomed to working rules and the severity of the workplace and, thus, they feel the necessity of their husbands' roles for their career commitment and continuity. This result is similar to the study of Matsui, et al. (1995). But married non-working women possibly are not ready to adopt the customs and practices of the workplace by compromising work with their internal roles at home and, thus, husbands' roles are inactive. Married working women and married non-working women shared similar attitudes towards family role re-definition for their career commitment and continuity (hypothesis **Hc₃**.)

The factor mean scoring (Table 3) also shows that working women with children have a lower level of personality (lower factor score on average) than working women without children. Working women with children have a higher level of career commitment and continuity (higher factor score rating on average) under the husband's role and family role re-definition for their career commitment and continuity than working women without children. The ANOVA tests accepted hypothesis **Hd₁** and show a significant difference in the attitude towards personal initiative for career commitment and continuity between working women with children and working women without children. The ANOVA tests rejected hypothesis **Hd₂** and show a significant

difference with regard to husbands' roles but the hypothesis **Hd₃** accepted and show no significant difference regarding family role re-definition.

The regression analysis was performed on the total sample as well as on all the groups of women used for this study. The personal initiative and zeal (personality) for career commitment and continuity was used as a dependent variable in the regression analysis. The definitions, measures and descriptive statistics of dependent and independent variables are shown in Appendix C.

The regression analysis (Table 4) on the total sample reveals that schooling has a higher significant effect on women's career commitment and continuity. This finding is more consistent with the findings of Matsui, et al. (1991). Marital status has been found to have a positive effect possibly due to women remaining in the work force even after marriage. This result is similar to that of JIL (1990). But, the demands of parenthood have significant negative effects on women's career commitment and continuity.

However, the regression results changed with the grouping of women according to their responsibility at home and in the workplace. Table 4 shows that schooling also has a positive significant effect on career commitment & continuity of married and unmarried women and the demands of parenthood has a negative significant effect on career commitment & continuity of married working women. The regression results also show that schooling has a positive significant effect on career commitment of working women.

The regression results show that schooling has a positive significant effect on career commitment and continuity for both married and unmarried working women but two additional effects are found in the case of married working women — the husband's role is found to have a positive significant effect but demands of parenthood have a negative significant effect on the career commitment and continuity of married working women.

Moreover, married non-working women's attitude and consciousness towards career commitment and continuity is not affected by either of the variables used in this regression analysis.

Regarding women with child variants, the regression analysis (Table 4) shows that the schooling of working women with children has a significant positive effect and reinforces their continuing participation but marital status and husbands' support of working women without children has a positive effect on women's career commitment and continuity possibly because the women without children have no demands of parenthood and a limited internal role at home. The regression results for women without child variant show inconsistent results (for example F-value) possibly because of inadequacy of the sample of this group.

Discussion

The variables used in this study explain sixty percent variations (Table 2) about women's career commitment and continuity under the three conditions of personal initiative, husband's role and family role re-definition. The overall observations of this study suggest that women's attitude and consciousness is found to give a more positive direction for their career commitment and continuity subject to the expected roles of

Table 4. Regression Results on Career Commitment and Continuity
Dependent Variable = Career Commitment and Continuity

Variables	Total	working	non- working	married working	unmarried working	married non- working	working with children	working without children
Constant	-1.796*** (3.490)	-1.968*** (3.532)	-0.1398 (0.104)	-1.847 (1.423)	-2.64** (3.382)	-1.599 (1.890)	-1.431 (1.532)	1.481 (0.723)
SCH	0.139*** (4.186)	0.150*** (4.136)	0.0686 (0.912)	0.1140* (2.176)	0.175** (3.460)	0.077 (0.891)	0.1184* (1.98)	0.029 (0.241)
AGE	0.0019 (0.237)	0.0015 (0.174)	-0.004 (0.104)	-0.007 (0.587)	0.0133 (1.058)	0.003 (0.078)	-0.002 (0.210)	-0.066 (2.052)
MS	0.767* (2.419)	0.803* (2.552)	-1.105* (1.67)	—	—	—	—	1.375* (2.891)
DP	-1.002** (3.131)	-0.819* (2.511)	—	-0.9047** (2.689)	—	—	—	—
HR	0.0269 (0.421)	0.049 (0.658)	0.092 (0.745)	0.2233* (2.002)	-0.0877 (0.884)	-0.069 (0.501)	0.173 (1.397)	0.684* (2.891)
FRD	-0.008 (0.138)	-0.026 (0.382)	0.033 (0.248)	-0.082 (0.940)	0.0300 (0.270)	0.0134 (0.094)	-0.0793 (0.839)	-0.092 (0.403)
R square	12.8	13.5	16.9	19.90	14.69	2.64	8.80	79.0
F-Value	5.49	4.45	1.87	3.56	3.49	0.284	1.85	4.52
N	230	179	51	92	85	46	92	12

Note: ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05. Figures in parentheses are t-values

family support in the form of husband's role and family role re-definition.

An overview of this study reveals that the personality and attitude towards the husband's role and family role re-definition are found to be different between the groups under this study. The empirical findings suggest that the attitudinal differences in personality found between working and non-working women (the ANOVA test Table 3) and stronger personality is found among the working women irrespective of their marital status. Another correlation is that of women's education as the regression results (Table 4) show that the schooling of women has a positive effect on women's career commitment and continuity. In recent years, four year university graduates' labor force participation rates have increased from 8.5 percent in 1975; to 11.7 percent in 1980; to 12.7 percent in 1985; to 14.9 percent in 1990 and further to 22.7 percent in 1995 (for details see appendix D). The ANOVA tests also show that the attitude towards family role re-definition is similar between both of the groups under study and the regression results also show no significant effect of family role re-definition on women's career commitment and continuity. However, the ANOVA tests show that significant attitudinal differences are found regarding husbands' roles between married and unmarried, married working and married non-working, working with children and working without children. Among all the groups, married working women are demanding husbands' to take a role for their career continuity possibly because married women face greater demands of internal roles at home, demands of parenthood and external role in the workplace. The regression results also confirm the ANOVA's results and show that demands of parenthood has a negative effect on women's career commitment and continuity but the husbands' role has a positive effect on women's career continuity. This indicates that working women feel that the husband's role is only helpful in harmonizing the stress arising out of their internal role at home, demands of parenthood and external role at work. This result is similar to the findings of Matsui, et al. (1995).

In practical terms, women's passive attitude and lack of consciousness towards career commitment and continuity can be explained from three points of views. Firstly, the lack of self-consciousness about their career; Japanese women are less career goal oriented (Iwao, 1993; Whitehill, 1992; Lam, 1992); and they are not so alert and concerned as western women about their careers (Lam, 1992; Edwards, 1994). Traditional cultural values always emphasize being a 'good wife and wise mother' (Pharr, 1977). The majority of women are satisfied with a low status in society and always prefer dealing with their family matters and don't feel that they are subordinated. In an international attitude survey by JPMO (1983), 71 percent of Japanese women agreed with the statement that 'men's sphere is at workplace and women's sphere is at home' but the corresponding figures were 34 percent in US, 32 percent in Germany, 26 percent in UK and 14 percent in Sweden.

Secondly, family ties also contribute to forming women's attitudes against work since they have to do household work, take care of children and old parents alone (Edwards, 1988; Parkinson, 1989). The term '*ryosai kenbo*' is a very familiar phrase in Japanese society. In pre-industrial societies, there were two types of family systems in Japan. One of them was based on the ideology of Confucianism which was widespread among the elite group constituting the warrior class (*samurai*) in which family members were subordinated to patriarchal authority. Another family system originated from the village and controlled peasant families; patriarchal authority was not as

strong as in the warrior class, and a co-operative relationship was found among family members (Nakane, 1970). However, women's positions were not affected by the family systems since elite women were historically evaluated for their repeated contributions to their husbands' lines of successions whereas non-elite women, on other hand, were expected to play the role of good wife and mother and work for the well-being of their families (Uno, 1991).

Finally, Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and practices in internal labor markets which are primarily based on *nenko* (seniority) and life time unwritten employment contract. Women are not in the frame of traditional HRM norms. In an attitudinal study of Japanese employees' opposition towards changing employment practices, Morishima's (1992) study showed that among the variables, gender had no significant role in explaining the variations of Japanese employees' opposition towards changing employment practices. As a reason, Professor Morishima states that compared to men, women do not enjoy the full-time employment benefits. In practice, seniority, in terms of age and continuity of service, is paramount in the lifetime employment system as a criteria of allocating rewards and penalties in the internal labor markets. This creates a barrier to the career development of women since leaving the company, even for short while, bears the heavy penalty of loss of all accumulated years of service and re-entry necessitates a fresh appointment. The traditional norms and practices of HRM are described as male-centered policies and practices (Sano, 1977). As women bear the responsibilities of domestic work, childbearing and childrearing responsibilities, it is too hard for them to comply with the requirements of HRM in Japanese Internal Labor Markets (ILMs) (Japan Productivity Center, 1985) and frequent mobility involving geographical relocation causes many practical difficulties for women (Edwards, 1994). Sometimes, it is considered that women have little share in the distribution of rewards and benefits which substantially leads to the growth of women's negative attitude towards career commitment and continuity and accelerates their quitting their jobs earlier (Lam, 1993; Matsui, et al. 1995).

Historically, the attitude and perception of women before the Second World War was centered with the traditional concept of good wife and wise mother but this traditional thinking has undergone a dramatic change with economic progress and modernization. Now, women are receiving higher education, thus their traditional ways of thinking are under pressure to broaden. The international surveys by the Japanese Prime Minister's Office (JPMO) in 1983 and 1987 reveal that women's perceptions have shifted from 71 percent to 36.6 percent about women's sphere at home. The empirical findings of this study also suggest that women have strong personalities and more conscious about their career commitment and continuity. This is being re-enforced by their education.

The present study also suggests that women's attitudes towards career commitment and continuity will take a more positive direction if the husband's support of wives' career continuity and the husband's help with household chores is available. However, Confucian social norms, though still strong, have been changing gradually (Matsui, et al. 1995). Work values and work ethics are changing among younger generations (Takezawa, 1995; Okubayshi, 1996) and more supportive roles are gradually increasing among modern couples because of the recent trend of marriages based on friendships between couples in their mid-twenties (Iwao, 1993). Social values are also under pressure to change in Japanese society. It is also found that now there is a

general trend among the women who are working in companies to postpone marriage, childbirth and, thus, lengthen their tenure of job (Osawa, 1988; Higuchi, 1994b). Thus, it is predicted that the family ties will no longer be a constraint on women's career commitment and continuity.

With the introduction of the EEO law in 1986, many changes are found in Japanese HRM policy directions; for example 'employers' recruitment and selection has become quite open and free of restrictions (Whitehill, 1992). The mode of advertisement has changed and has opened up to both sexes (Sugeno, 1987; Cannings and Lazonick, 1994). Many studies (Sugeno, 1987; Solo, 1989) demonstrate that many firms have started or increased recruitment of female employees who are to be trained as key personnel. An increasing number of major large firms have introduced career tracking systems (*kosubetsu koyo seido*) as a signal of positive response to the EEO Law (WVI, 1990; Women's Bureau, 1990; Lam, 1992). The career tracking system helps to decide an individual's career choice at an early stage of his/her career and selection for entry is solely based on merits and opened to both sexes (Kanto Management Association, 1986; Edwards, 1994).

Equalization of starting pay for the new entrants irrespective of sex is a remarkable change in HRM policy and the pay determination system in the Japanese labor market has undergone change (Roshi and Jiho, 1987; Edwards, 1994; Ogawa and Clark, 1995). Moreover, according to a cluster analysis, Professor Morishima (1996) has found three groups of firms using current HRM systems. Among these three groups of firms, HRM practices are emphasizing performance-based assessment and individualized career development at the same time as establishing job security of regular employees. Thus, it can be predicted that talented women with strong commitment can achieve career success in the near future.

Many companies have already initiated policy formulations following the implementation of the EEO Law and Parental Leave Law. The surveys of Japan Ministry of Labor (JMOL's) in 1990 and in 1993 showed that the parental leave increased from 37.5% in 1990 to 95.1% in 1993 in large firms; from 23.0% in 1990 to 72.2% in 1993 in medium size firms and from 21.3% in 1990 to 45.1% in 1993 in small firms. A survey result showed that women's labor force participation ratios are larger in companies where child care leave is available (Lambert 1994). Companies in the banking sector and department stores have initiated policies and programs for re-entry, subject to conditions. Many companies have also initiated policies for career development of women employees through career conversion and multi-track career systems (Sasajima, 1993; Lam, 1992; Yashiro, 1986; WVI, 1990). Recently, the author (1996) has investigated women's attitudes and consciousness, compared to men, towards career commitment and continuity where companies initiate some of the HRM formulations with regard to work-home harmonization, career development and integrated pay systems. The study suggests that among the expected HRM policies, women's attitudes towards work-home harmonization are found to positively influence their career commitment and continuity. Thus, it can be predicted that women are to be more active for their career commitment and continuity if appropriate HRM policy directions are adopted by companies, keeping closer watch over women's hopes and aspirations, adapting work demands to their home making, childbearing and childrearing and husband's support and help are available. However, this conclusion is based on a single study and more extensive studies may help to make this conclusion with more

confidence.

Women may still justify their disrupted career profiles with reasonable justification like childbearing, childrearing, etc. There are many other factors like legal, social, husband's income level, etc. which also directly or indirectly affect women's attitudes and career consciousness for career commitment and continuity. Thus, new studies are still needed to explore all those issues uncovered and therefore unexplained by this survey. An inherent limitation of studies based on individual surveys is the inadequacy of data; my study is not an exception to this limitation. Thus, the regression results of working women without child variant could not explain the real facts; rather, the results explain some illogical result.

Technological development has expanded the scope of *home working systems* (Sano, 1987) and the expansion of service industries accommodate a large number of female labor force on a *part-time* basis (Sano, 1993). These patterns of accommodating systems for women are the main hindrances to women's career commitment and continuity. This study has revealed that non-working women have no personal initiative and zeal and don't want their husbands to take a role in women's career commitment and continuity. Therefore, it is likely that non-working women variants are influenced by the home working (*naishoku*) system. From the employers' side, similar work can be undertaken by part-time workers at minimal cost, it is also sometimes illustrated that the part-time working is the safety valve of the Japanese economy particularly for the job security of regular employees. The part-time system is also helpful for married women. The survey results of Prime Minister's Office (1989) show that women prefer part-time works because it is 'easiest to combine with household chores and child caring' (68 percent), 'allows for flexible and convenient working hours' (68 percent) and 'involves less responsibility' (23 percent). The married women who have once dropped out of the regular work force, may prefer to have a working situation which co-ordinates their work, family and personal interest at the same time (Iwao, 1993). However, a new study is needed to examine the effects of home working systems and part-time systems on women's career commitment and continuity.

A new study is also necessary to explore the practical question of how far husbands and family members co-operate towards developing attitudes and consciousness towards women's career commitment and continuity.

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Appendix A. Variables or Factors used in Analysing Women's Career Commitment and Continuity

Variables	Definitions
Child	I will work though I have children
Marriage	Marriage is not barrier to a career
Inconvenient	Though working outside is inconvenient for my family, I will work
Quit	Quit work as soon as possible
Hard work	Ready to do hard work for career development
Finance	Women should work outside to help family finances
Family member's help	Family members should help in household work
Maid	Help of maid in household work is necessary
Husband's help	Husband should help in household work
Husband's support	Husband should support wife's career continuity

Appendix B. Characteristics of respondents

(unit: percent)

Subjects	Working	Non-working	Married working	Married non-working	Unmarried working
<u>Marital status</u>					
married	51.7	90.2	100.0	100.0	—
unmarried	48.3	9.8	—	—	100.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<u>Age bracket</u>					
< 21	4.4	4.0	2.4	—	5.9
21 - 25	31.3	4.5	12.2	—	48.2
26 - 30	16.8	11.5	9.8	10.3	23.5
31 - 35	10.2	27.7	13.4	30.7	8.3
36 - 40	12.2	40.9	22.0	46.2	3.5
41 - 45	13.1	11.4	21.9	12.8	4.7
46 - 50	9.6	—	15.9	—	3.5
51+	2.4	—	2.4	—	2.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<u>Schooling (years)</u>					
12 & below	61.0	62.8	71.4	65.2	58.1
14	10.2	19.6	4.4	19.6	9.3
16 & above	28.8	17.6	24.2	15.2	32.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<u>Plan to work</u>					
until marriage	14.0	—	—	—	27.1
until birth of child	12.9	—	1.1	—	24.7
after brought up					
child (note 1)	31.0	40.4	45.7	38.3	12.9
until early retirement	14.6	3.8	19.6	2.2	8.0
until regular retirement	27.5	11.5	26.1	10.6	26.1
no plan to work (note 2)	—	44.2	7.6	48.9	1.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<u>Job preference (note 3)</u>					
A type	34.8	17.3	25.0	12.8	44.1
B type	56.2	30.8	60.9	29.8	51.2
No job preference	9.0	51.9	14.1	57.4	4.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<u>Years intended to work as regular employees</u>					
< 6	40.1	—	23.5	—	58.0
6 - 10	26.6	—	40.0	—	11.9
11 - 15	8.4	—	14.1	—	—
16 - 20	8.2	—	10.6	—	7.9
21 - 25	4.4	—	4.7	—	4.1
26 - 30	4.3	—	4.7	—	3.6
31+	8.0	—	2.4	—	14.5
	100.0		100.0		100.0

Note: (1) For working women, planning to work after children have been brought up indicates that they will stop working for a while and then restart career when children have been brought up; (2) No plan to work means no answer; (3) A-type jobs are characterised by involving complex judgments and decisions, extensive transfer, job rotation and unlimited opportunities for higher promotion and pay are unlimited. B-type jobs are characterised by simple and easy tasks, limited transfer and job rotation and limited opportunities for promotion and pay is limited.

Appendix C. Mean & (s.d) of Variables used in Regression Analysis

Variables	Definitions & measures	All groups	working	Non-working	married working	unmarried working	married non-working	working with children	working without children	
<u>Dependent</u> CCC	Career commitment & continuity, 5 items, 5 point scales, (5 well accepted)	—	0.112 (0.99)	-0.382 (0.96)	0.131 (0.99)	0.09 (0.99)	0.131 (0.99)	-0.50 (0.93)	0.03 (0.79)	0.79 (0.99)
<u>Independent</u> AGE	Age of respondents	32.61 (9.02)	32.21 (10.4)	34.15 (6.0)	36.78 (8.86)	27.73 (8.13)	36.78 (8.86)	35.79 (4.02)	37.79 (8.6)	28.83 (6.77)
SCH	Years of schooling High school & below = 12, Junior college = 14, University = 16, Post-graduate = 18	13.19 (1.93)	13.27 (1.97)	12.94 (1.76)	13.11 (1.93)	13.42 (2.00)	13.11 (1.93)	12.87 (1.67)	12.99 (1.8)	14.67 (2.46)
MS	Marital status, married = 1, others = 0	0.60 (0.49)	0.52 (0.50)	0.90 (0.30)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)
DP	Demands of Parenthood, children have = 1, no children = 0	0.56 (0.50)	0.46 (0.50)	0.90 (0.30)	0.88 (0.32)	—	0.88 (0.32)	1.00 (1.0)	1.00 (1.0)	—
HR	Husband's role, 2 items, 5 point scale, (5 well accepted)	—	0.003 (1.0)	0.014 (0.98)	0.12 (0.91)	-0.19 (1.03)	0.12 (0.91)	0.10 (1.04)	0.21 (0.85)	-0.43 (0.96)
FRD	Family role re-definition, 3 items, 5 point scale, (5 well accepted)	—	-0.036 (0.98)	0.096 (1.06)	0.05 (1.1)	-0.07 (0.90)	0.05 (1.1)	-0.01 (1.0)	0.08 (1.1)	-0.35 (1.1)

Appendix D. Table 1.4 Labor force participation by schooling

(unit: percent)

Years	Junior high school	High school	Junior college	Four year university
	female	female	female	female
1975	9.2	64.0	18.3	8.5
1980	5.2	60.6	22.5	11.7
1985	5.1	57.0	25.1	12.7
1990	2.9	53.7	28.5	14.9
1995	1.5	41.9	33.8	22.7

Source: *Rodoryoku: Chosa* (Labor Force Survey), Statistics Bureau, Management and Coordination Agency. Various years.