

**SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION LEVELS OF FEMALE GRADUATES
OF A JAPANESE UNIVERSITY**

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels of female graduates in Japan using the results of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to 8,000 subjects chosen from about 355,000 graduates of the 11 colleges of Nihon University from November 1999 to January 2000. This research analyzed 186 responses by women out of the 1,785 returned usable questionnaires administered to both sexes for a usable answer rate of 22.1%. The findings were as follows: (1) Women are more likely to commit to their jobs than to their organizations. (2) Despite the finding that women have less confidence in being employed using their competencies after retirement, they have negative attitudes towards the development of their competencies and the expansion of personal relationships outside of their organizations. (3) Although women are likely to be satisfied with the content of their jobs and human relations at work, they are less likely to be satisfied with their income and the future prospects of their jobs. (4) Although women are satisfied with life in general, they are worried about health and the effects of aging for both themselves and their families, especially their parents. (5) Although women have strong connections to their family and school friends, they feel a weaker connection to their co-workers and neighbors. These results indicate that Japanese women are more likely to be worried about their futures, in particular their careers, health and aging, because of their working and social environment, a finding which is likely to result in reduced satisfaction in general. The results also suggest that a woman's human network, which exerts an influence on job satisfaction and life satisfaction, is relatively limited.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Life Satisfaction, Social Networks, Career, Female Graduates

Job and Life Satisfaction

This study analyzed the levels of job satisfaction and life satisfaction for women using a subset of the data set gathered in 1999 to examine the factors determining whole life satisfaction of Japanese university graduates from a large private university in Tokyoⁱ⁾. We divided life into three categories (family life, working life and social life) to investigate how these three are connected to individuals' whole life satisfaction levels. The results of the first study were designed to be directly comparable with a similar studyⁱⁱ⁾ conducted by another large private university in Tokyo. The findings of the first study were as follows: (1) The older individuals are, the higher their satisfaction is. (2) The larger the organizations that individuals work for, the higher their satisfaction with working life is. (3) The more times individuals change their jobs, the higher their job commitment is, though the lower their satisfaction is. These tendencies can be seen in Japanese university graduates in general.

This study aimed to investigate the job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels of female university graduates using the data set gathered for the first study. We used the same data set for several reasons. First, the first study was conducted for graduates of a single (coeducational) university. Second, the previous study makes it possible to compare men and women who earned the same degree from the same university. Third, as the first study only analyzed male respondents, few analyses of female graduates from coeducational university have been conducted. Fourth, this research is unique in sampling and research design because most studies of women's satisfaction are focused on gender equality, unpaid work and the work-life balance.

METHOD

Procedure

This study used the data set collected from a questionnaire to investigate the levels of whole life satisfaction of white-collar employees who had earned undergraduate degreesⁱⁱⁱ⁾. The data was gathered between November 1999 and January 2000 for graduates from Nihon University, the largest private university in Tokyo. This university, which was established in 1889, has over 760,000 graduates and approximately 70,000 current students, and consists of 16 colleges, including a correspondence college and a junior college, and 18 graduate schools. A population of about 355,000 graduates was on the address list of the alumni association of Nihon University as of November 1st of 1999. We chose 8,000 samples from this population based on the following criteria: an individual who had earned an undergraduate

degree from one of 11 colleges (excluding the Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry and Correspondence) between 1957 and 1994. The sampling interval for the population was approximately 39 people. However, the interval for graduates living in Tokyo was set at 78 people because those in Tokyo constituted more than 20% of the population. The questionnaire was mailed to 8,000 individuals chosen according to the above criteria, and 1,765 usable responses were returned, for a usable answer rate of 22.1%. Of respondents, 1,579 were men and 186 were women.

Samples

This study analyzed 186 responses by women out of the total of 1,785 returned usable questionnaires.

Age. More than 30% of the female respondents were under 34 years of age and less than 10% were more than 45 (see Table 1). To compare this with the age distribution of male respondents, which was approximately the same in every generation, that of women differed substantially between generations. This seems to be reflected by the increasing number of women who participate in higher education. For Japanese women overall, 4.7% of the 55 year old women went to a university and 6.7% went to a junior college, 13% of the 45 year old women went to a university and 20% went to a junior college, and 15% of the 30 year old women went to a university and 22% went to a junior college. For comparison, in March 2000, 31.5% of high-school leavers went to four-year universities and 17.2% went to two-year junior colleges.^{iv)}

Employment (see Table 2). 71% of the samples were employees, combining the full-time, part-time (including temporary) and self-employed groups, whereas 27.4% were unemployed. Japanese women's labor participation rate by ages shows an M shaped curve. The radical drop in the 30-34 age group indicates that a large number of women leave their jobs for childbirth and childcare. This is supported by this study, which found that 21 (35.6%) of those in the under 34 age group and 27 (61.4%) of those in the 35-39 age group had preschool children and 14 individuals of each group (66.7% of the former / 51.9% of the latter) were unemployed.

Occupation. Of the types of jobs, special/technical jobs received the largest number of responses (42.4%). Of the types of industry, the service industry (21.2%), retail industry (18.2%), others (15.9%) and government/public sector (15.2%) were reported, in order of frequency.

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Change of Occupation. Half of the samples had experienced a change in their occupation. The reasons were “great dissatisfaction with their jobs and organization” (28.7%) and “finding another job with better conditions” (18.8%). Thirty individuals (79.0%) of those who reported “their health or family matters” (n=38) had children. This also implies childbirth and childcare exert an influence on women’s ability to work.

Family. Of family with whom respondents lived, “a spouse and children” (n=39, 21.0%), “parents” (n=31, 16.7%) and “a spouse, children and parents” (n=26, 14.0%) were reported, in that order.

Income. Of household income, the group ranging from about \$60,000 to \$84,999 was reported the most (n=47, 25.3%), followed by the group from about \$40,000 to \$59,999 (n=35, 18.8%), the group from about \$85,000 to \$124,999 (n=35, 18.8%) and group from \$125,000 to \$159,999 (n=26, 14.0%).

RESULTS

The results of this study examined job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels by analyzing the responses regarding job, job commitment and organizational commitment, view of career, the relationship with family and social networks.

Job Commitment and Organizational Commitment

For job commitment and organizational commitment, we analyzed only the respondents who were full-time workers (n=66).

Job Commitment. We used 10 items to assess job commitment. Samples responded on 5-point scales ranging from 1 to 5. The items that received high scores were “I accept overtime work and holidays as much as possible if they are needed for the organization” (average = 3.56), and “I would like to do my best for the organization’s growth” (3.35). The items that received low scores were “I have confidence in being employed using my competencies after retirement” (2.16) and “I think I am in the same boat as the organization” (2.22). The mean score for the 10 items was 2.77 and only three items were related at more than 3.0. This implies that job commitment is not very high (see Table 3).

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Organizational Commitment. For organizational commitment, individuals also responded on 5-point scales for 10 items. The items that received high scores were “I would rather stay with my present organization than find a new one because it may not offer better working conditions” (3.36), “I do not think there are better organizations to work for than my present organization” (3.21), and “I would like to stay with my present organization from now on because I have worked for it for so many years” (3.21). The items that received low scores were “I would like to work for my present organization even if I would not be able to pursue a preferable career” (2.17), “I do not want to work for a smaller organization than my present organization even if I would be able to pursue preferable jobs” (2.52), and “I would like to stay with my present organization because it has plenty of great co-workers” (2.54). The mean score for the 10 items was 2.72 and only three items were over 3.0. This also shows that organizational commitment is relatively low (see Table 3).

Comparison between Sexes. For job commitment and organizational commitment, we compared the scores of the samples with those found earlier for the male respondents (n=1113; full-time workers). In 17 of the 20 items, the scores of men were higher than those of women (all three items in which women’s scores were higher were related to job commitment). Of the items that scored more than 3.5 points, women had only one, whereas men had three. It is likely that the scores of male respondents were higher as a whole. The items that differed between men and women by more than 0.4 points were three items in job commitment and four in organizational commitment. Table 3 shows that women were more likely to commit to jobs than men were.

View of Career

Career Design. Respondents were asked to make a single choice out of 5 items regarding the career plan that they drafted when they started their career and how they saw it now. Of the career design that they had when they started their career, the items “I would like to obtain the specific abilities that are useful for every organization” (n=58, 31.2%) and “I had some images but they were not so specific” (n=56, 30.1%) received relatively large responses. Of the current career design, “I would like to spend more time with our family and with doing private activities rather than at work” (n=66, 35.5%), and “I would like to obtain the skills and knowledge needed to start a business” (n=48, 25.8%) received more responses. It is difficult to determine the reasons. This may result from satisfaction with their past career, which led them to pay more attention to their personal life instead, or may result from the long lasting recession that made them disappointed with their future prospects. Of the item “I

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would like to become a top manager in the organization”, few women reported this either when they started their career (n=3, 1.6%) or currently (n=2, 1.1%). However, men (n=1569) reported this both when they started their career (n=259, 16.5%) and currently (n=98, 6.2%).

Career Development. Among the 20 items concerned with job commitment and organizational commitment, we analyzed career development and career considerations in 6 items whose mean scores were below 2.50 (see Table 3). The results suggested that women were less likely to feel attached to the organization per se. They also showed that they were prone to have negative attitudes toward the acquisition of competencies that would enable them to be employed after their retirement and toward the development of competencies that would assist them to obtain a new job offering higher positions and better conditions.

Career Images. We asked respondents how they found their career compared with what they expected when they started their career. They reported “it is difficult to compare” (n=45, 24.2%), “it is different from what I expected” (n=42, 22.6%), “it is somehow different from what I expected” (n=39, 21.0%) and “it is almost the same as what I expected” (n=35, 18.8%). “It is the same as what I expected” was not often reported (n=10, 5.4%). As a whole, the negative responses; “it is different from what I expected” and “it is somehow different from what I expected” accounted for about 45% of the women.

The factors influencing career development at work. We developed 12 items to examine the factors that exert a great influence on individuals’ careers at work and asked about each item using five-point scales (see Figure 1). The items reported by both men and women were “their competencies”. Comparing women with men, the great differences in their understanding of factors that had influenced their career development were found in the items “qualifications and specialty” and “spouses”. The differences were also found in “educational backgrounds / university names”, “friends in the same organization”, “bosses”, and “time backgrounds”. The results showed women were more likely to feel that they were influenced by external factors to a greater extent.

Relationship with the Family

Favorable Family Images. For favorable family images, “both a husband and a wife have their work and hobbies, and each of them are absorbed in those respectively

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(independence)” received the highest response (n=82, 44.1%), followed by “a husband has concerns for his family and a wife is also absorbed in making a comfortable home (cooperation)” (n=49, 26.3%), “the relationship between a husband and a wife and that between parents and children should seem to be good friends” (n=24, 12.9%). The archetypal family images, established in the Japanese economic growth period after the Second World War, such as “a husband is dignified as a master of a family and a wife adores him (obedience)” (n=13, 7.0%) and “a husband is devoted to his work, a wife is devoted to her family (division of roles)” (n=6, 3.2%) were reported by fewer people, who tended to be older.

Some of the above items are also used by Nippon Hoso Kyokai (NHK: Japanese National Broadcasting), who have conducted public opinion research polls^{v)} every five years since 1973. Of favorable family images, among four items in NHK’s surveys, “cooperation” (45%) got the highest response, followed by “independence” (23%), “division of roles” (17%) and “obedience” (13%). The public image of a favorable family has been gradually changing from “division of roles” and “obedience” to “cooperation” and “independence” with each successive survey. The findings of this study were notable in that “independence” was reported by about a half of the respondents.

Communication with Family. Of the respondents, 145 (78.4%) were married and those with children numbered 105 (56.8%). They were asked about their communication with spouses and children who lived with them. For mealtime and holidays, they responded on 5-point scales. These items were as follows: (1) To have meals with spouses (3.93) and with children (4.44), (2) To watch the same TV programs with spouses (3.70) and with children (3.64), (3) To share common interests with spouses (4.21) and with children (4.06), (4) To share the same hobbies and/or play sports with spouses (3.22) and with children (3.30), and (5) To spend holidays with spouses (4.01) and with children (3.99). The results showed that the respondents regularly communicated with their families. In addition, the items concerning communication with the whole family, (6) to have enough time to communicate with the family (3.68) and (7) to communicate with the family as a whole (3.98), received high scores, which again demonstrated a close relationship with their family.

Consciousness of General Life. For the 7 items regarding daily life, samples responded on 5-point scales, ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). Sixty four percent (n=119) of respondents reported themselves to be satisfied with general family life. The items in which they expressed the dissatisfaction (anxiety)

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included “concern about the aging of their parents”(2.55), “concern about their own aging”(2.62), and “the health of family and/or relatives” (2.79) (see Figure 2). Although men showed similar tendencies, women were more likely to be dissatisfied (anxious). Japanese’ sense of values and the pressure from the society that women are supposed to play a more important role in family life may make women feel anxious.

Social Networks

Figure 3 shows people’s connections to others based on 5-point scales^{vi)} for 13 items. Women had strong connections to parents, children, family and school friends, but they felt a weaker connection to their co-workers and neighbors. Although men showed similar tendencies, their connections to co-workers were stronger than those of women. This implies women’s social networks were narrower than men’s. The public opinion poll by NHK showed a similar tendency for women’s relationships with neighbors, relatives and co-workers to be limited or formal.

Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction. For job satisfaction, we used 5-point scales for 10 items (n=135). The items were related to their jobs ((2) the contents of their jobs, (6) whether their jobs are challenging and give spice to their life, and (7) whether they are suited for their jobs), work conditions ((1) work time and vacations, (3) incomes, (8) worries that the job harms his/her health, (5) human relations at work, (4) social status associated with work, (9) opportunities in working life, and (10) satisfaction with whole working life). The average for (10), satisfaction with whole working life, was 3.33. Giving the scores for each item in turn, (2) the contents of their jobs, was 3.72, (5) human relations at work, was 3.66, (7) whether they are suited for their jobs, was 3.64, (6) whether their jobs are challenging and giving spice to their life, was 3.57, (1) work conditions and vacations, was 3.47, (8) worries that the job harms his/her health, was 3.46, (4) social positions associated with work, was 3.43, (3) incomes, was 2.82, and (9) opportunities in working life, was 2.75. Separating these items according to their employed status, those who were self-employed showed the highest satisfaction in 7 items, excluding only work time, incomes and whole working life, with especially high scores for 3 job-related items and one item for human relations.. In 7 items, the satisfaction of part timers was higher than that of full-time workers. Figure 4 demonstrates the significant differences between full timers and part timers, especially with regard to work conditions, worries about possible harm to their health and human relations. For job satisfaction, respondents were likely to be satisfied with

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their jobs ((2), (6), and (7)) and human relations at work (5), although they were less likely to be satisfied with their incomes (3) and opportunities in their working life (9).

Career Satisfaction. We asked about the career satisfaction at work using 5-point scales (n=167). “Somewhat satisfied” (n=65, 34.9%), “neutral” (n=46, 24.7%), “somewhat dissatisfied” (n=23, 12.4%), “very satisfied” (n=19, 10.2%) and “very dissatisfied” (n=15, 8.1%) were reported, in that order. About a half reported being “satisfied” (including both “very satisfied” and “somewhat satisfied”) with their career at work. Among those (n=45) who reported their career to be as they expected (who reported “just as expected” and “somewhat as expected”), 41 individuals (91.1%) were also satisfied with their career (reporting “very satisfied” and “somewhat satisfied”). However, among those (n=76) who reported their career to have failed to proceed as they expected (reporting “very different” and “somewhat different”), 30 individuals were satisfied with their career (“very satisfied” and “somewhat satisfied”) while 25 were dissatisfied with their career (“very dissatisfied” and “somewhat dissatisfied”). These results indicate that it is possible that even if individuals’ career images differ from what they expected, career satisfaction can still be elevated by other factors.

Life Satisfaction. For 20 items regarding life satisfaction, samples reported on 5-point scales (see Table 5). Their mean scores for the 12 items were over 3.5 (16 items in the men’s case), suggesting their life satisfaction level was high. There were 3 common items where both men and women scored more than 4.0, all of which were related to human relations. This showed that respondents were very likely to value the closeness in human relations and self-affirmation. 117 individuals (62.9%) were satisfied with their general daily life, whereas 129 individuals (69.3%) were satisfied with their entire career.

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this research was to examine the job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels of female graduates in Japan. The major contributions of the study fall into three categories. First, the study reveals that the life satisfaction of Japanese women was generally high, whereas that of job satisfaction was lower. Second, the study reveals that although Japanese women were relatively satisfied with their career, their commitment to their jobs and to their organizations was not so strong. Third, Japanese women felt strong connections to their family, although they had only

limited and formal connections to their neighbors and co-workers. In addition, they were likely to be worried about the health of themselves and their family, especially the nursing and/or the care of their aging parents.

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The results of this study showed respondents were satisfied with their life because of their good relationship with their family, whereas they were not satisfied with their jobs, probably due to the environment surrounding Japanese women, especially those who are married. Although the environment is improving gradually, most married women are still expected to play the major role regarding housework and childcare. The working conditions of husbands (or family members) are also deterrents because they do not have enough time to help women with the housework, childcare, nursing and/or the care of old parents and so on. Thus, Japanese women carry heavy burdens mentally and physically at home.

In 1999, the Japanese Ministry of Health (the present Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare) advertised nationally recommending that men should devote more time to childcare, by using the copy; “The man who does not take care of his children is not a real father”. However, most men’s reactions were “how can I find the time for that, though?”. A survey by the Japanese Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Post and Telecommunications shows that men spend 17 minutes on childcare, 20 minutes on housework and 7 hours 36 minutes at work each weekday. In addition to the low level of men’s contributions to a “gender-equal society”, Japanese organizations are required to change their practices by introducing reduced working hours and family friendly plans.

Moreover, the lack of nursery schools is a serious problem. There are about 20,000 children who are unable to find a nursery school to attend, most of whom live in large cities. In the country, mothers expect their parents or grand parents living with them to take care of their children, whereas in the town they have less support from their families because most people neither live with their parents nor live near their parents. Of the respondents of this study, those living in Tokyo comprised 42 people (22.6%) and those living in the Metropolitan area (consisting of Tokyo, Kanagawa, Saitama, Chiba) comprised 119 people (64.0%). The geographical background could exert a great influence on people’s satisfaction.

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These findings indicate the difficulties experienced by married women as they attempt to advance their career, to move to a job offering better conditions and to find a job after they return from having children, with the associated problem of finding suitable childcare. No matter if an individual is a full-timer or a part-timer, she pursues her routine work positively, but she has no idea what her future prospects are. This leads to the comparatively low job satisfaction levels of many women.

Social Networks

The findings showed the connections to others outside the family were limited and formal. Women received little support, especially from supervisors and bosses in work settings, which means their opportunities to receive mentoring and coaching are limited and this eventually affects the career development of women. In addition, the social supports from communities and relatives were also low. It may be a limitation of this research, because most respondents lived in big cities, which may have influenced the results. However, it is disputable that the findings of this study support the research of Reich & Zautra (1981)^{vii)} that showed that social networks increase the feeling of happiness. Future research should continue to investigate the relationships between social networks and job/life satisfaction.

In addition, women were also prone to worry about the health and aging of themselves, their family and their parents, and nursing and/or taking care of them. Although 30% of respondents were under 34 years-old, strong anxiety about these issues was shown. First, the aging of Japanese society may reflect their dissatisfaction and anxiety. Of the average life expectancy of Japanese in 2002, that of women is 84.60 years and men is 77.72 years, the longest in the world. The ratio of the old (those over 65 years) has been increasing from 4.9% in 1940 to 17.3% in 2000, though it is also influenced by the decreasing number of children. Of the ratio of women among the old, of those over 65 years it is about 60%, while of those over 85 years it is about 70%. The number of single older women has increased from 690,000 people in 1980 to 2,290,000 people in 2000. Second, in addition to the Japanese' viewpoints and the social pressure for women to nurse and take care of their family, discussed above, there are few expectations of social support for them. Increases in the expenses incurred for the medical care of parents and grandparents, decrease of the reliability of pension schemes and medical insurance, insufficient social welfare for the old, and the decline in property value affected by the long lasting recession in the Japanese economy may also exert a great influence on women's anxiety levels.

Limitations and Future Research

This research aimed to investigate the job satisfaction and life satisfaction of female graduates of a Japanese university. This was achieved by finding the feelings of female graduates with respect to their job satisfaction and life satisfaction, especially when compared to male graduates. However, it is important to recognize the limitations of this study. First, the number of samples of women was far fewer than of men, accounting for about 10%. Second, the distribution of samples was unequal. About 30% of respondents were under 34 years-old and about 60% of those lived in the Metropolitan area. The findings need to be interpreted with this background in mind.

Considering these limitations, future research is needed in the following areas. First, research needs to control the demography of respondents, such as their ages, their places of residence, their departments of universities, their occupational backgrounds, and the occupations/working hours/consideration of gender-equal society of their spouses. Second, future research needs to use structured interviews focusing on their views of life and career, and occupational backgrounds to find the thoughts of Japanese women. Third, research needs to be examined to compare this group with graduates from other universities. Moreover, future research should investigate the determinants needed to improve whole life satisfaction and the viewpoints and measures of career education and career supports, by examining the job satisfaction and life satisfaction of female graduates of Japanese universities.

Table 1. Age Distribution by Sex

	Total	- 34	35 - 39	40 - 44	45 - 49	50 - 54	55 - 59	60 - 64	65 - 69	70 -	NA
Women	186	59	44	34	16	13	10	7	3	0	0
	100.0	31.7	23.7	18.3	8.6	7.0	5.4	3.8	1.6	0.0	0.0
Men	1569	156	204	270	276	260	204	143	50	4	2
	100.0	9.9	13.0	17.2	17.6	16.6	13.0	9.1	3.2	0.3	0.1
NA	10	0	1	0	3	2	2	1	1	0	0
	100.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	30.0	20.0	20.0	10.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
Total	1765	215	249	304	295	275	216	151	54	4	2
	100.0	12.2	14.1	17.2	16.7	15.6	12.2	8.6	3.1	0.2	0.1

Note. $\chi^2 = 110.959$, $df = 8$, $P = 0.0000$ **:1% significant NA = No Answer

Table 2. Employed Status by Sex

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	Total	Self-employed	Full-time	Part-time*	Unemployed	Others	NA
Women	186	29	66	37	51	2	1
	100.0	15.6	35.5	19.9	27.4	1.1	0.5
Men	1569	344	1113	47	50	15	0
	100.0	21.9	70.9	3.0	3.2	1.0	0.0
NA	10	0	9	0	1	0	0
	100.0	0.0	90.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	0.0
Total	1765	373	1188	84	102	17	1
	100.0	21.1	67.3	4.8	5.8	1.0	0.1

Note. $\chi^2 = 304.4263$ $df = 4$ $P = 0.0000$ **:1% significant. Part-time including temporary workers

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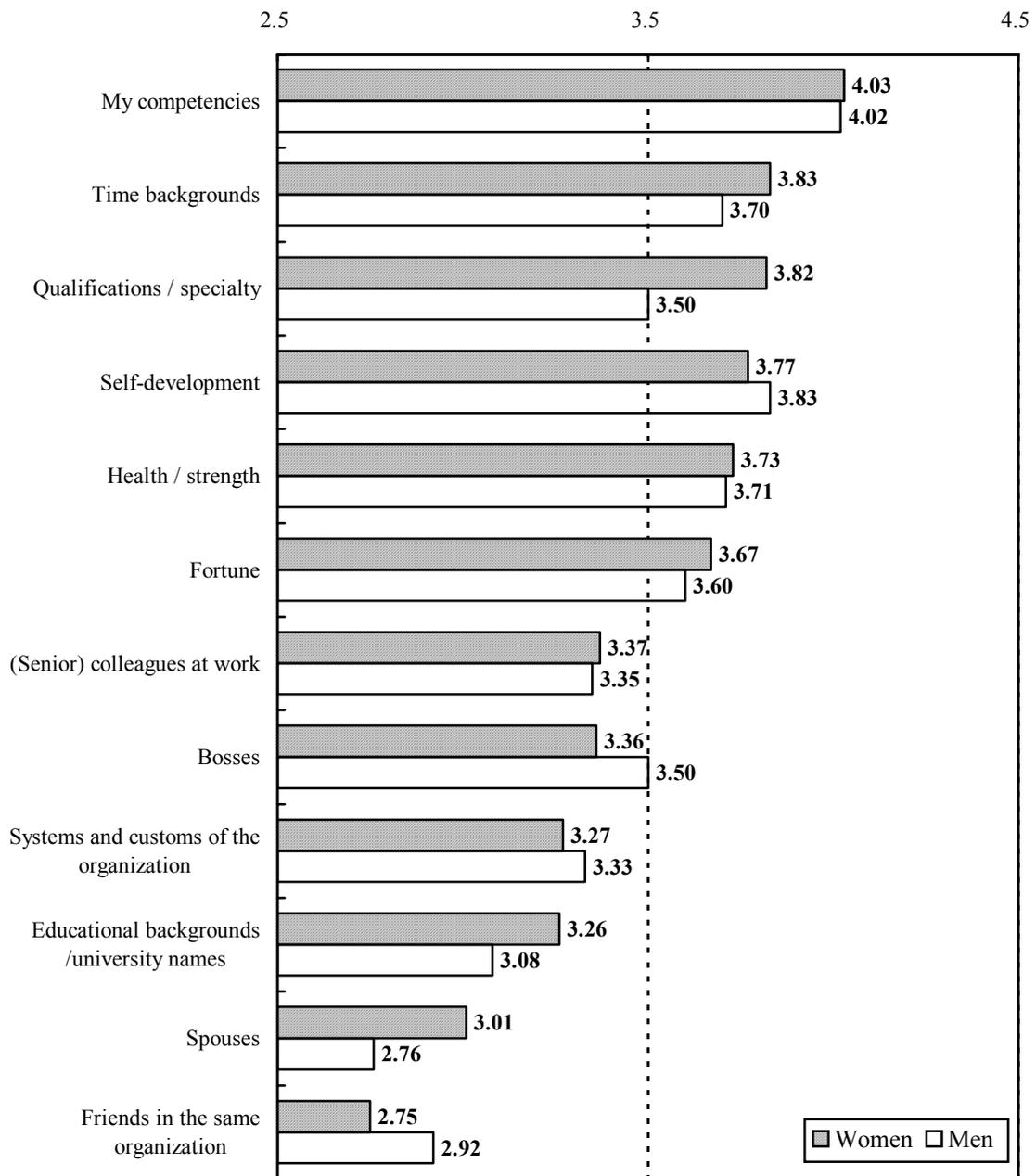
Table 3. Job Commitment and Organizational Commitment

	Item	Women ^{*2}	Men
	I do not care what kinds of jobs I perform if they are ordered as business needs	2.81	3.22
	I do my best for my special jobs, not for organizational jobs	2.76	2.71
	I would like to do my best for the organization's growth	3.35	3.63
	The organization is a way to use my specialty	2.78	2.81
	I accept overtime work and holidays as much as possible if they are needed for the organization	3.56	3.58
JC	I do not devote myself to the organization because the relationship is businesslike.	3.06	3.03
	I think I am in the same boat as the organization	2.22	2.64
	I endeavor to develop my competencies in order to find a position in other organization	2.25	2.01
	I think my networks are outside my present organization rather than in it	2.71	2.96
	I have confidence in being employed using my competencies after retirement	2.16	2.85
	Mean of ten items	2.77	2.94
	I like my present organization, so I will not move to another organization even if it offers better jobs and salaries	2.43	2.91
	I would rather stay with my present organization even if its future is not favorable because it still attracts me	2.43	2.74
	I would like to work for my present organization even if I would not be able to pursue a preferable career ^{*1}	2.17	2.81
	I do not think there are better organizations to work for than my present organization	3.21	3.35
	I would like to stay with my present organization because it has plenty of great co-workers	2.54	2.76
OC	I would like to stay with my present organization from now on because I have worked for it for so many years	3.21	3.52
	I would like to work for my present organization from now on because I know it pays greater attention to its employees.	2.65	2.99
	I have no plans to change to another organization because I am comfortable staying with the same organization	2.67	3.08
	I do not want to work for a smaller organization than my present organization even if I would be able to pursue preferable jobs	2.52	2.92
	I would rather stay with my present organization than find a new one because it may not offer better working conditions	3.36	3.41
	Mean of ten items	2.72	3.05

Note. JC = Job Commitment, OC = Organizational Commitment, *1 In this case, career means jobs and courses at work, *2 Shaded numbers mean the scores of women are higher than those of men, Italic numbers mean the mean between women and men is more than 0.4 points.

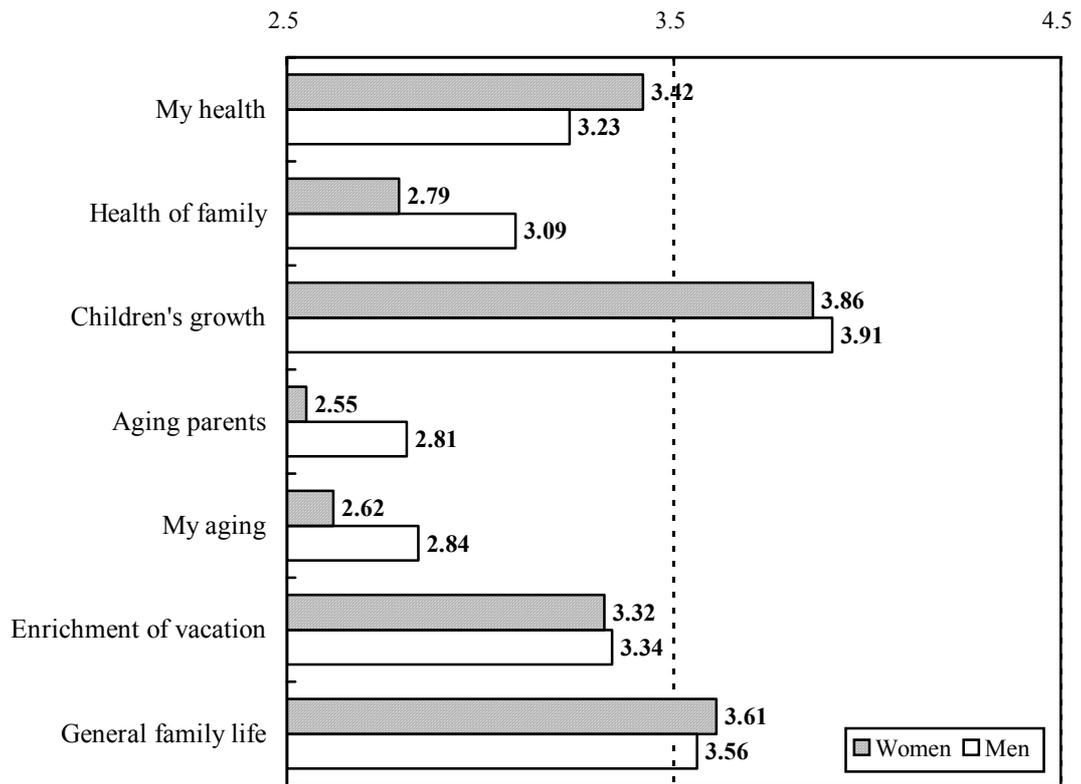
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Figure 1. The Determinants of Career Development



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Figure 2. Consciousness About Whole Life



Job and Life Satisfaction

Figure 3. Closeness of Human Relations

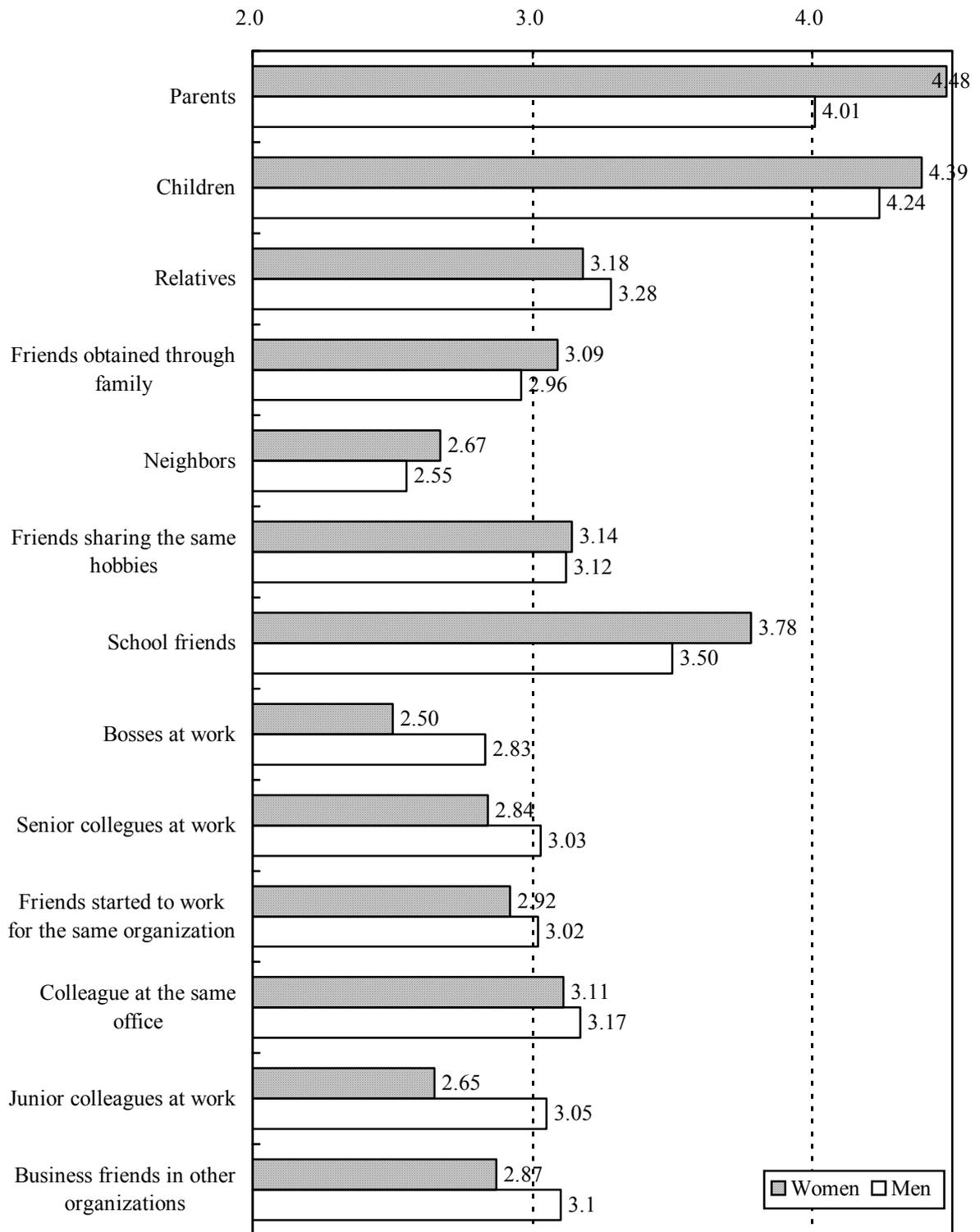
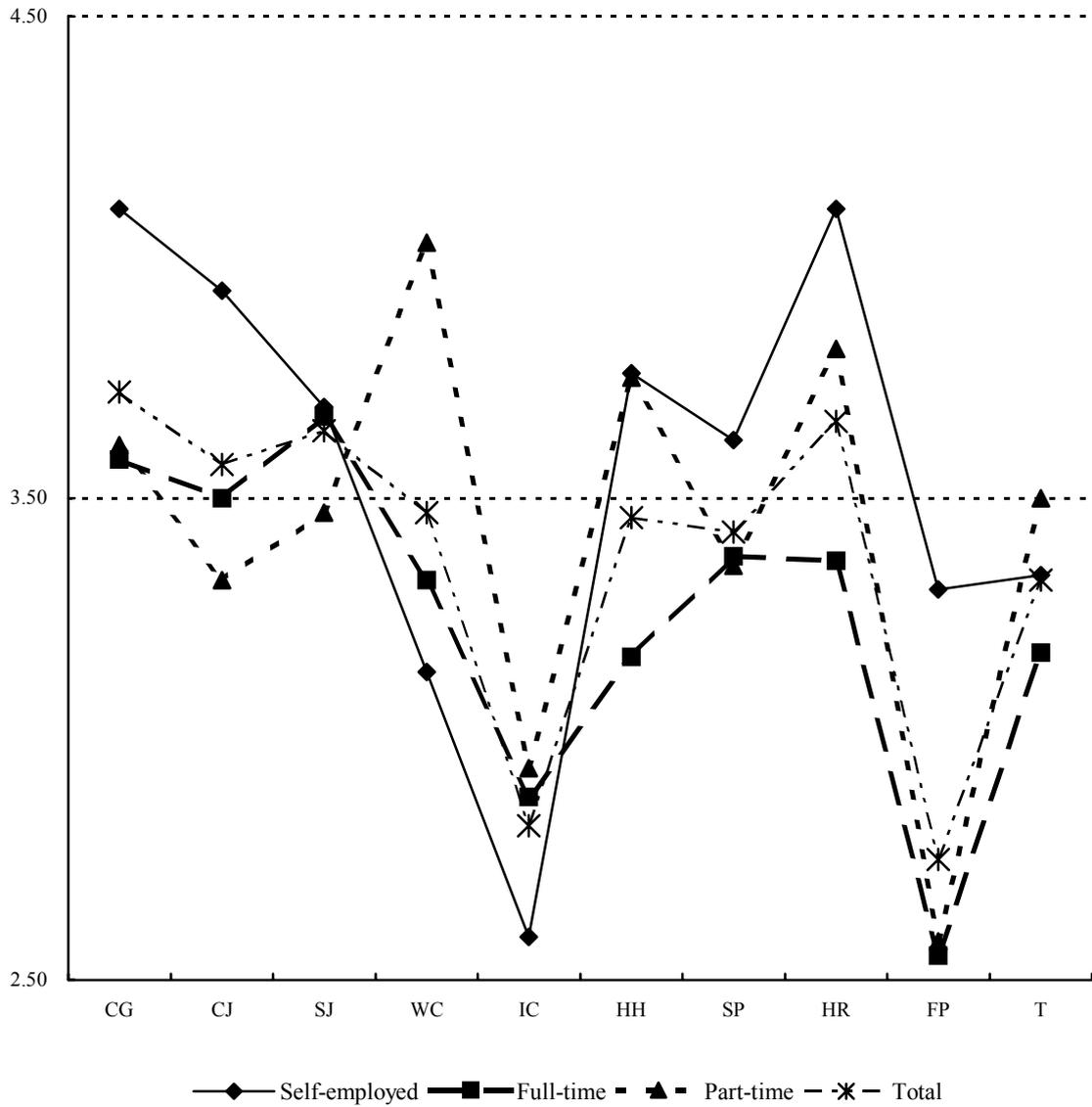


Figure 4. Job Satisfaction by Employed Status



Note. CG = Contents of jobs, CJ = Challenging jobs, SJ = Suitable jobs, WC = Work conditions, IC = Income, HH = Jobs harming health, SP = Social positions, HR = Human relations, FP = Future prospects, T = Total

Job and Life Satisfaction

Table 5. Life Satisfaction Indicators

Item	Wome n	Men
I have something to devote myself to other than my job	3.54	3.29
I am resistant to stress because I know how to refresh myself	3.26	3.56
I always attempt to make a plan for vacations beforehand so as not to waste the time	3.07	3.18
There are people who need me in my society and my family	4.47	4.29
I attempt to listen to what others say	4.37	4.18
I attempt to balance jobs, family and society because these three are essential for my life	3.23	3.59
I attempt to communicate with people as much as possible	3.48	3.51
I am endeavoring to reach a goal set by myself	3.53	3.56
I always think about what I can do for others	3.36	3.46
I am satisfied with daily life in general	3.58	3.51
The happiness of life is determined not by the richness of money but by the richness of heart	3.89	3.78
I attempt to reach higher levels as a businessman/woman	3.22	3.68
When I am consulted by others, I would rather listen to their words than advise or encourage them	3.23	3.10
When I am having a hard time, I attempt to be positive by changing my point of view and the way I think about things	3.82	3.91
I would like to pursue my dreams and ideals through my entire life	3.85	3.78
Around me, I have someone taking care of me and concerned about me	4.63	4.19
When I think about people who “died regrettably”, it makes me want to do something with my life	3.76	3.68
I think paying attention to the relationship between senior and junior, and the situation of people is very important in the world	3.46	3.63
I attempt not to do things the hard way, but to do them in my own way	4.04	3.77
I am satisfied with my entire career	3.70	3.63

Note. Shadowed numbers mean items having significant differences between women and men

ⁱ⁾ Baba, M. et al., (2002). “A Study of Investigating Factors of Working Life that Determines Whole Life Satisfaction of White-Collar Workers Who Earned Undergraduate Degrees”, *Survey Reports on Business Administration Trends*, 25. This study only analyzed male respondents.

ⁱⁱ⁾ Waseda University Study Group of Human Resource Issues. (1997). *A Study of the Fluid Labor Market*. This study analyzed 1386 samples, all men aged from 30 to 60, working for private enterprises.

ⁱⁱⁱ⁾ In order to facilitate comparison with other studies, Baba et al. (2002) used items regarding job satisfaction, job commitment and organizational commitment from the following sources:

- Waseda University Study Group of Human Resource Issues. (1997). *A Study of the Fluid Labor Market*.
- Sekimoto, M. et al. (1992). “Change in Consideration of a Sense of Belonging”, *Law Research*, 65(1):287-312.

^{iv)} Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. (2002). *Statistics of School Education*.

^{v)} NHK Broadcasting Research Center ed.. (2000). *Construction of Consciousness of Japanese People at Present (5th ed.)*. Tokyo, NHK Books. The first survey was conducted in 1973. This book reported the data from the 6th survey conducted in October 1998. The 6th survey received 3,622 usable responses by interviews conducted with 5,400 men and women over 16 years-old in 450 places in Japan by 12 interviewers.

^{vi)} For daily human relationships, we used 5-point scales ranging from 1 (I do not have anyone), 2 (I have the minimum relationships to fulfill my obligations), 3 (I have informal relationships), 4 (I have good relationships and consult each other), to 5 (I have close relationships and we help each other). Samples responded for the closest people to them, who could be friends, neighbors and

relatives.

^{vii)} Reich, J.W. and Zautra, A.J., (1981). "Life events and personal causation", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41:1002-1012.