

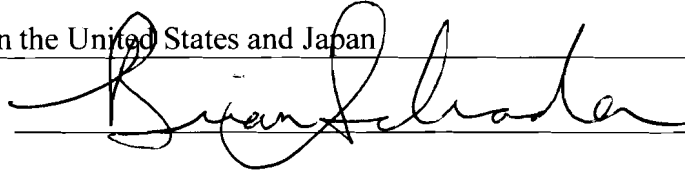
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: The Effects of Gender and Cultural Differences in Career Alignment and Career Satisfaction in the United States and Japan

Abstract approved:



This survey research investigated (a) the effects of gender and cultural differences on the levels of career alignment, (b) the effects of gender and cultural differences on the levels of career satisfaction, and (c) the relationship between career alignment and career satisfaction. Participants were 149 alumni who graduated from a U.S. state university and a Japanese private university. Participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire that measures their levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. Results indicated that only culture has a significant impact on participants' levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. Japanese showed significantly lower levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. Women and men did not show different levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. Also, the result revealed that there is a strong positive relationship between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. Implications, limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

THE EFFECTS OF GENDER AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES
IN CAREER ALIGNMENT AND CAREER SATISFACTION
IN THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN

A Thesis

Presented to

the Department of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

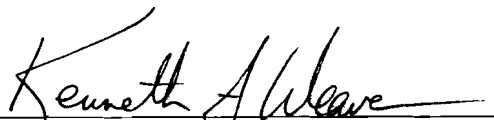
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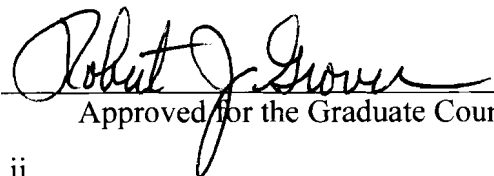
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Thesis
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Approved for the Department of Psychology
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Despite the increasing number of women entering the labor market both in Japan and in the United States, women still have disadvantages in their career development compared to men (Cooper & Lewis, 1999). Many researchers have claimed that women's intellectual potentials are not utilized in their occupational achievements and their career aspirations and that women's choices are generally lower in level than are the aspirations of males with comparable levels of ability (e.g., Cooper, 1999; Gallos, 1989, Stroh, Langlands, & Simpson, 2004). Cooper and Lewis (1999) argued that gender differences are probably the most striking determinants of careers because of the gender-differentiated treatments in the workplace.

A cross-cultural study that investigates the gender differences in career-related outcomes should be called for, because in the context of career development, organizations approach their employees, especially their female employees, differently, depending on their culture (Suzuki, 1994). For example, the United States has invisible and informal gender discrimination problems such as glass ceiling (e.g., Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). On the contrary, Japanese organizations conduct visible and formal gender discrimination treatments such as two-track career systems (e.g., Fujimoto, 2004; Honda-Howard & Homma, 2001). This study examined two career related outcomes: career satisfaction and career alignment.

Career satisfaction is defined as "the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities" (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995, p. 487). Career satisfaction is of

concern not only to individuals, but also to organizations, because employees' personal success contributes to organizational outcomes (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999).

The outcomes of career satisfaction include organizational commitment, job satisfaction, career commitment, longer career tenure (Carson, Carson, Phillips, & Roe, 1996), turnover intentions (Igarria, 1991), and support for organizational change (Gaertner, 1989), which clearly justify the need for further research on career satisfaction. However, past research done on career satisfaction is not sufficient because most research has focused on objective career success, such as salaries, job levels, and advancements (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). These traditional objective success criteria seem to be dated when considering today's lessened job security and changes in career paths due to the increasing number of corporate mergers and downsizing (Powell & Mainiero, 1992).

Another interest examined in this study was career alignment, defined as the status in which an individual's career goals conform to the individual's perceived career paths that an organization plans for him or her. As Gaertner and Nollen (1989) argued, employees' career expectations and their perceptions of the organizations' career practice can be critical in the workplace. Similarly, Arthur, Khapova, and Wilderom (2005) and Cappelli (1999) also argued that it has been increasingly important for organizations to recognize their employees' career expectations.

The current study is a cross-cultural study examining the gender differences in two career-related outcomes, career satisfaction and career alignment, conducted in Japan and in the United States. In this study, I explored: (a) the effects of gender and cultural differences on the levels of career alignment, (b) the effects of gender and cultural

differences on the levels of career satisfaction, and (c) the relationship between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. In sum, the purpose of this study was to gain a more global understanding of career development and its consequences both in Japan and in the United States.

Review of the Literature

Career Alignment

Definition of Career Alignment

One of the purposes of this study was to investigate gender and cultural differences in the levels of career alignment. For this study, career alignment is defined as the status in which an individual's career goals conform to the individual's perceived career paths that an organization plans for him or her. An individual's level of career alignment is determined by the individual's career orientation and the perceived career path with promotion opportunities.

Based on the definition of career alignment, the level of career alignment would be high when: (a) the level of an individual's career orientation is strong and the individual perceives that an organization encourages the individual to pursue the career with promotion opportunities, or (b) the level of an individual's career orientation is weak and the individual perceives that an organization encourages the individual to pursue the career without promotion opportunities. On the contrary, the level of career alignment would be low when: (a) the level of an individual's career orientation is strong and the individual perceives that an organization encourages the individual to pursue the career without promotion opportunities, or (b) the level of an individual's career orientation is

weak and the individual perceives that an organization encourages the individual to pursue the career with promotion opportunities.

In order to explore the levels of career alignment for individuals in the United States and Japan, I will discuss the two determinants of career alignment: career orientation and the perceived career paths with promotion opportunities. Firstly, I will analyze individuals' career orientation from the perspective of gender role socialization. Secondly, I will discuss the perceived career paths with promotion opportunities in the workplace, in terms of typical career paths and litigation systems in the United States and Japan.

Career Orientation

Gender role socialization. This study explored the gender differences in the levels of career alignment both in the United States and Japan. Cooper and Lewis (1999) argued that gender can strongly determine people's careers. In the objective sense, compared to men, women are generally preferred by employers for certain jobs, particularly those with relatively low pay, poor conditions, and fewer opportunities for advancement (Cooper & Lewis, 1999).

However, it is possible that women's relatively poor career success does not directly lead to their low levels of career alignment. For example, even though a woman has opportunities to enter occupations previously dominated by men, these opportunities for advancement are often voluntarily refused because of women's lack of self confidence (Martin, Price, Bies, & Powers, 1987) and of motivation to manage (Eagly, Karau, Miner, & Johnson, 1994). Therefore, women may have lower levels of career orientation than men do.

On the contrary, other researchers claim that, both in Japan and in the United States, women have made remarkable advances, and there are diminishing work-related gender-role attitudes at individual levels (Street, Kimmel, & Kromrey, 1995; Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999). Thus, there may be an increasing number of women who are career oriented.

Some have claimed that the reason for the current under-representation of women in traditionally male dominated occupations is that women with family responsibilities prefer to work in the female-dominated job categories or not work at all (e.g., Cooper & Lewis, 1999). Other researchers argue that it is not because of women's preferences, but because of formal or informal gender discriminations in the workplace (e.g., Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Those who explained the gender-differentiated careers because of gender discrimination focused on the demand side of labor market, representing organizational and institutional constraints. On the contrary, those who explained the gender-differentiated occupational segregation due to women's family responsibilities emphasized the supply side of labor market and the individual factors.

However, it looks almost impossible to explain women's under-representation in the workplace in particular work areas by either the supply side or the demand side of the labor market. There are several researchers who explained that the differences in women and men's careers are due to their different socialization experiences. According to Jacobs (1999), both the demand side and the supply side of the labor market may be determined by socialization because socialization processes shape men and women's work-related choices. In addition, Walker, Tausky, and Oliver (1982) argued that work values are formed through both pre-employment and employment socialization experiences.

According to Astin's (1984) socio-psychological model, gender role socialization experiences shape women and men's career aspiration differently, starting in the early childhood. Women and men's socialization direct them to consider only a particular set of occupational career choices (Astin, 1984). In addition to the socialization experience, opportunity constraints further shape their career expectations (Astin, 1984).

Astin's (1984) model suggests the interrelationship between gender role socialization, gender-differentiated organizational constraints, and career-related outcomes between women and men. Gender roles are emphasized to explain the different gender-differentiated career aspirations. Consistently, past research found that gender role attitudes are related to career orientation both in Japan and in the United States. Levine (1993) revealed that in the United States, married women who have less traditional gender role attitudes are more likely to participate in the labor force. Also, Morinaga, Freize, and Ferligoj's (1993) study, conducted in Japan, found that those who have traditional gender role attitudes are more career oriented.

Hackett and Betz (1981) argued that social expectations and norms, which are transmitted to women and men through socialization, would pose barriers to career choices and achievement behaviors through their effects on self-efficacy cognitions. Hackett and Betz's (1981) study revealed, using American participants, that gender-role socialization influences women's career choices, primarily because it is related to lower self-efficacy. In their study, male college students reported equivalent career-related self-efficacy both in male-dominated and female-dominated occupations, whereas female students reported higher self-efficacy in female-dominated occupations but lower career-related self-efficacy in male-dominated occupations.

Matsui, Ikeda, and Ohnishi (1989) replicated Hackett and Betz's (1981) study, using Japanese students as participants, and revealed the same findings in Japan although there were differences in cultural background and social systems of the two countries. Matsui et al. (1989) identified three sex-typed socialization variables that contribute to women's low self-efficacy in male-dominated occupations: a lack of female role models in male-dominated occupations, personal sex-typed stereotypes, and confidence in mathematics.

Both Hackett and Betz's (1981) and Matsui et al.'s (1989) results showed that socialization forms a certain cognition regarding gender role attitudes, which has an impact on one's career-related roles both in the United States and Japan. Therefore, gender role cognition shaped by socialization processes seems to play a critical role on one's career, including the degree of one's career orientation. However, the research did not answer the critical question: How many women and men are career-oriented in Japan and in the United States?

In the following paragraphs, I will discuss several predictors, which were found to be consistently related to career orientation: instrumentality, managerial or professional occupational experiences, non-traditional marriage and motherhood status, and higher educational level. Also, I will examine the past literature if gender role attitudes and the predictors of career orientation are related to each other. Furthermore, I will analyze the gender roles in Japan and in the United States.

Predictors of career orientation. The term instrumentality refers to the capabilities of self-assertion and competence (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Past research suggested that the higher levels of instrumentality are significantly and positively related

to career orientation and career pursuits both in the United States and Japan (Abrahams, Feldman, & Nash, 1978; Gaddy, Glass, & Arnkoff, 1983). Furthermore, a higher level of instrumentality increases the possibility of career achievement and advancement (Marongiu & Ekehammar, 1999; Wong, Kettlewell, & Sproule, 1985). Metzler-Brennan, Lewis, and Gerrard (1985) found that women who had high levels of instrumentality in their childhood turned out to be career oriented when they became adults.

The second variable, the occupational experience, is also a consistent predictor of career orientation. Past research found that there are positive associations between managerial or professional occupational experiences and career orientation. In Suzuki's (1991) longitudinal study, Japanese women who had professional occupational experiences were more likely to be career-oriented and to pursue their careers than women without professional experiences.

The third predictor represents the marital status or their plans for marriage and children. Tinsley and Faunce (1980) revealed that career-oriented and/or working women are less likely to be married than home-oriented women. The presence and the number of children are also negatively related to the pursuit of a nontraditional occupation (Tinsley & Faunce, 1980). Consistently, being single or having few or no children is the strong predictor of women's success in their careers (Dreyer, Woods, & James, 1981). In Stewart's study (1980), negative relationships were found between marriage and children on the one hand, and career persistence on the other. These findings suggest that the combination of marriage, children, and career pursuits is difficult for women to juggle simultaneously.

The last variable is higher educational levels, which predict the variety of positive outcomes of women's careers. Higher educational level is one of the most striking and solid predictors of career success (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Blaska, 1978). Those who were career-oriented in their young adulthood, later in life had higher aptitude test scores than those who were home-oriented (Tinsley & Faunce, 1978). In addition, women with higher educational levels are more likely to choose pioneer careers, which are male-dominated occupations, rather than traditionally female-dominated careers (Greenfeld, Greiner, & Wood, 1980).

The relationship between predictors of career orientation and gender-role attitudes. Career orientation is one of the two determinants of career alignment. As discussed above, past research has found that there are several consistent predictors of career orientation: instrumentality, managerial or professional experiences, non-traditional adult life factors, and higher educational levels. In addition, importantly, these predictors of career orientation are found to be related to gender-role attitudes as well.

Matsui, Kakuyama, Konishi, Tsuzuki, and Onglatco (1999) examined whether the perceived social pressure and externality moderated the relationship between instrumentality and career orientation, using 295 Japanese college women as participants. Externality refers to the personality characteristic that leads people to believe that major events in their lives are determined by other people or forces beyond themselves (Muchinsky, 2003). In their study, perceived social pressure was defined as "the participants' perceptions of the prevalence of traditional gender-role attitudes among Japanese people" (Matsui et al., 1999, p. 421). This is based on the prevalence of

traditional Confucian Japanese roles, which encourage women to be loyal to their parents and husband.

Matsui et al. (1999) found that the joint effect of perceived gender roles and externality moderate the relationship between instrumentality and career orientation. In addition, the results showed a significant lower relationship between instrumentality and career orientation for Japanese women who are high in both perceived gender-role social pressure and externality than women low in one or both of these variables. The results revealed the importance of gender role perception as well as of externality for women to become career-oriented.

Regarding work experience as a predictor of career orientation, Suzuki (1991) found positive relationships between occupational experience and gender role attitudes in Japan. In her study, liberal gender role attitudes are related to professional experience (Suzuki, 1991). Moreover, adult life factors, marriage and parental status, are associated with gender role attitudes. Dreyer et al. (1981) also found that liberal gender role attitudes toward women's career development are strongly related to the tendency to be single or to be childless, if married (Dreyer et al., 1981).

The final predictor, educational variables, is also related to gender role attitudes. Mason, Czajka, and Arber (1976) investigated changes in American women's gender-role attitudes and variables that predict women's gender-role attitudes. The examples of variables examined in their study include education, employment, husband's education, income, age, the number of children, religion, and region. The results showed higher educational levels and more recent employment experiences are the only variables that are strongly related to women's egalitarian gender role attitudes. The women who

completed college are considerably less supportive of traditional norms and beliefs than are other women, although Mason et al. (1976) did not know the causal processes underlying these relationships.

As discussed before, Astin (1984) emphasized the critical role of the gender-differentiated socialization on individuals' gender-role attitudes, which determine the women's career-related outcomes. Hackett and Betz's (1981) and Matsui et al.'s (1989) studies empirically supported Astin's (1984) model, showing the gender role attitudes, which are shaped by socialization experiences, affect careers through their effects on self-efficacy cognitions. Therefore, the different socialization process can impact different gender-role attitudes towards work.

Furthermore, considering the fact that past research indicated that the predictors of career orientation are related to gender-role attitudes (e.g., Dreyer et al., 1981; Mason et al., 1976; Matsui et al., 1999; Suzuki, 1991), gender role socialization is a potentially essential determinant of an individual's level of career orientation. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, I will discuss gender-role socialization in Japan and in the United States. It is of interest to analyze the cultural differences in the socialization processes because "culture defines gender roles" (Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999, p. 635).

Gender roles in Japanese society. Some researchers argued that Japanese gender-role attitudes are still highly traditional, although Japan has changed dramatically since the end of World War II, regarding the economic, political, and social systems (Morinaga et al., 1993). In Confucianism, a prevalent concept among Japanese society, it is believed that women are able to self-actualize solely by serving their families (Matsui et al., 1999). Therefore, Japanese women are still expected to do most household jobs at home, without

working away from home (Morinaga, Sakata, & Koshi, 1992). However, the traditional gender roles are not always in agreement with individuals' perceptions of their own gender roles. Therefore, when discussing gender roles, it is important to note there may be a gap between gender roles at individual level and gender roles at perceived social level (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b).

The Gender Equality Bureau (2004) in Japan reported that 48.9% of Japanese people disagreed with and 45.2% agreed with the statement that women should work in the household, whereas men should work outside the home. This question clearly aligns with the Japanese traditional work-related gender values based on Confucianism. This survey was a longitudinal study and the results indicated that in 1979, 72.8% agreed and 20.4 % disagreed with the same statement. Also, in 1997, 37.8% agreed with and 57.8% disagreed with this statement, indicating the less sex-typed work-related values among Japanese people.

In Suzuki's (1996) study, more than 25% of working women answered that they wanted to pursue their careers in managerial or professional positions in 1993, disagreeing with the traditional gender-role values. In addition, more than 25% of Japanese working women said that they wished to pursue their careers without quitting their jobs temporarily, even after marrying or having children, suggesting Japanese women's demands of pursuing careers, which were traditionally men's roles (Suzuki, 1996).

At the same time, Japanese male perceptions of gender role attitudes also seem to be changing. Young Japanese men show increasing androgynous work-related gender roles (Suzuki, 1996). Japanese men emphasize more family-roles and less career-related

roles in the workplace and value private time over pay (Suzuki, 1994). Therefore, one can claim that the increasing number of Japanese workers, both men and women, wish to chose careers that do not align with traditional gender roles.

Sugihara and Katsurada (1999) studied the difference in gender role attitudes between women and men using the Japanese version of Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). BSRI is a broadly used instrument in measuring gender role perceptions (Holt & Ellis, 1998). They reported that there were no significant gender differences between self-reported male and female college students in masculinity and femininity.

However, having less sex-typed gender role attitudes does not mean that the individual is free from those stereotypes if there is a gap between gender roles at social levels and individual levels. As discussed before, Matsui et al.'s (1999) study revealed the effects of gender-role social pressure on career-related outcomes. Saso (1990) compared work-related experiences of employees in Japan, Britain, and Ireland. In her study, the traditional work-related values, which appreciate the traditional gender roles that encourage men to work outside home and women to stay home, still prevailed in Japanese workplace. In addition, for a Japanese male employee, having a family was an advantage in developing his career; but a Japanese male employee could be penalized if he did not have a family. On the contrary, Japanese women were penalized for attempting to combine family with career (Saso, 1990).

Katsurada and Sugihara's (1999b) study revealed that both men and women perceived that social norms still expect that masculine and feminine characteristics in the BSRI were more desired for the designated gender. However, their result showed that Japanese men perceive that feminine characteristics are more socially desirable for their

own gender, whereas Japanese women do not feel masculine characteristics are socially desirable for them. They also found that Japanese, in general, have perceived themselves less sex-typed. However, Japanese women perceive more social pressure, which encourages them to be more feminine, whereas Japanese men feel less social pressure to be masculine.

Therefore, Japanese people, especially women, still experience the social pressure (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b; Saso, 1990). However, previous research showed the diminishing gender-role attitudes at individual levels in Japan (e.g., Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b; Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999). Consistent with Sugihara and Katsurada's (1999) study, Japanese work-related values are becoming more liberal (Gender Equality Bureau, 2004; Honda-Howard & Homma, 2001).

Gender roles in U.S. Society. The United States has had a long history of high levels of achievement motivation within its population (McClelland, 1988). For men, this achievement has been expressed mainly through work (Morinaga et al., 1993). In the United States, gender equality has been regarded as an important factor in the workplace and therefore, it is true not only for men, but for women as well, that achievement derives from work, especially in the case of those with less traditional beliefs (McClelland, 1988). Therefore, it is vital for women to have as much access and as many opportunities as men do in the workplace (White, 1987). It is now the norm, or at least it is appropriate for women to work away from home in the United States (Levine, 1993; Morinaga et al., 1993). Therefore, many women continue to work even though they have young children (Morinaga et al., 1993).

Historically however, gender roles have been clearly distinct in the United States and the challenge for women to balance their productive work with their reproductive roles has been ongoing (Powell & Mainiero, 1992; Simeon, Nicholson & Wong, 2001). Some researchers argued that traditional gender role attitudes still exist in the United States at the social level. For example, Street, Kimmel et al. (1995) and Street, Kromrey, and Kimmel (1995) studied differences in the perceptions of self-gender attributes, ideal gender attributes, and gender attributes of most women and men, using university faculty members as participants. Their research found that the entire masculine and feminine items were rated as significantly more desirable for men and women, respectively. This suggests that what is feminine or what is masculine in American society has changed little since BSRI was developed in the 1970s, and both women and men experience the gender-related social pressure, suggesting the same situation in Japan and in the United States.

However, changes have been observed at individual levels, which is how they perceive their own gender roles. Men perceived themselves as masculine, while women saw themselves as androgynous, showing the different changing gender attitudes found in Japan, where research found diminishing gender-role attitudes (Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999), potentially because of the increase of men's femininity (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b). However, both in Japan and in the United States, people's self-perceived gender role attitudes and stereotypical gender roles are different.

Beutell and Brenner (1986) studied sex differences in work values, using 202 undergraduate business students in the United States. They found that some of the significant differences were consistent with stereotypical male and female work values.

For example, women valued comfortable and congenial associates more highly than men did, whereas men emphasized more importance towards income, advancement, working on central organizational problems, and responsibility than women did (Beutell & Brenner, 1986). However, other significant differences were in contrast to such stereotypes. For example, females preferred items such as independence, accomplishment, use of knowledge and skills, use of education, and social contribution, whereas males preferred items related to leisure and security (Beutell & Brenner, 1986). Therefore, their study also suggested that there seems to be a gap between stereotypical gender roles and self-reported gender role attitudes.

Comparing gender roles in Japan and in the United States. Regarding gender roles at social levels, the Japanese traditional culture may be more conservative than the culture of the United States (Matsui et al., 1989). However, both American and Japanese still perceived the gender-related social pressure. At individual levels, stereotypical gender roles have been started to diminish. (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995; Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999).

There are several studies that compare gender role attitudes in the United States and Japan. Simeon et al. (2001) studied workplace gender roles in both Asian countries (Japan and China) and the United States, using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) masculinity scale, a revision of Hofstede's (1980) cultural value scale. Simeon et al. (2001) found that Japanese exhibited a significantly higher tendency to type gender-differentiated work roles than Americans did.

Another research that compared cultural differences in work-related gender roles is Schein's research (1973, 1975). Using the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI), Schein

(1973, 1975) explored the relationship between sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics in the United States in the 1970s. His study revealed that in the United States, both men (1973) and women (1975) who were middle managers perceived men as more likely to hold the characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments that were associated with managerial success.

After Schein's original empirical research, several replications in other countries including Japan (e.g., Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996) have been done, using the same methodology and analyses as the original study. These later replications that employ managers as participants in the United States revealed that the perceived association between men's characteristics and successful managers were held by male managers (Brenner et al., 1989; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989), confirming Schein's (1973) original finding. However, female managers did not sex type the managerial position anymore (Brenner et al., 1989), diverging from Schein's (1975) finding. American female managers perceived women as likely as men to possess characteristics required from successful managers (Brenner et al., 1989).

In 1995, Dodge, Gilroy, and Fenzel (1995) replicated the research using a sample of 113 male and 77 female MBA students in the United States. They found that for males, there was a significant relationship between the scores of men and managers, whereas there was no significant relationship between scores of women and managers. Women showed the opposite result as they contended that managers are being more familiar to female managers than to male managers (Dodge et al., 1995).

Schein et al. (1996) also replicated Schein's (1973, 1975) original research in Japan, using 105 women and 211 men enrolled in business courses at a Japanese

university. Among both men and women, there was a high and significant resemblance between the scores of men and managers, and almost no association between ratings of women and managers. Therefore, Schein (2001) concluded that only American women were less likely to sex-type the managerial positions, and could be no longer influenced by stereotypical thinking. On the contrary, U.S. male, Japanese male and Japanese female MBA students perceived that successful managerial characteristics are more likely to be held by men in general, suggesting the existence of work-related sex typing (Schein, 2001).

Summary. Astin (1984) argued the critical effect of gender-role socialization on one's career-related characteristics, such as career orientation, because socialization shapes one's gender-role cognitions (e.g., Hackett & Betz, 1981; Matsui et al., 1989). In addition, strong and consistent predictors of career orientation (instrumentality, managerial or professional occupational experiences, single or fewer children, and higher educational level) have associations with gender-role attitudes (e.g., Dreyer et al., 1981; Mason et al., 1976; Matsui et al., 1999; Suzuki, 1991). Therefore, one can argue that gender role socialization has an impact on one's career-related behaviors, such as career orientation.

Past research conducted in Japan and the United States has shown diminishing differences in gender role attitudes at individual levels (Katsurada & Sugihara 1999a, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995), which may affect the individuals' career orientation, according to Astin's (1984) model. However, at the social levels, both American and Japanese generally perceive socially desirable characteristics as sex-typed (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999a, 1999b; Street Kimmel et al., 1995).

Regarding the work-related sex typing, replications of Schein's (1973, 1975) study of successful managerial characteristics showed that only American women do not stereotype anymore, while Japanese men, Japanese women, and American men still stereotype successful managers as more likely to be male.

Therefore, one can conclude that (a) people's gender role attitudes have become more egalitarian than before, but (b) people still perceive gender role social pressure, as well as (c) Japanese men, American men, and Japanese women still sex type. The degree to which people sex type and feel social pressure regarding gender roles may be stronger in Japan than the United States due to Confucianism.

Perceived Career paths

For this study, career alignment is defined as the status in which an individual's career goals conform to an individual's perceived career paths that an organization plans for him or her. As mentioned before, career alignment is determined by two factors: the individual's level of career orientation and the perceived career paths with promotion opportunities. Employment socialization may determine an individual's level of career alignment by formally or informally offering the perceived career paths with promotion opportunities to the individual. Both pre-employment socialization experiences and perceived career paths form individuals' career orientation (Astin, 1984).

Gomez-Mejia (1983) found that occupational socialization decreases the gender-differentiated attitudinal gap as a result of an increase in the job involvement orientation of women. Therefore, Gomez-Mejia (1983) claimed that if attitudes toward careers are modified by job experience as a function of occupational experiences, then gender role attitudes towards careers developed during childhood might be less important for

occupational segregation. Therefore, employment socialization has an impact not only on individuals' career orientation that has been shaped by pre-employment socialization, but also on perceived career paths with or without promotion opportunities.

Powell and Mainiero (1992) proclaimed the significance of organizational factors that would encourage individuals to succeed in pursuing their careers. According to Powell and Mainiero (1992), there are four types of organizational factors that have an impact on women's career success: (a) practices that allow women to have alternative work schedules and family supports; (b) initial classification and staffing decisions; (c) employment decisions regarding career path and promotion, and (d) practices of mentoring, networking, and feedback. Similarly, Astin (1984) claimed that organizational constraints that hinder women's career success include: distribution of jobs, sex typing of jobs, gender discrimination, job requirements, economy, and reproductive technology.

Cultural differences in employment socialization. The degree to which gender differences in one's career can vary depends on cultures. For example, Simeon et al. (2001) claimed that gender-role perceptions related to work are strongly affected by cultural background. The reason for this is that gender role perceptions determine management styles, career paths, recruitment, compensation procedures, and decisions (Simeon et al., 2001).

One of the cultural dimensions of Hofstede's (1980) study refers to masculine/feminine society. He argued that masculinity-femininity helps to explain gender differences in work roles across cultures. According to Hofstede (1980), both the United States and Japan are masculine societies, in which sex roles are distinct and gender-differentiated career paths exist, and where fewer women have qualified jobs.

In addition, some researchers argued that causes for gender-differentiated career in organizations are manifested by not only work-related gender role perceptions, but also by societal factors, such as legal requirements, which influence organizational constraints (Powell & Mainiero, 1992). Therefore, in order to examine the differences in careers both in Japan and in the United States, I will discuss the particular characteristics of careers in terms of gender-differentiated career paths as well as litigation systems in both countries.

Career characteristics in Japan. Concerning Japan, there seems to be distinct career paths for women and men, because Japanese society holds the beliefs about the places of men and women in society (Simeon et al., 2001). A key phenomenon at the core of Japanese employment relations is the difference between the core workers, called *sogoshoku*, and the clerical workers, named *ippanshoku* (Fujimoto, 2004; Simeon et al., 2001). Realistically, most of *sogoshoku*, core workers, are men whereas *ippanshoku*, clerical positions, are occupied by women in Japanese organizations (Simeon et al., 2001). Ogasawara (1991) described this phenomenon as the two-track career system, split along gender lines, arguing that this system is one of the most important and distinct characteristics of career patterns of Japan.

As a result of the gender differentiated career track system, work-related characteristics of Japanese men include more responsibility, loyalty, and commitment toward the organization, because they are candidates for executives (Fujimoto, 2004). Although they have started to diminish (Works Institute, 2004), lifetime employment, non-specialized career path, and slow but reliable promotion, certainly differentiate Japanese organizations from other organizations (Ouchi, 1981). As Japanese organizations still require their male employees' strong commitment toward the

organization, Japanese male employees spend much more time on work than on family (Simeon et al., 2001). It is said that these practices and work-related characteristics impose work overload and excessive responsibility to Japanese male workers (Uehata, 1991).

As a result of the Japanese male workers' excessive workload, there has been a social issue called "karoshi" in Japan. Karoshi refers to fatal incidents and is associated with work disability due to occupational stress-related cardiovascular attacks, among male workers (Uehata, 1991). In Uehata's (1991) study, in many cases of karoshi, long working hours were accompanied with occupational stress-related issues, such as career problems, excessive business trips, and strident norms, suggesting distorted amount of work due to gender.

On the contrary, women's jobs are regarded as temporary and they include very limited responsibilities (Fujimoto, 2004; Long, 1986). The work-related characteristics of typical Japanese women are: (a) working as full-time clerical workers after graduating from school, (b) quitting their jobs once married or giving birth, and (c) starting to work again as part-time workers after their children have grown up (Fujimoto, 2004; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1991).

Generally, both female single clerical workers and married female part-time workers occupy lower positions in the organization and get lower pay (Fujimoto, 2004; Matsui et al., 1991). The majority of Japanese women are stuck in repetitious clerical jobs that offer no prospects of advancement, and they have no say on decision making (Tasker, 1987). Japanese women are faced with strong social pressure to discontinue employment once married (Fujimoto, 2004; Matsui et al., 1999), because business firms hire women

not only as workers, but also as potential marriage partners for promising male employees (Fujimoto, 2004). As women's work values change, a greater number of four-year female college graduates are demanding core-staff status, which was previously traditionally dominated by men (Simeon et al., 2001). However, even though a few women are accepted as a member of core staffs, they are often forced to choose between family and career (Simeon et al., 2001).

Therefore, generally, the amount of responsibilities, together with promotion opportunities, greatly differs due to gender in Japan (Honda-Howard & Homma, 2001; Tasker, 1987). This feature of the sex-differentiated career track system is certainly consistent with the characteristics of masculinity in Hofstede's (1980) taxonomy. Haq (2004) argued that when taking into account the sex-differentiated career system and other gaps, such as pay and advancement opportunities, differential treatment based on gender seems to be accepted greatly in Japanese society.

Hanami (2002) claimed that this Japanese sex-specific career track is being allowed partially because of its equal employment litigation system. Japanese Equal Employment Opportunity Law (EEOL) of 1986 may be ineffective because it is not enforced through judicial procedures; whether or not an organization complies with the law is voluntary (Hanami, 2002; Haq, 2004). It is obvious that the EEOL has had little impact in changing Japan's traditional employment structure with its segregated labor markets and job opportunities for men and women, even more than a decade after its implementation (Hanami, 2002).

Although the gender-differentiated career paths remain static, Japanese men and women are experiencing their diversified career values due to drastic and rapid socio-

economic changes (Watanabe & Herr, 1993). As a result, many workers face difficulty developing their future career plans under the traditional and fixed Japanese-style personnel administration based on gender (Watanabe & Herr, 1993).

Career characteristics in the United States. Similar to Japan, the United States is a masculine society, according to Hofstede's (1980) taxonomy. Traditionally, throughout the course of industrialization in the United States, there was a clear difference in workplace gender roles, as early on, women were paid less than their male counterparts, and there were relatively few married women working outside home (Simeon et al., 2001).

However, after the Equal Pay Act of 1963 was passed, gender was regarded as one category of discrimination (Simeon et al., 2001). Currently, in the United States, formal sex segregation in the workplace is very rare, so much so that it is to be noted (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). However, Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) argued that there is informal sex segregation in the workplace, such as glass ceiling issues, which were introduced to the U.S. society two decades ago (Stroh et al., 2004). The glass ceiling is described as an invisible barrier that prevents qualified women from approaching the top of the corporate hierarchy (U.S. Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995).

Stroh et al. (2004) argued that the glass ceiling has been increasingly informal and invisible. When it comes to deciding who should be promoted, the data show that the gap between men and women seems to be closing over time. For example, in 1990, the gap between men and women who answered that they had been promoted was 1.8%, indicating that there were more men than women who were promoted that year (Cobb-

Clark & Dunlop, 1999). On the contrary, in 1996, more women were promoted than men, showing .4% difference between genders (Cobb-Clark & Dunlop, 1999).

However, a problem arises when one compares the number of women in the labor force with the number of women in top management (Stroh et al., 2004). Martin (1991) argued that the glass ceiling is lower than expected, and the highest levels of organizations are almost completely impenetrable to women. For example, in 2000, there were only two female Chief Executive Officers in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2000). Moreover, Sagrestano (2004) claimed that, although women experience a greater degree of occupational mobility than men do, such mobility is more likely to be lateral and less likely to involve promotions.

Gordon and Whelan (1998) argued that the increasing number of organizations offer programs that help women pursue their careers in the United States, such as child care options, more flexible working hours and schedules, and less demanding career progressions. This surely increased the number of women joining the workforce (Gordon & Whelan, 1998). However, these programs mostly target those individuals who have young children or are early in their careers (Gordon & Whelan, 1998). Gordon and Whelan's study (1998) showed that organizations' assistance with the logistics of balancing work and child care responsibilities do not meet many women's needs in midlife, due to women's changes in cognition, role performance, work environment, and coping strategies, implying that these practices may not sufficiently help all women's careers.

However, in the United States, the litigation system is more powerful than that in Japan (Hanami, 2002; Haq, 2004). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act prohibits

discrimination on the basis of sex with very broad coverage of employment practices, such as hiring, termination, promotion, compensation, job training, or any other term, condition, or privileges of employment (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2005). Also, Equal Pay Act of 1963 requires equal pay when women and men perform equal work. The enactment of these laws made possible the steady increase in women's labor force participation and reductions in gender stereotyping in employment decisions (Wooton, 1997).

However, according to U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2005), they dealt with 26,598 sex-discrimination charges in 2004, suggesting that there is still a number of sex discrimination in the workplace in the United States. Schneer and Reitman (1995) found that women still earn less than men, and achieved lower levels of management, even after controlling for experience, education, and hours worked. However, the litigation system has at least eliminated visible and formal gender discrimination in the workplace (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The American situation in which informal and invisible gender-differentiated treatments exist is a viable contrast to the situation in Japan in which there are visible gender-differentiated treatments, such as gender-differentiated career track system.

Comparison of employment practices in the United States and Japan. The differences in organizational approaches toward gender roles may reflect the percentage of managerial positions held by women and average wage gaps due to gender in the United States and Japan. Regarding managerial positions, female executives represent 17.5% of all executive positions in the United States in the global top 200 enterprises in developed countries (Chunichi-shinbun, 2004). Although the percentage does not

represent the women's labor force in the United States, this is the highest rate in the world among the top 200 companies. On the contrary, female executives represent .7% of all executives in Japan (Chunichi-shinbun, 2004). This is the lowest rate in all the developed countries. For all organizations in both countries, in the United States, women occupy 50.48% of all managerial position (U.S. Department of Labor, 2004), whereas in Japan, women occupy 9.6% of all managerial positions in 2002 (Gender Equality Bureau, 2004).

With regard to the average wage gap due to gender in the United States, a woman's average wage was 76.6% of a man's average wage in 2002 (Hartmann, Lovell, & Werschkul, 2004). Japanese Gender Equality Bureau's (2004) study on the wage gaps due to gender between full-time and part-time workers help compare the wage gap in those two countries. In 2002 an average female full-time worker's wage was 67.8%, female part-time worker's wage is 44.0%, and male part-time worker's wage is 48.9% of an average wage of male full-time workers in Japan (Gender Equality Bureau, 2004). Since more women than men work part-time jobs in Japan (39.7% of all working women and 7.9% of all working men are part-time workers), one can argue that Japanese women are considerably less paid than their male counterparts.

The data show that, generally, women, especially Japanese women, have more difficulty in approaching the top of the hierarchy in organizations. Also, women's average wages in both countries are less than those of their male counterparts. The gap due to gender is 23.4% among all types of workers including full-time and part-time workers in the United States, and 32.2% among full-time workers in Japan. Based on these data, one

can conclude that, in contrast to American women, Japanese women have more difficulty in getting managerial positions, and are paid less compared to their male counterparts.

Summary. For this study, career alignment is defined as the status in which an individual's career goals conform to the individual's perceived career paths that an organization plans for the individual. An individual's level of career alignment is determined by the individual's career orientation and the perceived career path with promotion opportunities.

Regarding career-related practices in the United States and Japan, it seems that Japan has the stricter gender-differentiated career systems, as one can see in the two-track system (e.g., Fujimoto, 2004; Ogasawara, 1991; Simeon et al., 2001) and karoshi issues (Uehata, 1991), although American society still has gender discrimination issues such as glass ceiling (e.g., Cobb-Clark & Dunlop, 1999; Sagrestano, 2004; Stroh et al., 2004). These differences may have been caused partially because of the effectiveness of Equal Employment Laws in Japan and the United States (e.g., Hanami, 2002; Haq, 2004; Wooton, 1997)

The studies done on gender-differentiated occupation of managerial positions (Chunichi-sinbun, 2004; Gender Equality Bureau, 2004; U.S. Department of Labor, 2004) and the wage gap due to gender (Gender Equality Bureau, 2004; Hartmann et al., 2004) indicated that gender-differentiated treatments are more obvious in Japan than in the United States.

Career Satisfaction

Definition of Career Satisfaction

Childs and Kilmoski (1986) claimed that what is success has been widely ignored by applied psychologists due to the difficulty to conceptualize and to define operationally. Childs and Kilmoski (1986) factor-analyzed success data and uncovered three components of career-related success: job, personal, and career success. These three components not only include income, income growth, and job level, which are objective career success, but also subjective career success such as personal happiness. Similarly, Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman's (2005) study found the support that subjective career success (career satisfaction) and objective career success (income and the number of promotions) are distinct constructs.

According to Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), career success includes objective success and subjective success. Maier (1999) argued that most industrialized societies define success as maximizing one's career potential, such as occupational advancement and achievement, emphasizing the objective success of careers. Therefore, many researchers have studied objective career success, which is measured with observable and countable numbers such as numbers of advancement, the amount of salary, and job levels (Arthur et al., 2005; Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Judge et al., 1995). Subjective success is often called satisfaction. Two important components of subjective career success are job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Boudreau et al., 2001).

Unlike the non-psychological measures of salary, or the psychological one of promotion or perceived performance, self-perceptions of success are private and subjective, as opposed to public and theoretically, objective (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987).

Super (1957) argued that, since success means very different things to different individuals, organizational indicators of objective success tells little about the psychological impact of each career experience.

Career satisfaction is a type of subjective career success, defined as “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Judge et al., 1995, p. 487). Career satisfaction is one facet of an individual’s job satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). Individuals have different career-related aspirations and values factors such as income, employment security, status and family-related lives (Arthur et al., 2005). Therefore, it is possible for an individual to be satisfied with his or her career, but not satisfied with other aspects of the job such as working conditions (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). Despite the reasonableness of such an approach, subjective career success has not been fully investigated (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Powell & Mainiero, 1992).

Therefore, it is critical for organizations to understand the variables that affect employees’ career satisfaction. Career satisfaction has been found to be associated with some organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, career commitment, longer career tenure (Carson et al., 1996), turnover intentions (Igbaria, 1991), and support for organizational change (Gaertner, 1989).

Predictors of Career Satisfaction

There have been several studies that explored the factors related to career satisfaction. Reitman and Schneer (2005) found a significant negative relationship between career satisfaction and career interruption among MBA graduates. Boudreau et al. (2001) found the relationship between career satisfaction and big five. More

comprehensive one is Judge et al.'s (1995) study, which investigated the demographic, human capital, motivational, organizational, and industry region variables both on subjective career successes (job satisfaction and career satisfaction) and objective career successes (number of promotions and compensation), using executives in the United States. They found that objective career success significantly predicted career satisfaction ($R^2 = .031$). In addition, human capital attributes also predicted career satisfaction ($R^2 = .017$), specifically, engineering degree, high-quality university degree, and higher levels of achievement evaluation from the search firm, predicted higher levels of career satisfaction. With regard to motivational variables, which also explained significant variances in career satisfaction ($R^2 = .031$), only ambition had significant effect on career satisfaction, although the relationship was negative.

Also, Judge et al. (1995) revealed that, after controlling for objective success, nonminority status, age, time devoted to dependent care, and occupational tenure, negatively predicted career satisfaction. Thus, Judge et al. (1995) claimed that older, more ambitious, more senior, and nonminority executives are less likely to be satisfied with their careers.

Effects of Objective Success and Other Variables

The positive relationship between objective career success such as pay, number of promotion, and job levels on the one hand, and career satisfaction on the other hand, revealed in Judge et al.'s (1995) study, were confirmed to other studies (Bray & Howard, 1980; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Strober, 1982), although the causal direction of this relationship is not clear in any of these studies. However, another study has found that individuals who extrinsically succeed do not necessarily feel successful or satisfied

with their jobs (Korman, Witting-Berman, & Lang, 1981), which implied the existence of another unidentified variable that may affect career satisfaction.

Schneer and Reitman (1993) examined how family structure is related to the level of career satisfaction and income. Schneer and Reitman (1993) developed a typology of family structure focusing on three dimensions of family structure: marital status, parental status, and spousal employment status. In their typology, the most traditional family structure is represented by those who are married with children and employed spouse (one-income), whereas the least traditional family structure refers to those who are single with children.

Schneer and Reitman's (1993) survey of MBA program alumni suggested that family structures have an impact on income both for men and women. Specifically, married men with an employed spouse and children earn 19 % less than married men with non-employed spouse with children after their age, working hours, experience, employment gap, and field of responsibility were controlled. In addition, single women are paid 12% less than married women with children, after the authors controlled the same variables for men.

Schneer and Reitman (1993) argued that the income gap based on family structure is caused because of gender role expectation, which encourages men to work outside the home and acquire human capital to provide for a family, while women take care of husbands and children at home. In their study, the members of a traditional family are regarded as socially appropriate, and thus more favored and paid than the less traditional family members. Violating the socially appropriate gender roles by being a member of less socially appropriate family structure is less favored and thus less paid.

However, in Schneer and Reitman's (1993) study, dual-career families without children reported higher levels of career satisfaction than single-career families with children, although the former types of family members were paid less, and were less traditional and less socially appropriate. Schneer and Reitman (1993) argued that less traditional family members are more satisfied with their careers than traditional family members, although they are generally paid less, because they can satisfy both family responsibilities and work-related responsibilities, implying the effects of work-related values and family-related values, which cannot be measured by objective success in American families.

Consistent with the results of Schneer and Reitman's (1993) study, many researchers currently emphasize the importance of work environment that accommodates family responsibilities as one factor of career satisfaction both for women and men. The reason is that both women and men bring into focus and legitimize the expectation that a job should allow time to fulfill family responsibilities (Powell & Mainiero, 1992).

Researchers claimed that the impact of family responsibilities has a stronger effect on women than on men (e.g., Bu & McKeen, 2001; Gallos, 1989; Powell & Mainiero, 1992). Bu and McKeen (2001) found that both Chinese college women and Canadian women give higher priority to a balanced life than their male counterparts. Therefore, when the organizational structure of opportunity in the workplace does not facilitate women's combining work and family responsibilities, many women make tradeoffs between their husbands' needs, family demands, and their work motivation (Gallos, 1989). Furthermore, Gallos (1989) pointed to fundamentally different career perceptions, choices, and priorities for women that are influenced by employment opportunities.

However, Schneer and Reitman's (1993) study suggested that meeting both family and work-related roles have a positive effect on career satisfaction both for men and women. Gattiker and Larwood (1988) found that among women and men, success criteria variables are the best predictors for explaining career satisfaction. Both demographic variables and individuals' success criteria did not explain most part of the career satisfaction; the level did not exceed 20% (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). Therefore, the factors that may affect career satisfaction should be determined (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988).

Summary. Career satisfaction is defined as “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Judge et al., 1995, p. 487). As Ng et al.'s (2005) study revealed, objective career success and career satisfaction are different constructs although objective career success can predict career satisfaction (e.g., Bray & Howard, 1980; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Judge et al., 1995). However, Schneer and Reitman's (1993) research indicated that, when people meet both family and work responsibilities, they can be satisfied with their careers even though they are less paid. The researchers found the positive effect of meeting both responsibilities on career satisfaction both for men and women a result of which is not consistent with previous research (e.g., Bu & McKeen, 2001; Gallos, 1989), which found a stronger impact of family responsibilities on women rather than on men.

The Present Study

Hypothesis 1. Both in the United States and Japan, gender roles still exist and people perceive them (Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b; Matsui et al., 1999; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). Social pressure and norms regarding gender roles seems to be stronger in Japan than in the United States due to the effects of Confucianism. However, when it comes to the gender roles at individual levels, past research showed that they are diminishing both in Japan and in the United States (e.g., Katsurada & Sugihara 1999a, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). Therefore, individuals' gender role attitudes and their perceived social norms regarding gender roles may not be the same.

In general, consistent with the unchanged social-level gender roles, it seems that women face obvious disadvantages in their careers both in the United States and Japan (Ogasawara, 1991; Powell & Mainiero, 1992; Simeon et al., 2001). Thus, male workers as a group are more likely to have higher levels of career alignment.

When comparing the cultural differences, it seems that one perceives stricter gender-differentiated career systems in Japan than in the United States. For example, the gender-differentiated career system does not allow Japanese to work according to their work-related values (Uehata, 1991), which are increasingly diverse in Japan (e.g., Suzuki, 1996). As a result, it has been harder for many Japanese workers to develop their future careers under the traditional and fixed Japanese-style personnel administration based on gender (Watanabe & Herr, 1993). In comparison, in the United States, the litigation system has at least eliminated visible and formal gender discrimination in the workplace (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Therefore, Japanese as a group would have lower levels of

career alignment than American as a group. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Gender and cultural differences would significantly influence the level of career alignment. Especially, the levels of career alignment for women as a group would be significantly lower than the levels of career alignment for men as a group (1a). In addition, the levels of career alignment for Japanese as a group would be significantly lower than the levels of career alignment for American as a group (1b).

Hypothesis 2. Objective career success has been found to be a consistent predictor of one's career satisfaction in past research (e.g., Judge et al., 1995). However, past research also implied that those who are less paid are not always less satisfied with their careers than those who are more paid (Korman et al., 1981; Ng et al., 2005; Schneer & Reitman, 1993).

In general, employed women as a group have been less successful than employed men in the objective sense. The gender differences in gender role attitudes, which are related to career aspirations (e.g., Levine, 1993; Morinaga et al., 1993), are diminishing both in Japan and the United States (e.g., Katsurada & Sugihara 1999a, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). Thus, one can claim that women have higher levels of career aspirations than before. Therefore, it is possible that objective career success can have impacts on both women and men's levels of career satisfaction more than before, resulting in the women's lower levels of career satisfaction.

Employment practices in Japan are more gender-specific than those in the United States. Japanese men are expected to spend much more time on work than on family and few Japanese women have promising careers (e.g., Simeon et al., 2001). On the contrary,

in the United States a more powerful litigation system eliminated visible and formal gender differentiated treatments in the workplace (e.g., Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Studies done on gender differences in wage gap and the number of managerial positions held also showed Japanese companies' stricter gender differentiated treatments (e.g., Chuunichi-shinbun, 2004; Gender Equity Bureau, 2004; Heartmann et al., 2004).

As discussed previously, satisfying both family and career responsibilities may lead to higher career satisfaction. Japanese male workers are required to choose only work-related responsibilities, while women are often forced to focus on family-related roles (e.g. Ogasawara, 1991; Simeon et al., 2001; Uehata, 1991). Therefore, it would be harder for Japanese employees to meet both responsibilities than their U.S. counterparts.

Hypothesis 2: Gender and culture differences would significantly influence the level of career satisfaction. Specifically, the levels of career satisfaction for women as a group would be significantly lower than the levels of career satisfaction for men as a group (2a). In addition, the levels of career satisfaction for Japanese as a group would be significantly lower than the levels of career satisfaction for American as a group (2b).

Hypothesis 3. Although past research has found several determinants of career satisfaction, such as objective career success, demographic factors, human capital factors, motivational factors, and organizational factors (Judge et al., 1995; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999), there has been little research that examined subjective factors that may affect the level of career satisfaction. The predictors found in past research explain a little part of career satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). I expected that there would be a positive relationship between the level of career alignment and the level

of career satisfaction. As Gattiker and Larwood (1988) argued, cognitive and perceptual variables may have impacts on one's career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The greater individuals' career alignment, the higher the levels of career satisfaction they would have.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

This study investigated cultural and gender differences in both Japanese workers and American workers on the levels of career satisfaction and career alignment. Also, I examined the relationship between these two variables. The data were collected from four groups of participants who were divided by their gender and culture: American men, American women, Japanese women, and Japanese men. American participants consisted of those individuals who graduated from a medium-sized Midwest state university in the United States. Japanese participants consisted of those who graduated from a relatively large private university in western Japan. Participants only included those who graduated from the universities from five to seven years ago.

In all, the questionnaire packet was sent to 600 potential participants across the United States and Japan along with a cover letter, a pre-stamped return envelope, and an informed consent form. The sample consisted of 150 American women (a total of 50 returned and a response rate of 33.3%), 150 Japanese women (a total of 38 returned and a response rate of 25.3%), 150 American men (a total of 32 returned and a response rate of 21.3%), and 150 Japanese men (a total of 27 returned and a response rate of 18.0%). There was 1 American response and 1 Japanese response that did not specify the respondents' gender.

For all participants, the number of returned feedback was 149, and the overall response rate was 24.8%. Although the sample of Japanese male did not reach 30, two analyses of variance (ANOVA) and a correlational analysis were conducted. Descriptive

statistics of length of service for current organization, age, and income range are presented in Table 1. Also, the descriptive statistics of career alignment and career satisfaction are shown in Table 2.

As ethical safeguards, the materials were sent to the participants by mail from the graduate offices of each university. I did not obtain any participants' names in order to protect the participants' privacy. Also, the questionnaires did not require identifying information such as names or addresses. The participation for this study was voluntary.

Materials

A cover letter (see Appendix A for English version and Appendix B for Japanese version) and a two-page questionnaire (see Appendix C for the English version and Appendix D for the Japanese version) were sent to the potential participants.

Accompanying the questionnaire packet was a stamped envelope addressed to the author and the informed consent form (see Appendix E for the English version and Appendix F for the Japanese version). A cover letter solicited the potential participants' involvement in the current study. The two-page questionnaire intended to collect the data regarding: (a) demographic data, (b) the level of career alignment, and (c) the level of career satisfaction.

The questionnaire packet was either a Japanese version or an English version for the convenience of the participants. The first page of the questionnaire packet contained the demographic data questionnaire and one career alignment item. The demographic questionnaire asked the participants' gender, age, salary range, marital status, the number of children, and the length of service for the organization. The first page of the packet also contained the career alignment item developed by the author of this study. This item

asked the level of career alignment using a seven-point Likert scale. This item is “Do you feel that the career path your current organization offers and the career plan you want for yourself are consistent with each other?”

The second page of the packet contained the career satisfaction questionnaire. The second page was printed on the reverse side of the first page. The level of career satisfaction was measured with the scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). According to Judge et al. (1995), this seemed to be the best measure available. The participants responded to these five items on seven-point Likert scales ranging from 1 of ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 of ‘strongly agree.’ Greenhaus et al. (1990) reported the acceptance level of internal consistency for this scale as high ($\alpha = .88$). In Judge et al.’s study (1995), the coefficient alpha reliability estimate was .87.

All items in the questionnaire were also translated into Japanese by the author for the Japanese version. A second person translated the Japanese items back to English to check the translations. This back translation was repeated twice, until the two questionnaires were reasonably equivalent.

Procedures

I gave envelopes accompanied with materials to the alumni offices at each university. The envelopes contained the cover letter, the questionnaire, the informed consent, and the self-addressed and postage-paid return envelope. The alumni offices of both universities put the names and addresses of potential participants who had graduated five to seven years ago on the envelopes. After putting names and addresses on the envelopes, the graduate offices sent these to 600 potential participants due to the consideration of response rate.

After filling out the two-page questionnaire packet, the participants sent the questionnaire packets back directly to the author of this study, using a stamped and self-addresses envelope. The author's email address and phone number were given to the participants in informed consent.

The participants were not asked to return the informed consent form in order to avoid the possibility for the researcher to obtain the personal information. Instead, they were told that returning the questionnaire would be regarded as agreeing to participate in the current research. Those who wanted more detailed explanation of this study (see Appendix G for the English version and Appendix H for the Japanese version) were asked to contact the researcher.

Research Design

I selected a survey research design for the study. This study was designed to examine the effect of both gender differences and cultural differences on the level of career satisfaction and career alignment. Therefore, the independent variables for this study were gender and culture; the dependent variables were the level of career satisfaction and the level of career alignment. In addition, this study investigated the relationship between two dependent variables, the levels of career alignment and the career satisfaction.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Samples

Culture	Gender	<i>n</i>	Length of the Service (months)		Annual Income Range*		Age	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Japanese	Female	38	62.16	30.09	3.58	1.18	28.47	1.59
	Male	27	75.96	24.78	4.89	1.78	29.78	1.93
	Total	66	67.86	28.41	4.11	1.58	29.02	1.83
U.S.	Female	48	50.90	24.93	2.90	1.57	29.86	5.62
	Male	32	42.72	29.47	4.44	2.03	31.34	5.59
	Total	81(82)	47.78 _a	26.82 _a	3.52 _a	1.90 _a	30.43 _b	5.59 _b

Note. Annual Income Range; For U.S. participants' annual income (dollars): 1 = 20,000 or less, 2 = 20,000 – 29,999, 3 = 30,000 – 39,999, 4 = 40,000 – 49,999, 5 = 50,000 – 59,999, 6 = 60,000 – 69,999, 7 = 70,000 – 79,999, 8 = 80,000 – 89,999, 9 = 90,000 – 99,999, 10 = 100,000 or more. For Japanese participants annual income (yen): 1 = 2,000,000 or less, 2 = 2,000,000 – 2,999,999, 3 = 3,000,000 – 3,999,999, 4 = 4,000,000 – 4,999,999, 5 = 5,000,000 – 5,999,999, 6 = 6,000,000 – 6,999,999, 7 = 7,000,000 – 7,999,999, 8 = 8,000,000 – 8,999,999, 9 = 9,000,000 – 9,999,999, 10 = 10,000,000 or more. The exchange rate on September 16, 2005 was 111.23 Yen for 1 U.S. Dollar.

^a*n* = 81. ^b*n* = 82.

Table 2

Summary of Means and Standard Deviations of Career Alignment and Career Satisfaction by Culture and Gender

Culture	Gender	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Career Alignment				
Japanese	Female	38	4.21	1.53
	Male	27	4.63	1.60
	Total	66	4.42	1.58
U.S.	Female	48	5.08	1.69
	Male	32	5.06	1.66
	Total	81	5.07	1.66
Career Satisfaction				
Japanese	Female	38	19.84	4.84
	Male	27	19.19	7.90
	Total	66	19.45	6.25
U.S.	Female	50	25.58	7.00
	Male	32	24.81	4.98
	Total	83	25.25	6.23

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Employment practices are distinct in Japan and the United States due to Japanese Confucianism and less powerful litigation systems (e.g., Fujimoto, 2004; Hanami, 2002; Haq, 2004; Honda-Howard & Homma, 2001; Matsui et al., 1999; Simeon et al., 2001). In addition, it seems obvious that women have faced disadvantages in their careers both in the United States and Japan (Ogasawara, 1991; Powell & Mainiero, 1992; Simeon et al., 2001). Therefore, this study intended to reveal gender and cultural differences on the levels of career alignment and satisfaction. Also, as predictors found in past research explained a little part of career satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988), this study attempted to explore if employees' career expectations and prospects may affect their levels of career satisfaction. In all, this study was designed to examine: (a) the effects of gender and culture on the levels of career alignment, (b) the effects of gender and culture on the levels of career satisfaction, and (c) the relationship between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that gender and culture would significantly influence the levels of career alignment, expecting the significantly lower levels for women than for men (1a) and the significantly lower levels for Japanese individuals than for American individuals (1b). A between-subject factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed and the results were evaluated at an alpha level of .05 in order to determine the effects of gender and culture on the levels of career alignment. The summary of ANOVA for Hypothesis 1 is presented in Table 3.

The results showed non-significant joint effect of gender and culture on career alignment based on the omnibus F test, $F(1, 141) = .64, p = .43$. In addition, the main effect of gender was not significant, $F(1, 141) = .52, p = .47$. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. However, the result revealed significant differences between Japanese and U.S. participants, $F(1, 141) = 5.60, p = .02$. No post hoc test was needed; the results indicated that the significant lower levels of career alignment for Japanese than for Americans. Therefore, the results supported hypothesis 1b.

Consequently, the results regarding Hypothesis 1 suggested that men and women had, statistically, the same levels of career alignment. However, results showed that Japanese had significantly lower levels of career alignment than Americans had. Thus, only culture affected the levels of career alignment, indicating being Japanese had a negative impact on the levels of career alignment.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 suggested that gender and culture would affect the levels of career satisfaction significantly, expecting the significantly lower levels of career satisfaction for women than for men (2a) and the significantly lower levels for Japanese than for American (2b). Another ANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of gender and culture on the levels of career satisfaction, and the test was evaluated at $\alpha = .05$. The summary of ANOVA for Hypothesis 2 is presented in Table 4.

The interaction between gender and culture on career satisfaction was not significant, $F(1, 143) < .001, p = 1.00$. In addition, the main effect of gender did not reach significance, $F(1, 143) = .39, p = .53$, showing no differences between women and men. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. However, the results revealed significant

differences between U.S. and Japanese samples, $F(1, 143) = 28.05, p < .001$. No post hoc test was needed; the results showed lower levels of career satisfaction for the Japanese than for the American participants. Therefore, Hypothesis 2b was supported.

Consequently, the results regarding Hypothesis 2 suggested that men and women had, statistically, the same levels of career satisfaction. However, the results showed that Japanese samples had significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than the American ones had. Thus, only cultural differences affected the levels of career alignment, indicating that the Japanese culture had a negative impact on the levels of career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted the positive relationship between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction was calculated and the result reached the significance, $r = .52, p < .001$. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

The results regarding Hypothesis 3 suggested that the greater individuals' career alignment, the higher the levels of career satisfaction they had. The correlations calculated for each group divided based on gender and culture reached the significance, except for the Japanese female group, $r = .41, p < .05$ (Japanese men), $r = .31, p > .05$ (Japanese women), $r = .75, p < .001$ (U.S. women), $r = .52, p < .001$ (U.S. men). Therefore, generally, there was a positive relationship between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. However, the positive relationship was not significant for Japanese women.

Table 3

Summary of Factorial Analysis of Variance of the Level of Career Alignment as a Function of Gender and Culture

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	1	1.37	1.37	.52	.47
Culture	1	14.77	14.77	5.60	.02
Gender x Culture	1	1.68	1.68	.64	.43
Error	141	372.15	2.64		
Total	145	3685.00			

Table 4

Summary of Factorial Analysis of Variance of the Level of Career Satisfaction as a Function of Gender and Culture

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	1	15.31	15.31	.39	.53
Culture	1	1107.35	1107.35	28.05	.001
Gender x Culture	1	.001	.001	.001	1.00
Error	143	5644.48	39.47		
Total	147	82706.00			

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Gender differences are probably one of the most striking determinants of careers because of the gender-differentiated treatments in the workplace (Cooper & Lewis, 1999). Also, in the context of career development, culture is an important variable; different cultures have different litigation systems, perceptions of sex-segregation, and career success criteria. The current study is a cross-cultural study examining the gender differences in two career-related outcomes, career satisfaction and career alignment, conducted in the United States and Japan. This study focused on the personal and perceptual career success, rather than the organizational objective success criteria.

This survey research sought to examine three hypotheses: (a) the effects of gender and cultural differences on the levels of career alignment, (b) the effects of gender and cultural differences on the levels of career satisfaction, and (c) the relationship between career alignment and career satisfaction. The results showed that only culture affects significantly both career alignment and career satisfaction, suggesting lower levels of career alignment and satisfaction for Japanese than for U.S. participants. However, gender did not significantly affect either the levels of career alignment or satisfaction. The result also found a significant positive relationship between career alignment and career satisfaction. However, the positive relationship did not reach the significance for Japanese women.

Career Alignment

The dependent variable in Hypothesis 1, career alignment is the degree of the agreement between an individual's career prospect and the organization's career plan for

the individual. Career alignment can be an important variable that influences the work-related outcomes or behaviors. As Gaertner and Nollen (1989) claimed, employees' career expectations and their perceptions of the organizations' career practices are the center of employment relationship. Therefore, organizations may increasingly need to recognize their employees' career expectations even though the organizations' recognition become harder due to today's career unpredictability (Arthur et al., 2005; Cappelli, 1999).

Gender as an independent variable. The result did not support the hypothesis 1a that predicted women's significant lower levels of career alignment than men. As discussed before, an individual's career orientation and the perceived career path with promotion opportunities determine his or her level of career alignment. In order to discuss career orientation, my focus in the literature review was gender roles, which have been found to be related to an individual's career orientation. Gender roles are becoming less significant at individual levels in both countries (e.g., Gender Equality Bureau, 2004; Katsurada & Sugihara, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). However, employment practices force women to face disadvantages in formal or informal ways in the United States and Japan (e.g., Catalyst, 2000; Fujimoto, 2004; Gordon & Whelan, 1998; Ogasawara, 1991; Simeon et al., 2001).

The results suggested that the degree to which women's perceived career prospects align with the perceived career paths the organizations offer for them is not statistically different from men's. Considering the fact women as a group have fewer opportunities to get promoted, women's career prospects for themselves are lower in hierarchy compared to men.

One possible explanation why gender did not affect the levels of career alignment is the balanced match between individuals' gender role attitudes and the organizations' human resources practices based on gender. This means that women's lower career prospects are in good agreement with the career paths with fewer promotion opportunities that the organization offers for them. However, this explanation does not fully describe the effects of the diminishing gender role attitudes at individual levels on the levels of career orientation suggested in past research (e.g., Katsurada & Sugihara 1999a, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). Therefore, there may be other unidentified variables that affect individuals' levels of career orientation.

The second possible explanation for not supporting hypothesis 1a is the strong impact of family life on women more so than men. Past research found that family-related variables have stronger effects on a woman's career-related life than men's career-related life (Bu & McKeen, 2001; Gallos, 1989; Powell & Mainiero, 1992). Therefore, career alignment may be idiosyncratic to individuals in terms of accommodating work and family or other issues of life-work balance. Due to the desire to fulfill both family and work responsibilities, women may perceive that their career alignment is high despite their disadvantages in the workplace. Therefore, it is possible that women's desire to meet family responsibilities pushed the levels of career alignment up. However, this explanation is not consistent with the results of Schmeer and Reitman's (1993) study, which found family-related responsibility impacted on men's as well as women's career satisfaction.

The last possible explanation why Hypothesis 1a was not supported is that the predictors of career orientation differently contributed to their levels of career orientation.

As discussed before, gender role socialization influences work-related choices through their effects on gender role cognitions (Astin, 1984; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Matsui et al., 1989). Some predictors of career orientation may be more strongly affected and shaped by pre-employment phase than employment phase. Possible examples of the predictors determined in pre-employment phase include instrumentality and higher educational levels. On the contrary, other predictors of career orientation may be shaped primarily by employment phases such as managerial work experiences.

In this case, it is possible that the predictors shaped more in the pre-employment socialization phase, such as instrumentality and higher educational levels, have a smaller impact on the levels of career orientation than the predictors that are primarily shaped in the employment phase do. For example, women's fewer managerial experiences in higher levels may have a stronger effect to determine one's levels of career orientation than their educational levels did. Also, it is possible that the occupational experience may have greatly changed one's levels of career orientation that have been shaped in pre-employment phase. Therefore, this differential effect can result in the same levels of career alignment for women and men because of the stronger effects of employment predictors of career orientation.

Culture as an independent variable. It was found that culture is strongly related to individuals' levels of career alignment in this study. The result showed the significantly lower levels of career alignment for Japanese than for American, supporting Hypothesis 1b. This may imply that Japanese companies do not offer the career paths that their employees want.

One possible reason for this result is that Japanese companies assign their employees fixed career paths and do not allow their employees to choose their own career paths, possibly based on their employees' gender. Thus, neither Japanese men nor women can satisfy both family and work responsibilities. Gender-differentiated two-track career system is one typical example that indicates the existence of career fixations based on gender. Strict gender specific treatment may influence both men's and women's careers (Astin, 1984; Powell & Mainero, 1992). Therefore, this may cause Japanese lower levels of career alignment.

In addition, another possible reason for Japanese lower levels of career alignment is the typical Japanese organizations' career development of their employees, although this was not my focus in the literature review. Many organizations in Japan develop their employees' careers that are company-specific, and thus they often use job-rotation for the purpose of training. The main purpose of training in Japanese organizations is to develop an employee who can handle the job in many work areas, such as sales, accounting, customer service, and marketing (Nonomoto, 2001).

However, recently, all companies in the world increasingly require human resources that have higher levels of skills and specialty (Nonomoto, 2001). Although Japanese organizations have known the needs for such human resources, training and other career development programs have not been changed; many employees still develop company specific general skills rather than their specialty, and it is now only individuals' responsibility to train them (Nonomoto, 2001). At the same time, Japanese organizations seek for skilled employees with specialty. Therefore, it is possible that Japanese employees cannot have the career paths they want because of the lack of the

organizations' training, skill development, and the changed organizations' necessity of human resources. This mismatch between organizations' needs and the results of actual human resources practices may have resulted in the Japanese lower levels of career alignment as compared to the American ones.

Similarly, the lack of educational career development before entering the job market in Japan may be the reason of the Japanese lower levels of career alignment. There is no clear word of career education in Japan (Tatsuno, 2002). Generally, there is a big gap of perception between academic circles and the "real world," and thus universities are regarded as the place only for academics but not for job-hunting (Tatsuno, 2002). Due to the distinction between careers and academics, students are placed in one job opening without consideration of their interests or work values (Tatsuno, 2002).

On the contrary, in the United States, it is imperative to establish a stronger education system by consolidating the academic course and vocational course; the specialists at school career centers usually conduct career consultation (Tatsuno, 2002). Also, the United States has been using standardized occupational information, such as Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) published by the U.S. Department of Labor, and career counseling has thrived on such information resources. Therefore, the existence of career education may have increased the levels of career alignment among American participants because it may have made it possible for U.S. students to choose their careers that are more likely to fit their career prospects.

Career Satisfaction

The dependent variable in Hypothesis 2 was career satisfaction. As Ng et al. (2005) argued, career satisfaction is of concern not only to individuals but also to

organizations, because it is related to organizational outcomes (Judge et al., 1999). However, most of the previous research has focused on objective career success such as salaries and job levels, which has been generally regarded as more successful in careers (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Maier, 1999; Ng et al., 2005). The result showed the significant differences of the levels of career satisfaction between Japanese and American groups. The Japanese sample showed significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than the U.S. sample did. However, there were no differences statistically between male and female's levels of career satisfaction.

Gender as an independent variable. As discussed before, it is clear in both countries that women face more difficulties than men do in their careers; they are less paid, have fewer opportunities to go up the hierarchies, and obtain fewer mentoring relationships in the organization (e.g., Cooper & Lewis, 1999). However, in this research it was found that women are satisfied statistically with their careers as much as men are. There are two potential explanations worth discussing.

The first possible reason is that men and women have different perceptions of career satisfaction. Gerson (1993) argued that a man's self-concept is more strongly derived from career satisfaction as measured by traditional yardsticks such as pay and promotion, whereas women focus more on balancing the various spheres of their lives. Similarly, Powell and Mainiero (1992) claimed the importance of work-family conflict as a determinant of career satisfaction to women.

Furthermore, Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, and Reilly (1995) studied gender differences in their life priorities. They found that women are more likely to assign fixed priorities to their family responsibilities that are independent of work demands whereas

men are more likely to employ a compensatory approach and trade off family responsibilities against work responsibilities. Therefore, it is possible that women are as satisfied as men are with their careers, potentially because women may want to meet the family responsibilities. Even though women have disadvantages in their careers, their satisfaction may be derived from different aspects of careers, thus resulting in men and women's statistically same levels of career satisfaction.

The measurement of career satisfaction developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) scales five self-perceived career success items: overall career success, advancement, income, development of new skills, and achievement. Therefore, these career satisfaction items measure satisfaction levels of what has been called objective success. It is possible that these five items do not measure the important aspects of women's career.

The second possible reason for not supporting Hypothesis 2a is women's and men's different choices of referents. According to the equity theory, people evaluate their outcomes based on social comparison (Pinder, 1998). A person creates a ratio of his or her inputs to outcomes and compares it with perceptions of other's ratio (Adams, 1965). Equity theory does not specify who is the referent to be (Muchinsky, 2003).

According to the social comparison theory, people compare their beliefs with those who are similar to themselves in terms of the issues they want to have confirmed or the perceived demographic characteristics (Festinger, 1954). If individuals compare their ratio with the ones of the same gender, it is possible that women are as satisfied as men are. Therefore, even though women in general are in a disadvantage in terms of objective career success, women's and men's different references to evaluate career satisfaction may have resulted in their same levels of career satisfaction.

Culture as an independent variable. I did not find any cross-cultural research examining the gaps of the levels of career satisfaction between these two countries. However, the differences in the levels of career satisfaction between Japanese and American samples found in this research are dreadful, showing lower levels for the Japanese than for the American samples. This result is of interest because the predictors of career satisfaction found in past studies such as no career interruption (Reitman & Schneer, 2005), personality (Boudreau et al., 2001), salary and the number of promotions (Bray & Howard, 1980; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Judge et al, 1995; Strober, 1982), minority status, age, and time devoted to dependent care (Judge et al., 1995) do not fully explain the differences of career satisfaction between the two cultures. However, these predictors were found in past research using U.S. samples, and thus generalization may not be appropriate toward the Japanese samples.

Gender-specific career system is a potential cause of Japanese lower levels of career satisfaction. As discussed before, Gerson's (1993) research found that work-family conflict negatively affect women's levels of career satisfaction, but did not influence men's levels of career satisfaction. However, as Powell and Mainiero (1992) argued, currently, not only women but also men face the issues of balancing family lives and work-related lives. Schneer and Reitman's (1993) study suggested that family life may affect both men's and women's levels of career satisfaction. Therefore, it is possible that gender-differentiated treatments in Japanese organizations can be a burden to both men and women, thus resulting in lower levels of career satisfaction among Japanese.

Another possible reason is the evaluation systems currently conducted in Japanese companies, although this notion was not the focus of this study. Past research found that

performance appraisal satisfaction (Blau, 1999; Ellickson & Longsdon, 2002), performance appraisal without bias or intention of punishment (Poon, 2004), fair performance appraisal with clear criteria and subordinates' approval (Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & d'Amico, 2001), and performance appraisal with instrument validity, distributive justice, and procedural justice (Gabris & Ihrke, 2001) are related to job satisfaction. Although I did not find any research examining the relationship between career satisfaction and the characteristics of performance appraisal, it is possible that performance appraisal have some effects on career satisfaction, due to the fact that career satisfaction is conceptualized as part of job satisfaction (Gattier & Larwood, 1988).

Japanese companies have been struggling with the recession for more than 15 years (Oniwa, 2004). Throughout the battle against the recession, there has been a spreading skepticism about the traditional Japanese management. Therefore, Japanese companies have shifted to Western management from traditional Japanese management (Oniwa, 2004). Before the recession, it was common sense in Japan that salaries should rise every year and employees work for one company until they retire (Works Institute, 2004).

However, in order to reduce personnel expenses and become more competitive, many Japanese companies laid off their older employees and introduced a new salary system called "seika-shugi," in which employees are paid based on their seika (results) (Works Institute, 2004). This shift started around 1995 and in 2004 more than 90% of Japanese companies use seika-shugi at least partially (Nikkeibp, 2004).

Japanese seika-shugi is often regarded as the equivalent of the American human resource management in Japan (Kyodo Tsushin, March, 2005). However, it is actually

different from the human resources management administered in the U.S. companies. In the United States, there is no ostensible salary gap between full-time and part-time, men and women, or people with other characteristics, if the job description is the same (Works Institute, 2004). Performance is generally evaluated according to how employees meet the goals that are determined based on the job descriptions (Works Institute, 2004). In contrast, only a small number of Japanese companies have job descriptions; even when a company has them, they are likely to be very simple and they are not developed based on job analyses. Therefore, it is difficult for an employer to set clear goals and for an employee to know the employer's expectations (Yomiuri Shinbun, 2005). Without job descriptions developed through job analyses, seika-shugi would not be a type of American human resources management, or even useful.

Currently conducted in many Japanese organizations, the seika-shugi may have serious potentials that result in what Deming (1982) warned as a disease because of its possibility to overrun organizational deficiencies in human resources management. Performance appraisals based on job analysis is a sine qua non of American human resources management, at least formally. It has been reinforced because in the United States, performance appraisals must be something measurable in order to be legally useful.

As some researchers pointed out, seika-shugi gave Japanese employers uneasiness, decreased motivation, worsened the climate in the workplace, and triggered depression among employees (Nikkeibp, 2004; Works Institute, 2004). A survey found that 88% of Japanese employers and 94% of Japanese employees were dissatisfied with and saw problems with seika-shugi, such as the impact of politics on the evaluation (Kyodo

Tsushin, March 2005). As discussed previously, dissatisfaction with performance appraisal and characteristics of performance appraisal, commonly observed when job analysis is not conducted, are associated with lower levels of overall job satisfaction (e.g., Blau, 1999; Pettijohn et al., 2001; Poon, 2004). In addition, career satisfaction is part of job satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). Therefore, Japanese organizations' evaluation system, seika-shugi, may have caused the lower levels of career satisfaction among Japanese employees.

The Relationship between Career Alignment and Career Satisfaction

This study also sought to examine the relationship between career alignment and career satisfaction. The present study supported Hypothesis 3, which predicted the significant positive correlation between the levels of career alignment and career satisfaction. In addition, it is of interest that although Japanese participants earned about 6,000 dollars more than U.S. participants did, U.S. participants showed higher levels of career satisfaction. Jaskolka, Beyer, and Trice (1985), Judge et al. (1995), and Ng et al. (2005) have raised the concern that it is not appropriate to assume that objective and subjective career success are similar. The result of this research also suggested that objective success and subjective success are not always related to each other.

Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis revealed that objective success (salaries and the number of advancements) and subjective career success (career satisfaction) are conceptually distinct constructs. Interestingly, Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis found stronger relationships between perceptual predictors and career satisfaction and less strong relationships between perceptual predictors and objective career success.

Further studies on subjective predictors of career success are needed in order to determine a particular aspect of career success (James, 2000; Ng et al., 2005). The current study focused on career alignment, which is the perceived agreement between individuals' career expectation and organizations' career paths for the individuals. As Ng et al. (2005) implied, individuals' perceptions are possibly critical determinants of subjective career success.

Implications

This study focused on career alignment, career satisfaction, and the relationship between these two variables. Researchers have started putting emphasis on the personal meanings of career success, such as seen in boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 2002). The current study added the literature in such career perspective, because its primary focus was on career alignment and career satisfaction.

Employers should be concerned more not only about their employees' objective career success, but also about their subjective success because of the impacts of employees' personal success on preferable organizational outcomes (Carson et al., 1996; Gaertner, 1989; Igbaria, 1991). Career alignment was found to be positively related to career satisfaction in this study. In short, one can argue that career alignment describes organization's sensitiveness to its employees' career expectations and prospects. Employers might need to recognize the importance of the sensitiveness of employees' career needs. Human resources practices such as the extent of promotion from within, internal training, performance appraisal systems, and employment security would have an impact directly or indirectly on the employees' career alignment.

It would be beneficial for employers to communicate with their employees more thoroughly in order to achieve the employees' higher levels of career alignment. It was found that the Japanese, who are paid more than U.S. participants, are less satisfied with their careers in this study. Also, as discussed previously, individual differences or gender differences in the criteria of career satisfaction may range widely, such as satisfying both work and family responsibilities. Therefore, due to these potentially complicated determinants of career satisfaction, it is almost impossible for employers to know an individual's evaluation of their careers without communication.

In addition, organizations probably need to recognize that their roles regarding their members' careers can be reduced to supporting individuals' career self-development and learning (Inkson & Arthur, 2001) because individuals probably do not have the same desired organizational initiatives regarding their careers, as suggested by McKeen and Burke (1992). Also, career paths should be flexible at any time to any kind of person. According to Powell and Mainiero (1992), one factor that influences subjective career success is the time dimension. Present satisfaction with career incorporates satisfaction with the perceived future (Powell & Mainiero, 1992). For example, an individual's emphasis on work and family would change as time passes. Therefore, perceived flexibility can play an important role in determining the levels of career alignment. Organizations may need to focus more on employees' ownership of their own careers in order to achieve the higher levels of alignment because it would lead to more flexible career paths for the employees and result in higher levels of career alignment.

Organizations tend to limit their initiatives when they attempt to help or develop their employees' careers, often split along gender-role lines. For example, the programs

such as child care options, flexible working hours, and less demanding career progressions target those who have young children and do not have longer tenure in the United States (Gordon & Whelan, 1998). In Japan, the government program, giving a subsidy to the organizations where male employees use childcare leave, has not been used for two years; no Japanese organization applied for the governmental subsidy (Kyodo Tsushin, April, 2005). One can argue that both examples suggest that it is difficult for individuals to utilize the organization's support initiatives that are against the gender-roles. Organizations' supports for their employees' careers should be accessible easily and helpful to any employees.

Especially, Japanese companies should note that the strict and fixed gender-differentiated treatments might have negative impact on career alignment and career satisfaction. Two-track career system conducted in Japanese companies standardized how their employees work, when they retire, and how they are treated in the workplace. This inflexibility probably needs to be changed for higher levels of career alignment and career satisfaction.

Limitations

As with all research, the present study has some limitations that may have affected the findings. One issue is that the participants from the American university consisted of many non-traditional students as well as traditional students; the U.S. participants' mean age was 30.43 and *SD* was 5.59. However, the participants from the Japanese university consisted of mostly traditional students, with the average age of 29.02 and the *SD* of 1.83. Therefore, the participants' varied ranges of ages due to the cultures may have some effects on the findings.

Also, the American university is famous for its Teachers College program. Therefore, the American participants may have consisted of more teachers, who may have fewer opportunities for advancement. On the other hand, the Japanese university from which the Japanese participants graduated is nationally known and contains students from various part of Japan. However, secondary, the Japanese university is known for its competitiveness for the high rate of alumni's objective career success in prestigious and large Japanese companies. There may be differences in career development, career choices, and career opportunities between the population and the participants in Japan.

Also, since this study only included those who had seven or fewer years of occupational experience, one might ask whether the findings extend to more experienced people. Another possible limitation would be that the author had no objective measurements of career satisfaction or career alignment. The scale was based on self-reported measures. Regarding the reliability, the coefficient alpha calculated in this study was .87, showing high internal consistency.

Directions for Future Research

Ng et al. (2005) have proclaimed a need for a research that would examine the effects of individuals' expectation or perception on career satisfaction. This study attempted to examine the relationship between career satisfaction and career alignment, which is the perceived match between individuals' career expectations and organizations' career plans for the individuals. The result revealed the strong relationship between the two variables, and it highlights the importance of research on perceptual variables that may affect the levels of career satisfaction. As Ng et al. (2005) argued, past research examined very limited number of variables that may affect the levels of career

satisfaction. Therefore, one direction for future research is to attempt to examine other potential subjective and perceptual variables that may influence the levels of career satisfaction.

Also, another direction is to replicate this study in such a way as to obtain a larger sample and different participant types. Nation-wide samples both in the United States and Japan could yield interesting results. Past research done on career satisfaction was mainly examined in American societies, and a few studies were done in European societies. I did not find any study that examined career satisfaction using the sample in Africa, Asia, or Latin America. Therefore, it would be beneficial for researchers to use those samples and investigate the levels of career satisfaction as well as career alignment.

A further suggestion is to career alignment as an independent variable on other outcomes. The current study found evidence that indicates the strong relationship between career satisfaction and career alignment. Therefore, it would be of interest to investigate potential dependent variables that both employers and researchers might want to know. One possible dependent variable that may be related to the levels of career alignment is the degree of work-life balance. Powell and Mainiero (1992) argued that the career-related and family-related outcomes are associated with, even though they may not be entirely dependent on.

Although the career satisfaction survey developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) was said to be the best measure available (Judge et al., 1995), my final suggestion for future research is developing other career satisfaction measurement that attempts to grasp the construct of career satisfaction more accurately. Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) five-item questionnaire attempts to measure the subjective satisfaction regarding overall career

success, advancement, income, development of new skills, and achievement. It seems reasonable to think that there are other career facets that people evaluate their own career success.

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate calculated in this study was .87. This level showed the same alpha as Judge et al. (1995) reported, indicating a high acceptance level of internal consistency for the career satisfaction measurement. As discussed, if career satisfaction includes various aspects of one's career, such as accommodating both family and work responsibilities or finding time for one's hobbies, the coefficient alpha may be lower. The reason is that the measurement may have items that do not correlate with each other if the career satisfaction includes other aspects of careers.

The results of this study showed women's and men's levels of career satisfaction are statistically the same. The past research indicated that gender-roles that are related to career orientation are diminishing (Katsurada & Sugihara 1999a, 1999b; Street, Kimmel et al., 1995; Street, Kromrey et al., 1995). However, women's disadvantages regarding their careers still exist both in the United States and Japan (e.g., Cooper & Lewis, 1999). For example, this study also revealed considerable gender differences in women and men's annual wages both in the United States and Japan as shown in Table 1.

The possible reason why no gender differences were found in the levels of career satisfaction in this research is that women and men have different career success criteria, such as work-life balance. As some researchers argued, entirely new approach is called for in order to understand women's careers due to the potentially distinct career characteristics between women and men (Gallos, 1989; Larwood & Gutek, 1987). If

women's career success perceptions include the different aspects from men's ones, the career satisfaction measurement should include such items.

Also, researchers need to recognize the other variables that may affect career success criteria, such as job categories and culture. The measurement of career satisfaction was developed exclusively for U.S. managers by Greenhaus et al. (1990). Therefore, one might ask if this measurement is a global instrument. This career satisfaction measurement may not be appropriate to use when participants are not U.S. managers, such as participants in other job categories or ones with other culture. For example, employees at business firms and artists may have dissimilar important career-related focal points. Also, different culture would have different career success criteria. Therefore, a number of career satisfaction measurements may be needed in order to grasp the essential career-related aspects, which are potentially diverse depending on culture or job categories as well as gender.

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Appendix A
Cover Letter in English

Dear Alumni of Emporia State University:

My name is Akiko Fukuyama and I am a graduate student in the Department of Psychology and Special Education at Emporia State University. I am doing a study on career development of people both in the United States and Japan. Emporia State University alumni center is helping me to conduct this research.

You are being asked to participate in this research because you graduated from ESU 5 - 7 years ago. I assumed that you might have some work experiences, which will help me to explore career development in the United States and Japan. I did not personally obtain your name and mailing address, rather, the alumni office randomly selected you as a potential participant from the alumni list.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will read the attached informed consent form and complete the survey that asks about your career development. After completing the survey, please return the survey in the enclosed pre-addressed, pre-stamped envelope to me.

Study records will be kept as confidential as possible. There will be no costs to you as a result of taking part in this study, nor will you be reimbursed for your participation in this study. You are not required to write your name or address on the survey. The survey will be conducted anonymously.

If you have questions about the research or in case of emergency, you may contact me at akiko_fukuyama@mac.com or at (620) 340-0857.

Thank you for your attention. If you agree to participate, please complete the attached survey and return it to me in the enclosed pre-addressed, pre-stamped envelope. I believe this study will help individuals who have diverse work values. I appreciate your participation.

Sincerely,
Akiko Fukuyama
Emporia State University
Department of Psychology and Special Education

Appendix B

Cover Letter in Japanese

関西学院大学卒業生の皆様：

私は関西学院大学同窓生の福山亜紀子と申します。アメリカのエンボリア州立大学大学院で産業組織心理学の研究をしており、現在日本人とアメリカ人のキャリア開発の比較の研究論文に取り組んでいます。

皆さんに10分ほどのアンケートに御協力していただきたいと思い、突然ではございますが、このようにアンケート用紙をお送りしております。この研究には関西学院大学同窓会に御協力していただき、5年から7年前に卒業した方にこのアンケート用紙をお送りしております。私自身のかわりに同窓会に名簿から無作為に郵送していただいたため、私は皆様の住所、名前など、一切の個人情報を知らされておられません。

アンケートにお答えいただける場合、まず同封したインフォームドコンセントをお読みになって下さい。記入後、アンケート用紙のみを、同封の返信用の封筒に入れて投函して下さい。

アンケートは匿名で行われ、また内容に皆さんを特定できるような質問は含まれておりません。ですから、アンケート結果によって、私自身が参加者の皆様の個人情報を得ることはなく、また調査結果は極秘に扱われます。また、研究の参加によって（アンケートの記入によって）、皆様に一切の費用はかかりませんが、報酬もございません。

もし何かご質問がございましたら、akiko_fukuyama@mac.com または+1(620) 340-0857 までご連絡ください。

同窓生の皆様、インフォームドコンセントを御覧になって、同意していただけたら、同封の返信用封筒でご返信くださいますようお願い申し上げます。キャリアの文化間比較の研究は大変少なく、大変興味深いものになると考えております。お手数ではございますが、10分間のアンケートへの御協力をどうかよろしく申し上げます。

福山亜紀子
Emporia State University
Department of Psychology and Special Education

Appendix C

Questionnaire in English

Appendix D

Questionnaire in Japanese

統計データ／キャリア整合度調査

次の質問にお答え下さい。

1) 勤続年数 _____ 年 _____ 月

2) 性別 男性 女性

3) 年齢 _____ 歳

4) 概算年収

200万円以下	200 - 299万円
300 - 399万円	400 - 499万円
500 - 599万円	600 - 699万円
700 - 799万円	800 - 899万円
900 - 999万円	1000万円以上

5) 配偶者の有無 配偶者有り 配偶者なし

6) 子どもの数 _____ 人

7) いずれかにマークをして下さい。

全くそうとは思わない

どちらでもない

全くその通りだ

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

あなたが思い描いているキャリアと、会社があなたに期待しているキャリアは、ほぼ同じであると思う。

両面印刷

キャリア満足度調査

いずれかにマークをしてください。

全くそうとは思わない

どちらでもない

全くその通りだ

- 1) 職場で現在までに成し遂げた業績に満足している。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 2) キャリアの最終目標と照らし合わせて、現在の達成状況に満足している。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 3) 目標とする収入について、現時点で満足している。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 4) 現在の昇進状況に満足している。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 5) 個人的に目標とする技能が身に付いたかどうかについて、現時点で満足している。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

両面印刷

Appendix E

Informed Consent Form in English

Informed Consent

Study Name: Cross-Cultural Study of Career Development

Researcher's Name: Akiko Fukuyama

The Department of Psychology and Special Education at Emporia State University supports the practice of protection for people participating in research and related activities. This study has been reviewed to determine that it poses little or no risk of harm to you. Any information obtained from you will be kept strictly confidential. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

In order to determine the differences in career development both in Japan and in the United States, you will be asked to complete a 2-page questionnaire, which scales demographic, career satisfaction, and career development. It will not take more than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It is possible that some of the questions on the survey may make you feel uncomfortable, but you are free to decline to answer any questions you do not wish to answer. After filling out the questionnaire, you will be asked to mail only the completed questionnaire with self-addressed and postage-paid envelope. You will be asked to complete questionnaire anonymously. You will gain no benefits by participating in this study.

Please keep this informed consent form for yourself. You are welcome to ask questions about this study through e-mail or phone written below.

If you want a more detailed explanation of the study, you can contact me.

In addition, if you would like a written summary of the results, please contact me and I will send you the result of this study by either email or mail. I am expecting to finish this research before December 2005.

Contact Information

Name: Akiko Fukuyama

Email: akiko_fukuyama@mac.com

Mailing Address: 1201 Triplett Dr. D47 Emporia, KS 66801

Phone: (620) 340-0857

Appendix F

Informed Consent Form in Japanese

インフォームドコンセント

研究名： Cross-Cultural Study of Career Development
研究者： 福山亜紀子

エンボリア州立大学心理学部は研究と関連した行為一切について、研究参加者保護を実践しています。この研究は参加者にほとんど、または一切のリスクがないことが審理済みです。この研究により、得られる可能性のある一切の個人情報、厳密に極秘情報として扱われます。研究者があなたを特定できるような情報も、調査結果として発表されることはありません。以下の情報は、あなたがこの研究に参加するかどうかを決定するために与えられています。もしあなたが、参加することに同意しても、途中で中止することができます。

キャリア開発の日米差を研究するため、あなたは質問用紙に記入することを求められています。質問用紙は1枚で表裏に回答欄があります。その質問用紙には、あなたの統計的データ（年齢や性別など）と、キャリア開発に関する質問が含まれています。この質問用紙記入には約10分の時間がかかります。また質問のいずれかが、あなたに軽微な不快感を与える可能性があります。あなたは、答えたくない質問に答える必要はありません。質問用紙記入後、あなたは、同封の切手支払済の返信用封筒に質問用紙のみをいれて、投函することを求められています。住所や名前を記入する必要はありません。

このインフォームドコンセントは、質問がある場合など、研究者の連絡先がわかるよう、あなたが保存して下さい。

もし、この研究について詳細な説明を希望する場合、下記にご連絡下さい。

また、この研究結果の報告を希望する場合も下記にご連絡下さい。当該研究は2005年12月までに完了する予定です。

連絡先

氏名： 福山亜紀子
電子メール： akiko_fukuyama@mac.com
住所： 1201 Triplett Dr. D47 Emporia, KS 66801
電話番号： (620) 340-0857

Appendix G

Explanation of this Study in English

Explanation - Cross Cultural Study of Career Development

I appreciate your participation in this study. This study was designed to explore the relationship between gender/cultural differences and career satisfaction/alignment. Specifically, I wanted to know if participants' gender would affect their career alignment, which is the consistency between the actual career plan you have and the career path your organization offers to you. Also, I wanted to know whether the level of career satisfaction is related to gender differences.

Previous research has shown that many individuals who are extrinsically successful do not always feel successful or satisfied with their achievements (Korman, Witting-Berman, & Lang, 1981). However, women both in Japan and in the United States are paid less and have less opportunity to be promoted (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1991). Although the adverse effects of gender discrimination certainly justify the need to explore further the issue of gender discrimination in the workplace, most gender discrimination research has concentrated exclusively on sexual harassment (Murrell, Olson, & Frize, 1995). I expect that gender discrimination can cause both lower level of career satisfaction and career alignment.

The present research attempts to draw a causal connection between gender differences and career satisfaction. I expect that gender differences affect the level of career alignment. In the present study participants were asked to complete questionnaires to measure their level of career satisfaction and the level of career alignment. I predicted that female participants have lower level of career satisfaction and career alignment than male participants. Also, I predicted that Japanese participants are less satisfied with their careers than American participants, and also have lower level of career alignment.

Thank you for your help with this study. It would not be possible to continue psychological research without your cooperation and goodwill. I hope that you enjoyed this study. If you are curious about my findings, please contact me. I would be glad to explain anything about this study.

Akiko Fukuyama
(620) 340-0857
akiko_fukuyama@mac.com.

Appendix H

Explanation of this Study in Japanese

研究説明：キャリア開発文化間研究

皆様の研究への御参加、ありがとうございます。この研究は性別／文化と、キャリア満足／キャリアアライメントの関係を確かめるためにデザインされています。特に、研究参加者の方の性別が、キャリアアライメントに関係があるかどうか、という点に焦点を合わせています。キャリアアライメントとは、労働者が進みたいキャリアと、組織において実際に進むと思われるキャリアが同一の状態を指します。また、このキャリアアライメントが、キャリアに対する満足度に関係があるかどうか、調べられます。

過去の研究では、必ずしも収入や昇進がキャリアの満足につながることはないという結果が出ています (Korman, Witting-Berman, & Lang, 1981)。しかし、日米において、女性一般は、給与、昇進の面で、不利な状況にあることはよく知られています (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1991)。さまざまな職場における、ジェンダー差別は多く報告されており、より多くの研究が望まれるのですが、ジェンダー差別の研究は、ほぼセクシュアルハラスメントに偏っているのが現状です (Murrell, Olson, & Frize, 1995)。この研究では、ジェンダー差別の一側面としてのキャリア満足と、キャリアアライメントがトピックとなっております。

この研究は、キャリア満足の決定因としての性差を調査しようと試みています。また、キャリアアライメントの性質についても研究されます。研究者は性差がキャリアアライメントに影響を与えると予測しています。この研究において、参加者の皆様には、キャリアアライメントとキャリア満足度の調査用紙に記入するようお願いいたしました。私は、女性の参加者の皆様は、男性より満足度とアライメントが低いと考えています。また、日本人一般について、アメリカ人よりも、低い満足度とアライメントが見られると考えています。

この研究は皆様の参加なしにはなし得ないものであり、皆様の御協力に心より感謝いたします。もし、研究結果を望まれる場合、下記にご一報下さい。

福山亜紀子
+1 (620) 340-0857
akiko_fukuyama@mac.com

Appendix I

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter and Permission



EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

1200 Commercial
Emporia, Kansas
66801-5087

620-341-5351
620-341-5909 fax
www.emporia.edu

GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
RESEARCH AND GRANTS CENTER
Campus Box 4003

June 29, 2005

Akiko Fukuyama
1201 Triplett Dr. D47
Emporia, KS 66801

Dear Ms. Fukuyama:

Your application for approval to use human subjects, entitled "The effects of gender and cultural differences in career alignment and career satisfaction in the United States and Japan," has been reviewed. I am pleased to inform you that your application was approved and you may begin your research as outlined in your application materials.

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I wish you success with your research project. If I can help you in any way, do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Jeffrey Tysinger".

Dr. Jeffrey Tysinger
Chair, Institutional Review Board

pf

cc: Brian Schrader

Appendix J

Reminder

The author of this study, Akiko Fukuyama, hereby submits this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying, which involves potential financial gain, will be allowed without written permission of the author.

Akiko Fukuyama

Signature of Author

12-5-2005

Date

The Effects of Gender and Cultural
Differences in Career Alignment and Career
Satisfaction in the United States and Japan

Title of Thesis

Dee Cooper

Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member

12-15-05

Date Received