HOKKAIDO UNIVERSITY

Title	A Comparative Analysis of the Career Orientations of Japanese and Canadian Students
Author(s)	FIRAKOLA, Peter; TIESSEN, James.H
Citation	ECONOMIC JOURNAL OF HOKKAIDO UNIVERSITY, 27, 65-80
Issue Date	1998
Doc URL	https://hdl.handle.net/2115/30565
Type	departmental bulletin paper
File Information	27_P65-80.pdf

Hokkaido University Collection of Scholarly and Academic Papers : HUSCAP

Econ. J. of Hokkaido Univ.,
Vol. 27 (1998), pp. 65~80

A Comparative Analysis of the Career Orientations of Japanese and Canadian Students

Peter FIRKOLA
James H. TIESSEN

This study compared the career orientations of Japanese and Canadian students about to make their way into today's changing workplace. An instrument based primarily on Schein's (1990) Career Anchor questionnaire was applied to a total of 321 business students in the two countries. The data showed the Japanese were more oriented towards Security/Stability and Rootedness, the Canadians were more oriented towards General Management success, and the Entrepreneurial and Lifestyle orientations did not significantly differ between the groups. The main implication is that Japanese students may have to adjust their career expectations as companies change their management practices.

1. Introduction

Japan's traditional management practices have been credited with contributing to that country's rapid economic growth through the late 1980's. This management system though has never been static, it has evolved through continual adjustments to new economic, social, and competitive priorities (Mroczkowski and Hanaoka, 1988). Increased global competition and the bursting of the bubble economy have prevented most Japanese firms from continuing their traditional growth strategy. As noted by Nonaka (1988), Befu and Cernosia (1990), and Stern and Muta (1990), the traditional Japanese management system, faced with these current macro trends, appears to have become outdated, as evidenced by increasing corporate deficits, bankruptcies and plant closings.

The current economic situation is having a significant effect on many company Human Resource (HR) policies. Reduced promotion opportunities and increased layoffs are causing companies to alter their management system, encouraging workers to take greater individual responsibility for their careers (Chiba, Iikubo and Sawaji, 1997). This suggests a convergence of Japanese and North American employment practices is underway. This study examines how the pending convergence of human resource policies is influencing the career orientations of those most affected by these changes: Japanese university students about to enter the work force.

2. Background

The research to date on white collar careers in Japan has focused mostly on

paths and promotion patterns (Firkola, 1996). Sasaki (1990) described career paths[1] of Japanese employees as being generalized and cross-functional. This traditional career path begins with employees being recruited from leading universities into the corporation. They are then transferred through different departments every three to four years, with some employees eventually being promoted to upper management, while others are seconded to a subsidiary or forced to retire. This research typically is framed by the firm's point of view, as it focuses on the development of human capital deployed by companies (e. g. see McMillan, 1989 : pp. 171-198).

Two recent studies have used Schein's (1990) *Career Anchor* questionnaire to examine career practices in Japan from an individual perspective. *Career Anchors* are factors or motives that lead people to choose one type of career over another early in their work life (Schein 1975). A key implication is that individuals with differing orientations require different career paths. Schein's (1990) work over several years identified eight *Anchors* : (1) Autonomy/Independence ; (2) Security/Stability ; (3) Technical-Functional Competence ; (4) General Managerial Competence ; (5) Entrepreneurial Creativity ; (6) Service or Dedication to a Cause ; (7) Pure Challenge ; and (8) Lifestyle.

Hirano (1994) examined *Career Anchors* at a Japanese retail store, using a sample of 121 middle managers. His study led to the development of a *Career Anchor* contingency model. This model contends that the type of organizational structure is related to the individual's orientation. In a mechanistic centralized structure, individuals oriented towards the General Managerial *Anchor* tended to fit well. An organic decentralized structure, by contrast, was better suited to individuals aligned with the Technical-Functional *Anchor*.

Sakakibara et al. (1993) looked at how students' orientations, as assessed by their *Career Anchors*, affected the type of company they chose, and were chosen to, work at. This study compared the *Career Anchors* of students entering Japanese companies with those starting to work at foreign affiliated firms. Data were collected in 1989 from 99 undergraduate non-technical students in three top universities in the Tokyo area who had received informal notice of employment. The results indicated that those joining a Japanese company tended to place more emphasis on stability, while those joining foreign affiliated companies emphasized the autonomy, independence, and technical ability *Career Anchors*.

This study builds on Sakakibara et al's (1993) and Hirano's (1994) research on *Career Anchor* orientations in Japan in two ways. First, we add an international comparative dimension by examining Japanese and Canadian students. Second, we update this work by investigating the current generation of white

1) A " career path " is the pattern of sequences and roles an employee moves through, usually related to work experience, during his/her working life (Walker, 1980).

collar job seekers in post-bubble Japan.

3. Research Hypotheses

Our study compares the career aspirations of Japanese and Canadian students at a time of dynamic change. Historical evidence would suggest that Japanese career paths are different from those of Canadians so there should also be differences between the career aspirations of Canadian and Japanese students. However, given the rise in global competition, firms are facing similar business environments. This research investigates if the attitudes of potential employees reflect the changes in the business environment.

The *Career Anchor* concept is used to frame comparisons in student orientations because it (1) indicates current student attitudes towards their careers, (2) provides an indicator of future career behavior, and (3) has been used by other researchers to assess both Japanese and North American views of careers. One more Anchor has been added, Rootedness, to understand how students are preparing for the geographic mobility inherent in many career choices. Schein does not discuss this type of anchor directly, though it is relevant to today's executives. However, Hirano (1994) recommends it be added to Schein's inventory because in Japan willingness to relocate is considered a factor in promotion decisions and thus impacts on an employee's career.

This study looked at differences in the relative orientations of Japanese and Canadian students on five Anchors: General Managerial Competence, Security/Stability, Entrepreneurial Creativity, Lifestyle and Rootedness.[2] These are defined in Table 1. Following we outline the rationales for the five research hypotheses.

General Managerial Competence: Systems which encourage ability based promotion encourages greater orientation toward the goal of exercising managerial talent. Much of the promotion research in Japan has found that seniority plays a large role and is thus different from Western systems. Marsh and Mannari (1976) suggest that seniority and educational background are the two most important factors in promotions in Japanese companies. Ouchi (1981) describes a unique Japanese management practice in which promotion decisions were delayed and newly hired university graduates were promoted through the company at the same speed. In this "deferred competition" model, the identification and development of individual talents are deferred throughout the first few years.

Another reason for higher North American orientation towards this goal is that senior executives gain much higher financial rewards than non-executives.

2) These five anchors were chosen for analysis because this study's measures of the other four did not prove reliable, as described below in the Method section.

In the early 1990's it was estimated that the ratio of CEO to production worker pay exceeded 100, compared with 17 to 25 in Japanese firms (Brown, Nakata, Reich and Ulman, 1997 p. 127-128). Overall in 1991, US CEO pay in medium-sized firms was twice that of their Japanese counterparts (Brown et. al. 1997, citing Milgrom and Roberts, 1992). Similar Canadian ratios are lower, but above that in Japan.[3] The differences at the CEO level are reflected at the lower executive levels. For example, in 1988 firm division managers in the US earned 2.3 times production worker levels, compared with 1.6 in the Japanese case (Brown et. al 1997). The above discussion leads us to state that:

H1: Canadian students are more oriented towards the General Management goals than Japanese students.

Security/Stability: The norm of lifetime employment has resulted in secure and stable careers for many white collar workers. Further, Japan's labor market has traditionally exhibited a lack of mobility. In the US, which exhibits a similar labor market to that in Canada, labor mobility is twice that of Japan (Brown et. al, 1997). Company policies and social influences in Japan have contributed to this state of affairs, especially with respect to layoffs.

Japanese Ministry of Labor surveys showed that both in 1995 and during the previous recession in 1986, Japanese firms resisted terminating workers (Usui and Colignon, 1996).[4] The preferred responses were reducing overtime, reassigning workers and reducing hiring. Even in 1996, deep in a long recession, 52% of respondents to a Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry survey still indicated intentions to adopt or sustain lifetime employment policies (Nakamoto, 1997).

Promotion policies also contribute to the Japanese tendency to spend one's career in one company. Cole (1980) described Japanese companies as having an internal labor market since nearly all senior management jobs are filled by long term employees. Japanese workers are typically seen as having limited transferable skills because they are trained as generalists with knowledge specific to their own companies. The result is that job hopping has been discouraged both socially and financially. With respect to the latter, a recent study showed that workers hired in mid-career started at salaries only 70% of those who were promoted from within (Nakamoto, 1997). These conditions help explain a 1995 government survey (cited in Iwase, 1997) which stated that while 11.7% of all employed workers wanted to change jobs, only one third of these were actively

3) US consulting company Towers Perrin reported that in 1996 CEOs in America earned 24 times the pay of the average manufacturing employees' wage. In Canada the ratio was 13: 1, and Japan 9: 1 (McFarland, 1996).

4) In fact, in 1995 only 3% dismissed even temporary workers to adjust to reduced business (Usui and Colignon, 1996).

taking steps to do so Together these factors, *a priori*, lead to the second hypothesis:

H2: Japanese students are more oriented towards the Security/Stability goals than Canadian students.

Entrepreneurial Creativity: Research on Japanese entrepreneurship has premised its links to individualism and uncertainty avoidance. Japanese, being more collective than individualistic (Hofstede, 1980), are assumed to be less entrepreneurial in terms of starting new business or generating breakthrough innovation (Tiessen, 1997; Herbig, 1995). Research on corporate entrepreneurship has found that in "collectivist" cultures like Japan, the champions of new ideas must seek support from the corporate mainstream; individualistic cultures in contrast favor "renegade" approaches, which offer autonomy to innovators (Shane and Venkataraman, 1993). This supports the conclusion that the collectivist norm in Japan hinders the expression of new ideas which can disrupt group harmony (Herbig, 1995). Further, Japan's high level of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) contributes to a reluctance to take entrepreneurial chances (Herbig, 1995). This discussion gives rise to the third hypothesis:

H3: Canadian students are more oriented towards the Entrepreneurial Creativity Anchor than Japanese students.

Lifestyle: Japanese workers have traditionally been expected to show a greater devotion to their organization than to their personal life. Though the official number of hours worked per year in Japan has fallen to about 1,950 hours, similar to U. S. levels, it has been estimated that Japanese dedicate an additional 400 hours per year to unreported 'service overtime' (Pollack, 1995). This situation has given rise to the well-known incidence of karoshi (death through overwork), which reportedly kills about 10,000 per year (Pollack, 1995). Japan's government, recognizing the reluctance of employees to take the vacations they have earned, has increased the number of national holidays on which it is socially acceptable to stay home.

The measurable hours of working hours do not fully reflect the primacy one's job has amongst Japanese (Deutschmann, 1991). Norms of group orientation, consensus and the importance of human ties demands workers, especially the '*salarimen*', socialize extensively after work. One's office work spills into what is typically private time in North America. Workers typically cannot schedule activities after work because overtime is unscheduled and one is expected to contribute with colleagues (Deutschmann, 1991).

It appears though that Japanese employees, especially younger ones and women, do not necessarily embrace the commitments demanded. They have gratefully accepted weekly 'refresh days', when companies turn off lights and computers, or lock doors, at seven or eight PM to prevent workers from staying too late (Pollack, 1995). Yet while the desires of students in the two countries may not differ greatly, our formulation of H4 assumes young Japanese are conditioned by the prevailing norms of their potential superiors:

H4: Canadian students are more oriented to the Lifestyle Anchor than Japanese students.

Rootedness: Taking an a *priori* position on the relative "rootedness" of Japanese and Canadians is a complex task. At first blush, it seems apparent that Japanese are less amenable to geographic mobility. This is reflected in overall figures: in 1981, 1.5% of Japanese moved to non-adjacent prefectures, compared with 2.8% of Americans who moved between states (Long, 1992).[5]

However, breakdowns of these figures by age show that Japanese mobility between regions exceeds that of Americans until the age of 30 in the case of males, and in the 25-29 age range for females (Long, 1992). These numbers suggest that Japanese young people are more mobile in their early working years as they adjust their lives to serve career goals. However, they later become more rooted. This is likely for two reasons. First there is the high cost of relocation in Japan which makes moving tremendously expensive. Second, the desire of most Japanese parents for a stable educational environment for their children would also encourage rootedness.

The specific research samples used in this research, as mentioned above, are from universities in regional cities removed from their respective countries' business centers. Therefore the samples were not expected to be confounded. The result of the above discussion leads us to claim, on balance that:

H5: Japanese students are more oriented towards Rootedness goals than Canadian students.

4. Method

The research hypotheses were tested using data collected by a survey of Japanese and Canadian students who were about to start their careers. Following, we described the study sample, instrument design, scale refinement, analysis

5) Long (1992) cited other statistics comparing the US and Canada, but not Japan. The similarity of the US and Canadian numbers on this other figure suggests the US and Canadian numbers are comparable.

and limitations.

Subjects

The sample comprised 321 undergraduate management students enrolled in required courses at Hokkaido University (n=134) in Sapporo, Japan and McMaster University (n=187) in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. The universities are comparable because both are reputable public institutions located outside their respective countries' largest urban centers. Though the Japanese group had a smaller proportion of females (28%) than the Canadians (37%), this difference was not statistically significant at a 5% level. In both cases, the survey was applied during class time with a brief introduction which did not betray the study goals.

The Japanese sample though was significantly younger than the Canadian sample. The Japanese students ages ranged from 20 to 24 years old, and averaged 21.3. The Canadian students ages spanned 20 to 27 years old and had a mean of 22.1. This difference occurred because 98% of the Canadian sample were in their final undergraduate year, compared with 22% of the Japanese group. The rest of both samples were in their third year of school. *A priori* this was not expected to affect the research results because employment recruitment typically begins during year three in Japan and year four in Canada.[6]

Instrument Design

Data were collected using Japanese and English language versions of an instrument based mostly on Schein's (1990) Career Anchor self-analysis survey. Respondents were asked to indicate on 5 point scales, ranging from completely disagree to completely agree, the degree to which they agreed with items classified into Schein's (1990) eight categories of values, motives and needs, as well as the Rootedness dimension discussed above. Thirty-five items were used, four items per category, except Pure Challenge which had three. The survey also collected information on the age, sex and school year of the respondents.

The Japanese instrument was constructed first by adapting Sakakibara et al (1993) Japanese translations of Schein items. This was done in Japan by a researcher fluent in Japanese in consultation with Japanese colleagues. The Japanese survey was then translated into English. The English translation was thoroughly reviewed and modified by two professional bilingual translators, one a Canadian raised in Japan, and the other a long-time Japanese resident of Canada.

A key issue was the equivalence of the Japanese and English translations. Our approach used a process similar to back translation, as recommended (Sekaran, 1983; Nasif, 1991). All of the instrument items, except those assessing

6) This was tested for as described below.

Rootedness, were derived from Japanese versions of Schein's (1990) originals. This study's items were compared with Schein's (1990) and found to be similar.[7]

Scale Refinement and Analysis

The five research hypotheses were tested by comparing Japanese and Canadian scores on additive scales measuring the students' orientations. The first step was to standardize each student's scores on all of the items. Therefore the mean score for each student on all 35 items was 0, with a standard deviation of 1. Then the sample scores on each item were standardized across the full sample. The standardization procedures were used for two reasons. First, the resulting item scores reflect the students relative orientations to the anchors rather than their absolute opinions. This is consistent with the notion of orientation. Second, this approach aimed to reduce bias associated with response sets and culture (Leung and Bond, 1989). Reliable scales comprising item scores generated by this rigorous process would be strong etics and therefore appropriate for cross-cultural analysis (Triandis et al, 1993).

The second step in the analysis was refining the *Career Anchors* and Rootedness measures. Measure reliability was assessed by computing Cronbach alphas using the standardized scores. Items that considerably lowered Alpha values were dropped as scale components. The four scales measuring Autonomy/Independence, Technical Functional Competence, Service or Dedication to a Cause and Pure Challenge were found to be unreliable so were not used in the analysis. This was not surprising given the cross-cultural sample and the rigor of the standardization procedures. It should be noted that the Autonomy/Independence items correlated highly with those assessing entrepreneurial creativity, which suggests the latter scale captures a similar orientation.

The Alphas and final items for the five scales used in this study are shown in Table 1. The four item Rootedness and three item Security/Stability measures were reliable, exceeding respectable Alpha levels, 0.70 (DeVillis, 1991 : 85). The General Management (four items) and Entrepreneurial Creativity (four) measures were judged, again using DeVillis (1991) rules of thumb, as minimally acceptable (greater than 0.60). The four item Lifestyle scale alpha was close to this level and therefore used in the analysis.

The standardized item scores comprising each scale were summed and the Japanese and Canadian mean scores were computed.[8] The Hypotheses were then formally tested by performing one-way tests of significance on computed t statis-

7) The choice to use our English items, rather than Schein's, was based on our goal of ensuring equivalence between the translations for this comparative study.

8) The scales used for the final analysis were computed using standardized numbers based on all 35 items. This preserved the respondents' relative assessments of the items as they completed the full set.

Table 1. Scale Items and Alpha Reliability Coefficients

Scales	Items
General Managerial Competence alpha=0.66*	1. I want a job in which I can lead or manage other people. 2. I would like to reach a high level executive position. 3. I would like a job in which I am in charge of the entire organization. 4. I think success in a job is reaching a very high level executive position in an organization.
Entrepreneurial Creativity alpha=0.66	1. I would like a job in which I can create something with my own, original ideas. 2. I would like to start up my own business. 3. I am always looking for ideas that would allow me to start my own enterprise.
Security/Stability alpha=0.66	1. I wish to work for a company that can offer a secure job with a good salary and pension. 2. I hope to work for a company that will provide long term stability. 3. I want to work in a company that can offer lifetime employment.
Lifestyle alpha=0.59	1. I hope to have a job which allows me to keep a balance between my work and private life. 2. I think a balance between my work and private life is more important than receiving a high ranking position in a company. 3. Success is maintaining a balance between one's work and private life. 4. I would rather leave my organization than be in a job that would cause me to sacrifice my private life.
Rootedness alpha=0.85	1. I would rather stay in the place I have settled in than accept a promotion or transfer which involves relocation. 2. I would rather stay where I reside than relocate for a promotion. 3. If possible, I would like to work for an organization that will allow me to stay in one geographic area. 4. It would be better not to be promoted and not have to move, than to move to receive a promotion in a company.

* Coefficient alpha

tics. To assess the possible bias associated with the large proportion of third years in the Japanese sample, t-tests were performed comparing the mean scale scores of the Japanese third and fourth year students. This analysis showed the samples were comparable because there were no differences at 0.10 levels of significance.

Limitations

As shown below, the study's results are intriguing on several accounts. But, cross-cultural research poses several research problems (e. g. see Sekaran, 1983 and Nasif et. al. 1991) so these must be acknowledged. Two key issues are the lack of instrument and response equivalence which can lead to biased comparisons between samples from different cultures. However, as discussed above, the use of back-translation, equivalent survey administration procedures and double-standardized item scores aimed to limit bias.

The representativeness of the samples though could be questioned on two accounts. First, a typical criticism of student samples, as used in this study, is that they are not representative of the populations of interest. However this research which looks at the perspectives of those launching their careers, the samples are appropriate. Second, the samples, later year students at Hokkaido University and McMaster, can not unequivocally be considered representative of Canadian and Japanese recruits. However, using groups matched in terms of their demographics and current situation though was a good second choice in light of limited resources (Sekaran, 1983).

5. Results

The findings, shown in Table 2, were both expected and unexpected. As hypothesized, the Canadian students demonstrated stronger orientations towards General Management than their Japanese counterparts and the Japanese students were more oriented towards Security/Stability and Rootedness. The unexpected results were the lack of significant differences between the Entrepreneurial and Lifestyle orientations of the two groups.

Overall, our results showed that the most important Career Anchors for the Japanese recruits were Security and Rootedness. Taken together, the numbers

Table 2. Comparisons of Japanese and Canadian Career Anchor Orientations

Anchor Scale	Mean Scale Values-			t-values
	All (n=321)	Canadian (n=187)	Japanese (n=134)	
General Managerial Competence	0.000	0.771	−1.076	6.12***
Entrepreneurial Creativity	0.000	0.000	−0.001	0.00
Security/Stability	0.000	−0.335	0.468	−2.97**
Lifestyle	0.000	−0.025	0.018	0.14
Rootedness	0.000	−0.308	0.429	−2.04*

-Scale component items double standardized, by respondent and item, before summing.
* One way t-test significant at a=0.05
** Significant at a=0.01
*** Significant at a=0.001

suggest that the students value allegiance to a firm and region. They will move if the firm asks them to but prefer not to. The Japanese also were not oriented strongly towards General Management, while Lifestyle and Entrepreneurship fell in the middle of the range.

The Canadian students were very different. They held more ambitious aspirations, notably seeking high level General Management responsibilities. On the other hand, they were least oriented towards Security. They expressed a low degree of Rootedness, that is they tended to be willing to move. Together, this suggests that the typical Canadian in our sample is likely to switch jobs and/or move to gain promotions. They are tied more to their own career, than to a single firm or a region. The reasons for these differences and the implications for recruits and managers are discussed below.

6. Discussion

Overall, the study's findings show that Canadian and Japanese students are oriented to different Career Anchors, despite the pending convergence of the employment environments they face. The key implication for recruits and their potential employers is that both will have to make appropriate choices if they are to achieve successful levels of fit. While this study does not evaluate the expectations of employers, it is clear students from both countries will have to modify their goals if they are to be satisfied.

The results also cast light on the importance of the standardization procedure while comparing career orientations in different cultures. Schein's *Career Anchor* dimensions imply tradeoffs. *Entrepreneurial Creativity* and *Security/Stability*, and *General Management* and *Lifestyle* for example, are not necessarily positively linked. Yet, if as in this sample, the Canadians scored most items higher than the Japanese, the Canadians could be seen as more oriented to all the Anchors, however infeasible this could be.

Following we first discuss the outcomes of the five specific hypothesis tests. We then highlight the implications for employers and employees coping with the changing business environment. Finally we propose issues for future research.

General Management: A large difference was found in the General Management orientations of the two groups. Canadian students demonstrated stronger orientations towards General Management than their Japanese counterparts, perhaps because of the financial rewards that occur. Japanese students though still appear to expect seniority to play a major role in their career progression: senior responsibilities will come with time, not ambition and performance.

The Canadians' hopes may be dashed, or at least deferred, in large organizations which are flattening and still flush with baby-boomer managerial talent (Foot and Stoffman, 1996). There may be more fulfilling opportunities in smal-

ler growth-oriented firms. The Japanese students, counting on seniority-based promotion may miss chances early in their careers if they do not distinguish themselves and increase their chances of merit-based promotion.

Security/Stability : Another orientation where a clear difference was expected and found was in the Security/Stability goals which were significantly more important to the Japanese students than Canadians. Job changing in Japan is slowly on the rise, but it is still a limited phenomenon and the idea of staying with one company for life is still common. As more Japanese workers change firms and as job changing becomes more accepted, Japanese students will have to reduce their orientation towards security and stability. This may occur if, as predicted, the contract of lifetime employment becomes widely broken in large organizations (Chiba, Iikubo and Sawaji, 1997). It should be noted that the grouped averages do mask differences within the two samples. The Japanese students wishing to enter non-Japanese firms may be less oriented to Security/Stability than those aiming for Japanese company employment (Sakakibara et. al. 1993), though we did not gather data that can show this.

In Canada where job hopping is more frequent, security would be expected to be less of a concern because of the potential for reemployment. It is not uncommon for Canadian students to change jobs two or three times in their first ten years in the workforce. Thus Canadian students would be expected to be relatively less concerned with security than their Japanese counterparts.

Entrepreneurial Creativity : Canadian students were not significantly more inclinated to Entrepreneurial Creativity than their Japanese counterparts. One possible explanation may be that Japanese students are searching for new and different alternatives due to the recent turmoil in the Japanese economy, a tight youth job market, and changing company Human Resource policies. It could also be that entrepreneurial creativity orientation is distributed throughout both populations. A close look at Sakakibara et al.'s (1993) study is instructive. Though they found a difference between the stability Anchors of Japanese entering foreign or Japanese firms, the entrepreneurial orientation of these groups was virtually identical.

The real message of this finding, or lack of one, may not be the unexpectedly high levels of Japanese entrepreneurship, but rather the relatively low levels of this orientation amongst the Canadians. This result was revealed through the item standardization procedure described above. An analysis using non-standardized scores produced a reliable scale showing the Canadians as more entrepreneurial than Japanese. This highlights the importance of relative rather than absolute scores in studies across cultures. The Canadian students, while claiming a high level of entrepreneurship actually were less oriented to that Anchor than to *General Management*.

Lifestyle: The results showed the orientations of the Japanese and Canadians towards Lifestyle goals did not significantly differ. This finding suggests that Japanese students may be breaking away from the traditional norms in Japan relating to work commitment. Another reason may be due to greater lifestyle choices which are now available to Japanese students. As more young Japanese travel abroad, they will become exposed to a greater variety of lifestyle alternatives. These experiences would make Japanese students aware of alternatives to the traditional Japanese work norm.

This result, again was revealed through the standardization procedure. Before the relative values of answers were calculated, the Canadian mean score on this *Anchor* scale was significantly higher than the Japanese. While the Canadians claimed that *Lifestyle* was important, clearly their quest for senior management positions reign.

Rootedness: The greater orientation of the Japanese to Rootedness was an interesting result. Mobility may be a concern for younger Japanese living in regional areas as this would probably entail moving to Tokyo or Osaka and thus a drastic change of life. This result is interesting in that it differs from the traditional stereotype of the Japanese businessman willing to go anywhere for his company. The Canadians, on the other hand, are less oriented to remaining in the exact same area. This could be because Hamilton, the home of McMaster University, is near Canada's business center in Toronto, thus moving would not be seen as drastic.

Implications for Employers and Employees

The research has implications for employers and young employees. Japanese students may have not yet adjusted their career aspirations to the changing times, in particular relating to Stability/Security, and this could lead to frustration when entering companies. These changes are expected to be even more pronounced over the next five to ten years as Japan is expected to continue experiencing fundamental changes in the nature of work (Iwase, 1997). Thus those individuals expecting the best of both worlds may be in for a shock. This could lead to a career mismatch as employee and company expectations diverge.

These changes will thus present new challenges to both employees, who must adjust to these new expectations, and companies, which must create a supportive environment and change the role it plays in employees' careers. The challenge for companies will be to develop new management practices that meet the needs of a constantly changing work environment. Furthermore, as promotions become more difficult, companies will be looking for different ways to compensate, motivate, and satisfy employees in order to bring out their full potential. Keeping good employees will become more important as Japan's demographics

point to a future shortage of workers after baby-boomers retire.

This new environment will force employees to take more responsibility for planning their own careers, even though in Japan traditionally there has been little awareness of such an approach. Employees who expect companies to look after them will be faced with frustration and anxiety. The Entrepreneurial orientation is a positive sign since it indicates that workers may be willing and able to adapt.

The higher Rootedness of the Japanese is most significant for multinationals searching for recruits. Japanese students now appear less willing to move at the company's whim, which is important for global Japanese firms. In contrast, the Canadian students may be more psychologically prepared for the mobility implied by the multinational firm.

Conclusion

The results indicate that Japanese students wish to maintain certain aspects of the traditional employee employer relationship such as seniority and job security, while at the same time, they are desiring changes relating to lifestyle, mobility and entrepreneurship. These findings in total imply that Japanese students are hoping for a 'best of both worlds' type of scenario with increasing individualistic values (Lifestyle and Entrepreneurship) and at the same time maintaining certain aspects of the traditional Japanese management system (General Management and Security/Stability) which are beneficial to the individual. While this study does not evaluate the expectations of employers, it is clear Japanese students will have to modify their goals if they are to be satisfied in their careers.

This research only provides a cursory insight into the career orientations of Japanese and Canadians about to enter the white collar job market. More qualitative data is required to understand the deeper aims of these young people. The most interesting direction would be to chart the evolution of expectations over several years to assess how the young people adjust their orientations in response to globalization. The second key extension to this research would be to investigate the recruiters views of the changes in the workplace. While there is substantial anecdotal evidence on changes, especially in Japan, it is not clear whether or not changes are universal.

Peter Firkola, Associate Professor, Hokkaido University
James H. Tiessen, Assistant Professor, McMaster University

References

1. Befu, H., and Cernosia, C. (1990), "Demise of "Permanent Employment" in Japan,"

Human Resource Management, 29(3), pp.231-250.
2. Brown, C., Nakata, Y., Reich, M., and Ulman, L. (1997), *Work and Pay in the United States and Japan*. New York: Oxford.
3. Chiba, H., Iikubo, R. and Sawaji, O. (1997), "Salaryman Today and into Tomorrow," *Compensation and Benefits*, Sept.-Oct, pp.67-75.
4. Clark, R. (1979), *The Japanese Company*. London: Yale University Press.
5. Cole, R. E. (1980), *Work, Mobility and Participation: A Comparative Study of American and Japanese Industry*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
6. Deutschmann, C. (1991), "The Worker-Bee Syndrome in Japan: An Analysis of Working Time Practices," In Hinrichs, K., Roche, W. and Sirianni, C. (Eds.), *Working Time in Transition*, (pp. 189-202). Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
7. DeVillis, R. F. (1991), *Scale Development: Theory and Applications*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
8. Firkola, P. (1996), "Career Development Practices in a Japanese Steel Company," *Best Paper Proceedings Association of Japanese Business Studies*, pp.113-132.
9. Foot, D. K. and Stoffman, D. (1996), *Boom, Bust and Echo: How to profit from the coming demographic shift*. Toronto: Macfarlane and Ross.
10. Hirano, M. (1994), *Kyaria Deberoppumento* (Career Development). Tokyo: Bunshindo.
11. Hofstede, G. (1980), *Culture's Consequences, International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
12. Iwase, T. (1997), "Changing Japanese Labor and Employment System," *Journal of Japanese Trade & Industry*, 16(4), pp.20-24.
13. Leung, K., and Bond, M. H. (1989), "On the Empirical Identification of Dimensions for Cross-Cultural Comparisons," *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 20(2), pp.133-151.
14. Long, L. (1992), "Changing Residence: Comparative Perspectives on Its Relationship to Age, Sex and Marital Status," *Population Studies*, 46, pp.141-158.
15. Marsh, R. M., and Minnari, H. (1976), *Modernization and the Japanese Factory*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
16. McFarland, J. (1996, November 5), "Higher US Pay Triggers Concern," *The Globe and Mail* (Toronto), p.B17.
17. McMillan, C. J. (1989), *The Japanese Industrial System* (2nd rev. ed.). New York: Walter de Gruyter.
18. Mroczkowski, T., and Hanaoka, M. (1989), "Continuity and Change in Japanese Management," *California Management Review*, 31(2), pp.39-53.
19. Nakamoto, M. (1997, October 28), "Bracing for the Social Revolution," *The Financial Post* (Toronto), p.78.
20. Nasif, E. G., Al-Daeaj, H., Ebrahimi, B., and Thibodeaux, M. S. (1991), "Methodological Problems in Cross-Cultural Research: An Updated Review," *Management International Review*, 31(1), pp.79-91.
21. Nonaka, I. (1988), "Self-Renewal of the Japanese Firm and the Human Resources Strategy," *Human Resource Management*, 27(1), pp.45-62.
22. Ouchi, W. G. (1981), *Theory Z*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
23. Pollack, A. (1995, April 29), "Working Less, and not Upset," *New York Times*, pp.35-36.
24. Sakakibara, K., Kusunoki, K., and Koda, A. (1991), "Kyaria Shiko to Kanri Shisutemu No Tekigodo Bunseki (Conformity between career orientations of organizational members and management systems: a comparative analysis)," *Diamond Harvard Business*, 16(2), pp.59-68.
25. Sakakibara, K., Kusunoki, K., and Koda, A. (1993), "Effects of Diversification of Career Orientations on Management Systems in Japan," *Human Resource Management*, 32(4), pp.525-543.
26. Schein, E. H. (1975), "How Career Anchors Hold Executives to Their Career Paths," *Personnel*, 52, pp.11-24.

27. Schein, E. H. (1990), *Career Anchors* (Rev. Ed.). San Diego, CA : Pfeiffer Inc.
28. Schein, E. H. (1996), " Career Anchors Revisited : Implications for Career Development in the 21st Century," *Academy of Management Executive*, 10(4), pp.80-88.
29. Sekaran, U. (1983), " Methodological and Theoretical Issues and Advancements in Cross -Cultural Research," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), pp.61-73.
30. Stern, S., and Muta, H. (1990), " The Japanese Difference," *Training and Development Journal*, 44(3), pp.74-82.
31. Sasaki, N. (1990), *Management and Industrial Structure in Japan* (2nd ed.). Oxford : Pergamon.
32. Tiessen, J. H. (1997), " Individualism, Collectivism and Entrepreneurship : A Framework for International Comparative Research," *Journal of Business Venturing*, 12(5), pp.367-384.
33. Triandis, H. C., McCusker, C., Betancourt, H., Iwao, S., Leung, K., Salazar, J. M., Setiadi, B., Sinha, J. B., Touzard, H. and Zalkski, Z. (1993), "An Etic-Emi Analysis of Individualism and Collectivism," *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24(3), pp.366-383.
34. Usui, C., and Colignon, R. (1996), " Corporate Restructuring : Converging World Pattern or Societally Specific Embeddedness," *The Sociological Quarterly*, 37(4), pp.551-578.
35. Walker, J. W. (1980), *Human Resource Planning*. New York : McGraw-Hill.