Non-conventional Models of Career: Implications for Human Resource Strategies for Post-war Sri Lankan Organizations

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Acronyms

EECFB – Equal Employment, Children, and Families Bureau
HR – Human Resource
HRM – Human Resource Management
JIL – Japan Institute for Labor Policy and Training
LFPR – Labor Force Participation Rate
MBO – Management by Objectives
MHLW – Japan Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare
PESS – Public Employment Security Service
Abstract

With the motivation driven by theoretical arguments in the contemporary career research, and two cases focusing on motivation and labor turnover issues at two empirical settings in Sri Lanka, the present study aimed at examining the characteristics of non-conventional models of career, investigating the most appropriate strategies and practices for facilitating the non-conventional models of career, and thereby drawing implications for Sri Lankan organizations for employing and motivating employees those adapting to such career models. It used the survey method and thus, dealt with qualitative data.

It was learnt that the non-conventional models of career are made possible through certain uncontrollable macro level conditions or changes at the general environment, and through some intentional actions taken by work organizations in responding to them. These career models are, most often, developed through mutual interactive processes of people, self-invented, cross the boundaries of a single employment setting, based on distinct ways of ‘knowing’, tend to shifting to or working parallel in many organizations, focused on gaining work-life balance, acquiring career resilience, and gaining employability, supported by and survived with a pool of networks outside the work environment, and not being bound to traditional career arrangements within the organizations.

The investigation revealed that there were some specific human resource strategies and practices adapted by the Japanese organizations in the recent past in addressing their labor issues relating to non-regular employees. Some of them were, developing human skills, using elderly workers by extending retirement age, enhancing use of female workers, outsourcing, and mechanization of business operations and production processes have been given priority. Their employment strategies focused on maintaining the total number of employees while expanding the proportion of non-regular employees and slightly reducing the regular employees, expanding the proportion of part-time employees, direct-contract employees and dispatched workers, increasing the assigning of non-routine jobs to non-regular employees, active utilization of female workers, and offering non-conventional working modes, including short and flexible working hours etc. Focusing on atypical employees, organizations seemed to be concentrating on the matters such as enhancing their willingness to work, education and training needs, increasing their job retention rate, motivating them to improve skills, and motivating them for work. The present study learns and reports the fact that diverse categories of employees in Japan have been dealt with diverse sets of strategies and practices by the work organizations and by the Public Employment Security Service Centers.

It found that a number of measures have been taken at the workplace in order to enhance diverse work styles of its employees. Further, a considerable effort has been taken by the authorities to look into the areas of supporting with work-family balance, child care, child rearing facilities etc. Beyond these, the legal facilitation served for particular employment categories seemed to play a vital role. Among them, revision of certain existing Acts, renaming of existing Laws in order to
convince certain points to work organizations and working communities, and even imposing of new laws were seen as significant endeavors. The Public Employment Security Service in Japan has been an exemplary mediator between the government and the employees. Further to its activation as search engine for employment searching, it has extended services to newly-establishing work organizations or helped in re-establishment and rehabilitation at disaster-driven areas of the country. From the part of the individual work organizations, there were seen a diverse set of plans, strategies and practices used commonly or specifically for employing and motivating non-regular employees.

This study brings out three-fold implications. It emphasizes, in its implications directed towards the state decision making bodies at macro level, the need of endorsement of diverse work styles of people, state involvement in regulating external labor market, facilitation with legal provisions for non-conventionally careered employees, acknowledging specificity of strategies and practices at industrial, sectoral and even individual organizational level, establishment of Public Employment Security service (with special attention to Northern Province). At the individual organizational level implications, it highlights the possibilities of the strategies and practices around re-employment, post-retirement life planning, obtaining the trainers from a pool of retired workers, establishing organizational units for dealing with non-regular type employments, and obtaining the service of a career consultant. Especially for the issues concerning the motivation and labor turnover of non-conventionally careered employees, it provides implications around concentrating on life satisfaction, flexibility, choice of conversion to regular employment, introducing ranking systems based on performances etc. as possible strategies or practices.

It reports some limitations of the present study, and provides directions for future research in the same area of interest.
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background

Work organizations in developing countries as well as in developed countries have evidenced, in the recent past, significant changes in their functions, work processes, relations, structures, and even strategies and practices in response to the ever-changing economic, political, demographic, socio-cultural, and technological conditions in the global and local environments. Automation, networking, virtual organization (Boudreau, Loch, Robey & Staub, 1998; Markus, Manville & Agres, 2000) and strategies ranging from work re-organization (Smith, 1997) to restructuring (Ross, 2006) and flexi time working to job reduction (Uzzi & Barsness, 1998) are some of the examples for these organizational changes. These environmental and organizational changes would be seen as evolutions in some contexts, and transformations in others, in all, which have created greater influences over employee work styles. Consequently, the contemporary work generations appear to be adapting to diverse work styles, which result in non-conventional models of career at individual level.

The existing literature evidences theoretically identified numerous career models those take the form of relational career (Hall, 1976), protean career (Mirvis and Hall, 1996; Hall et al., 1996), boundaryless career (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994; Arthur, 2008; Sullivan, 2001), intelligent career (Arthur, Claman and DeFillippi, 1995), kaleidoscope career (Sullivan and Mainiero, 2008), or even boundary-crossing or post-corporate career (Peiperl and Baruch, 1997). Simultaneously, diverse employment patterns those being available at work organizations evidence the facilitation for the formation of such career models empirically. The examples for them include atypical employment (Sano, 2009), fixed-term contracts, casual work (Wooden & Warren, 2003), part-time work, arubaito, (Honda, 2010; Kosugi, 2008), dispatched work, temporary agency work (Japan Institute of Labor Policy and Training [JILPT], 2011), freelancing, contingent work, temporary work, teleworking, and homeworking etc. (Keizer, 2009; Uzzi & Barsness, 1998).

Following the end of civil war lasted for more than three decades in Sri Lanka, from mid 2009, a once dreamt atmosphere for civilians to live peaceful lives, to occupy in any legally allowed occupation anywhere in the country and which suits their capacity, skills, and desires, or to engage in any (non-restricted) business, have become a reality now. It seems that the civil lives of the people in the war-torn area are gradually becoming to normality. Moreover, the census and statistics of Sri Lanka shows a gradual up-moving trend of the literacy rate and enrolment rates in primary, secondary and tertiary education of its population. Further, more educated young and female workers are being added to the working age population annually. Seen from the projections for decades ahead, the society is moving towards an aging society.
1.2 Research Issue

Sri Lanka, over the past several decades, experiences a comparatively low labor force participation of female and young working age population, despite the increasing numbers of these two categories into education and higher education. As per ILO (2009), the female labor force participation in Sri Lanka has been below that of Nepal, Bangladesh, Maldives, Bhutan, and Afghanistan (in the South Asian region). Thus, it seems that all the afore-said positive points have been directed, even indirectly, to one major issue that is; how to accommodate the educated, young, female, older, or even those who in minor ethnic groups into the national workforce (or labor force) successfully. In such a scenario, the work organizations have a vital role to play in stepping into absorbing the available labor that is educated and skilled (or uneducated and unskilled) to a particular extent, into the national workforce (Dissanayake, 2011).

Diverse categories of people show preferences on diverse work styles. Thus, it needs diverse work arrangements to facilitate them at work organizations. These arrangements would include atypical types of employments with a range of possibilities for flexi time, short work hours, short work weeks, part-time work, teleworking, homeworking etc. As such, it helps people construct their own career (Dissanayake, Herath & Takahashi, 2006), which would certainly take the form of a non-conventional model of career.

Certain organizations in Sri Lanka even at present utilize such non-conventionally careered employees in their work processes. Television and broadcasting corporations, banks, and airlines come into the mainly notable examples. It is not false to mention that some of the Sri Lankan work organizations are now in the process of exploring the ways and means of successfully employing and utilizing such a kind of work population.

In most of the instances, as seen through the practice in Sri Lanka, the employment opportunities available for non-conventionally careered employees need a particular training for work, and the job or the assignment period lasts for one to two years. Despite the interest of the work organizations to adapt it as an employment strategy, and further to the supply of employees those who wish to run a non-conventional career, the human resource management of such organizations have encountered basically two types of issues in relation to these employees. One issue is the high labor turnover, which is marked by leaving the organization by such employees just before the specified period of work, and the other issue is the lack of enthusiasm or motivation to work by them, despite the fact that it is their own choice of employment.

1.3 Research Questions

Aligning with the afore-mentioned issues, the present study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the (main) characteristics of non-conventional models of career?
2. What could be the most appropriate human resource strategies and practices for facilitating employees those adapting non-conventional models of career?

The identification of the characteristics of non-conventional models of career would be beneficial for understanding the appropriate human resource strategies and practices at workplaces. In all, this knowledge would ease drawing implications for Sri Lankan organizations, especially for designing their employment strategies and practices towards non-conventionally careered employees. Thus, in order to search for answers to these questions, the present study sets its objectives as below.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

It holds three objectives.

1. To examine the characteristics of the non-conventional models of career,
2. To investigate the most appropriate human resource strategies and practices for facilitating non-conventional models of career,
3. To draw implications for Sri Lankan organizations for employing and motivating non-conventionally careered employees.

The present study is conducted in Japan, in order to learn lessons from the Japanese workplace.

1.5 Rationale for the Study

Non-regular work arrangements and non-conventional models of individual career are becoming common in contemporary workplaces in Sri Lanka. However, successful role model organizations those facilitating such work arrangements are rare, and further, there is a dearth of literature available on the topic in Sri Lankan context.

At the same time, Japanese workplace is known to be a one that experiencing an increasing number of atypical type work arrangements (due to the reasons cited to be: to save labor cost and make it a variable cost, to provide with flexible personnel assignments, to respond to fluctuations of daily/weekly businesses, to respond to long sales (operating) hours etc.), while showing an increased number of workers’ choice of atypical employment (Sano, 2009). Kayama and Kusayanagi (2009) note that “[the] increase in part-time workers not only reflects a shift in companies replacing full-time employees with part-time workers in order to cut operating costs, but more importantly a shift away from life-time employment” (p.131). There seems an increased interest of Japanese researchers on the topics of enhancing atypical employees’ willingness to work, education and training needs, increasing their job retention rate, motivating them to improve skills, and importance of motivating them for work (Okunishi, 2009). Importantly, the Japan Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW) shows its continues interest in the aspects of security of good quality human resources, sense of responsibility for jobs, job retention, and improvement of motivation to work in relation to non-regular type employments, while emphasizing its concern on facilitating work population with diverse work styles (2005).
Thus, the present study looks forward to examining the characteristics of non-conventional models of career, investigating appropriate human resource strategies and practices, and drawing implications for Sri Lankan organizations as possible from the Japanese experiences.

1.6 Methods

It follows the survey method, while relying on data sources accessible through (a) review of research reports, (b) discussions with field researchers, (c) interviews and discussions with industrial management, (d) observations and discussions at the Public Employment Security Service Centers, and (e) archival data. It deals with qualitative data.

1.7 Chapter Outline

The entire report is organized with six chapters. Followed by this introductory chapter, it presents a review of non-conventional models of career and contemporary employment patterns. Presenting the situation of Sri Lanka labor force, and its nature, characteristics and trends in the third chapter, it explains the research methodology in chapter four. Comprehensively analyzing the human resource strategies and practices for employees those adapting to non-conventional models of career in chapter five, it conclude with summary, findings and implications for Sri Lanka in chapter six.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of Non-conventional Models of Career and Contemporary Employment Patterns

2.1 Introduction

This chapter comprehensively reviews the literature related to the present study. It commences with a brief definition to the term ‘career’, and then proceeds to explain briefly the career stage model as appeared in theory. Followed by a short discussion of conventional career, it discusses the shift of individual career from conventional model to non-conventional model by highlighting the major activators therein. Then it comprehensively reviews the non-conventional models of career as theorized in the existing literature, and discusses the contemporary employment patterns those are being adapted by the work organizations. Finally, pointing out the diverse types of non-conventionally careered employees in the Japanese workplace, it ends up with a summary.

2.2 Career and Career Stage Model

Career

Career is simply defined as the entire work life of a person. Further, it denotes an evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time. A comprehensive definition implies a constellation of diverse views on career. Thus, it means any category of work (paid or unpaid) without making restrictions to a particular work setting. It does not emphasize any assumptions about career success, but consider both parallel work experiences and successive sets of experiences in discontinued fields of employment (Arthur, 2008; Sullivan and Baruch, 2009).

Career Stage Model

The career stage model, developed by Cleveland, Stockdale and Murphy (2000), explains four stages of career (or work life) of a person. Those are (a) establishment, (b) advancement, (c) maintenance, and (d) withdrawal (p. 257). A bit detailed model combining the age groups of people, presented by Super, Cavickas and Super (1996) set forth five stages such as, (a) growth stage (ages 4-13), (b) exploration stage (14-24), (c) establishment stage (25-44), (d) maintenance stage (45-65), and (e) disengagement stage (over 65). Thus, the establishment stage (in Cleveland et al.’s model, 2000), and the exploration stage, which is ranging from years 14 to 24 (in Super et al.’s model, 1996) represent a period in which individual workers have not been settled in their respective careers. It is a stage at which they are still searching for opportunities to get established in their work lives. From that point up to withdrawal or disengagement stage, people may be moving upwards or around many types of employments and at different positions.
2.3 Conventional Model and the Shift to Non-conventional Models of Career

It is possible to envision and differentiate conventional model of career from non-conventional model in the following lines.

The conventional model

The conventional (or traditional) model of career depicts an individual career that is evolved through the passage of time, most probably, well established in a single organization, and subsequently oriented towards the personal growth or development. The responsibility over the progress of such individual careers lay fully or partly, at the hands of the human resource management of organizations (Hall, 1996). Thus, conventional careers are hierarchy-based, facilitated by organizational structure, promotions, pay systems, and benefits.

The shift from conventional to non-conventional models of individual career

The reality seen through the contemporary workplace shades the portrait of such a conventional model of individual careers at the sight of drastically changing economic, demographic, political, and socio-cultural environment in the globe. By the time, a trend of young, female, retiring, or even mid-careered individuals in the workforce those who are adapting non-conventional models of career are appearing at many corners of organizations. This workforce seems to be in a journey towards an unforeseen future, amid employment insecurity (Cunningham & James, 2007; Heery & Salmon, 2000), which sounds a deviation from the usual conventional career patterns those followed by their superiors or predecessors.

Consequent to the transition of organizational structures into more flexible, permeable and fluid forms in terms of virtual, networked, cellular, modular or boundaryless (Palmer et al., 2007) forms, the career patterns of individual employees during the recent past have created different models.

Internationalization of organizations and enabled cross-cultural management has supported the diversity at workplaces in numerous forms. Thus, multi-national corporations (MNCs) seem to be places for short-term foreign assignments that deploy expatriates, while training them to be a moving workforce. It allows organizations to recruit and train a nomadic workforce with different desires and work behaviors when compared to the traditional workforce. Further, globalization, which destroys the geographical boundaries among nations, serves creation of a stream of workers who adapt non-conventional work ethics and traditions.

Technological advancements in the globe create a novel workplace that is enabled with a vast range of employment patterns. Further, the advancements in information and communication technology (ICT) extend working possibilities up to many directions while creating virtual and networked working environments. Moreover, automation at workplaces looks forward to replacing manual workers with sophisticated equipment, suppressing organizational strategies on labor reduction.
Shrinking population due to declining birth rates and population aging has been experienced by developed countries, and the developing nations too are slowly moving towards that end. Both of these factors have become eye-openers to the policy makers and strategists in drawing policies and formulating employment strategies for the future. Gender equality, as been acknowledged by contemporary organizations has become another point for consideration in organizational strategies towards employment.

This shift of career models can be seen as a continuous re-positioning of individual work lives amid the competing and complementing activators of individual and organizational spheres, backed by macro-environmental conditions. Those activators are graphed in the following figure.

**Figure 2.1: The Activators those Creating Non-conventional Models of Individual Career**

It identifies two major activators those are crucially influential in creating (and shaping) non-conventional models of career from the part of the individuals (supply end), i.e. generational changes and shifting of knowledge base, and another two activators from the part of the
organizations (demand end), i.e. organizational systems and policies, and generational structure. At the same time it identifies the major macro level environmental conditions (i.e. social, cultural, intellectual, economic, political, technological, and demographic) those stimulate such activators.

2.4 The Non-conventional Career

Thus, generational changes facilitated by socio-cultural transformations, shifting of knowledge base with intellectual advancements, organizational systems and policies those aligning with economic, political and technological conditions, and changing generational structures at organizations due to demographic concerns have combined together to create individual careers of horizontally progressing, flexibly moving, non-bound to and non-committed to organizations. These non-conventional, unsecured and flexible patterns of careers, in contrast to the rigid, traditional, and life-time bound career, have found to becoming more usual with the new generation (youth), female, mid-careered, re-employed and even retired workers at the workplace irrespective of the level of development in their organizations, industries, or economies.

For the purpose of the present study, it defines the non-conventional career as ‘a series of work life experiences of an individual that gained through crossing-over multiple organizations across diverse types of jobs or assignments with or without an upward hierarchical movement along time’.

Non-conventional models of career

The existing literature evidences a variety of models, which depicts non-conventional models of career. Relational career (Hall, 1976), protean career (Mirvis and Hall, 1996; Hall et al., 1996), boundaryless career (DeFillippu and Arthur, 1994; Arthur, 2008; Sullivan, 2001), intelligent career (Arthur, Claman and DeFillippi, 1995), kaleidoscope career (Sullivan and Mainiero, 2008), and post-corporate career (Peiperl and Baruch, 1997) have been major theoretical developments among them. Below it presents a simple review of such models.

Relational career

The relational career is a model of individual career that develops through mutual interactive processes among co-learners who are interdependent on each other (Hall, 1976). The term ‘relational’ meant to be ‘a reciprocal, mutually beneficial, interdependent connection with another person’ (Hall, 1976, p. 17). Thus, mutuality, interdependence, and reciprocity of learning relationship and the relational environment become more significant in this career model. The workplace seems to be a significant facilitator for an individual to develop a relational career. Most of the contemporary work organizations in the developed regions have evidenced enough substructures, which ease interactions and mutual relations among their working population through diverse means. Even in other regions there seems to be efforts on mentoring, coaching, and counseling as some of the commonly used mechanisms for creating supportive relationships at the workplace. Thus, the behaviors depicted in relational careers by
the individuals involved can be viewed as, (a) continuous mutual learning, (b) building new skills needed, (c) developing relations or connections, and (d) taking part in the reciprocal process of learning and co-learning.

**Protean career**

It is a self-invented career of an individual, which strives for psychological success; i.e. the fulfillment of one’s own personal values and purpose, and goals that are driving the individual behavior (Hall, 1976). The protean concept posits the view that career is entirely an individual’s responsibility while s/he being a free agent having the career contract with the self (Mirvis and Hall, 1996; Hall & Associates, 1996). Thus, the driver is the individual person, but not the organization. It has been identified as a process in which the individual person manages his/her own career that can be consisted of a variety of experiences in education, training, and work assignments. The career success in that is measured in terms of internal measures those derived as psychological success. It has no a linear path to progress, but can be directed and re-directed by the person to meet his/her needs from time to time. Accommodating new developments to this concept, Briscoe & Hall (2006) defined protean career in terms of two aspects such as (a) values driven (in the sense that the person’s internal values provide the guidance and measure of success for the individual’s career), and (b) self-directed (having the ability to be adaptive in terms of performance and learning demands). They identify protean career as a mindset that reflects freedom, self-direction, and making choices based on one’s personal values (Briscoe and Hall, 2006).

**Boundaryless career**

Boundaryless career denotes a career that cross the boundaries of a single employment setting (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996) or “a sequence of job opportunities that goes beyond the boundaries of any single employment setting” (DeFillippu and Arthur, 1994, p. 167; Arthur, 2008). Baruch (2006) notes that boundaryless career “may exist when the actual career or the meaning of the career transcends the boundary of a single path within the boundaries of a single employer” (p.128). It has been further recognized as boundary-crossing career (Lips-Wiresma and Mcmorland, 2006; Sullivan, 2001). Baruch (2006) identifies the rationale behind the boundaryless career in terms the attempts to (a) reduce the stress generated through ambiguity and diminishing security, (b) gain work-life balance, (c) acquire career resilience, and (d) gain employability. The characteristics of the individuals adapting this type of career model are recognized as (a) not being bound to one employer; shifts or moves around number of employers through-out the work life, (b) being supported by and survived with a pool of networks outside the work environment, (c) lack of expectations, and even rejection of hierarchical career progression within the organization, (d) not being bound to traditional career arrangements within the organization, and (e) moving horizontally even without seen a pattern or opportunity for the future work life.
**Intelligent careers**

With the development of the view that the managing of career lays in the hands of the individual employee (Hall, 1996; Mirvis and Hall, 1996) and backed by the concepts of employability and marketability of careers, the learning-oriented behaviors of individual employees have been emphasized in the recent literature. Consequently, the model of ‘intelligent career’ (Arthur, Claman and DeFillippi, 1995) has been formulated for distinguishing the distinct ways of ‘knowing’ that direct and guide the career behavior of individuals. Thus, the interactions of the ‘ways of knowing’ such as, individual motivation, values, the construction of personal meaning and identity (knowing why), career-relevant experiences (knowing how), and the relationships with the surrounding (eg., family, society, industry etc.) that support and guide individual career (knowing whom) have been identified as the opportunities available for individuals to invest in developing dynamic careers (Parker, Arthur and Inkson, 2004).

**Kaleidoscope career**

The kaleidoscope career model (KCM), which has been theorized to explain the career patterns of females, attempts to divulge three-fold parameters in their career life span (Sullivan and Mainiero, 2008). Those are challenge, balance, and authenticity. The model combines these three parameters with the individual stages of career, notably, early career, mid-career and later career. As per the model, the (female) individuals (a) take the challenge, assume responsibility, and control and seek autonomy at work, (b) balance relationships with the outside world, and (c) be true to self within work and non-work issues.

**Post-corporate career**

Post-corporate career acknowledges a shifting of whole career towards an entirely different work setting. Peiperl & Baruch (1997) rationalize the possibility of post-corporate career by pointing out that single organizations have inherently embarked constraints on upward mobility of individuals due to the pyramidal structure, organizational demography, gender, and what so ever clarified reasons within the organizations. The post-corporate career finds solutions to these issues by suggesting the across-organizational movements for individuals on different assignments or contracts at different organizations. Thus, in such models, the individual career progression is not seen within a single organization, but instead it identifies the shifting to or working parallel in many organizations. The model suggests possible alternative arrangements for individuals under post-corporate career as, consulting, temporary work, self-employment, professional partnerships, secondments, outsourcing etc.

These theoretical developments have been pragmatic in the contemporary work organizations, even though the identification of such ‘patterns of work’ among nonprofessionals has been different. Visibly, such diverse career models have been made possible in contemporary organizations through the arrangements of diverse work styles. Major categories of those arrangements can be learned as ‘atypical employment’ (Sano, 2009), ‘non-standard work’
(Okunishi, 2009), ‘non-regular work’, and ‘diversified types of employment’ (JILPT, 2011). The section below simply reviews the basic categories of these diverse employment patterns of the employees, which appears in different forms of work arrangements as they are viewed by contemporary work organizations.

2.5 Contemporary Employment Patterns

The most common and widely used broad categorization of patterns of employment seems to be ‘typical’ and ‘atypical’ patterns of work. In contrast to this, the ‘typical employment’ is defined as ‘a socially secured, full-time job of unlimited duration, with standard working hours, guaranteeing a regular income and, via social security systems geared towards wage earners, securing pension payments and protection against ill-health and unemployment’ (European Industrial Relations Dictionary). Thus, atypical pattern of employment termed to be a job with limited duration declared, with a limited number of working hours and a time-bound limited payment thereof, without any promise of a further extension of the working period or a re-appointment. There are diverse types of atypical employment patterns, such as, contract (or fixed-term) employment, temporary employment, part-time work, dispatched employment, entrusted employment, temporary agency work, casual work, telework, homework etc. Below it gives a brief description for distinguishing these diverse types of atypical employment patterns.

Contract employees (or fixed-term employees) means those ‘who employed in designated occupations’, and ‘are subject to a fixed-term contract with the objective of utilizing their specialist knowledge’ (JILPT, 2011, p. 1). Fixed-term work is meant to be ‘a contract employment or relationship entered into directly between an employer and a worker, where the end of the employment contract or relationship is determined by objective conditions such as reaching a specific date, completing a specific task, or the occurrence of a specific event’.

Temporary workers are defined as ‘those employed on a short-term or daily basis’. JILPT (2011) further relates it to the work with an employment period of one month or shorter (p. 3).

Part-time worker, as simply meant by JILPT (2011), comparing the number of working days or working hours of a worker with that of regular employees, is defined as ‘those with a shorter working day than regular employees, or who work for fewer days of a week’. A comprehensive definition states it as employees ‘whose normal hours of work, calculated on a weekly basis or on average over a period of employment of up to one year, are less than the normal hours of work of a comparable full-time worker’ (European Industrial Relations Dictionary). It is argued that part-time work enables individuals to have a better balance between their working life and family responsibilities, training, leisure or any other civic activities. It is further commended to be a facilitator for easy entry to and easy exit from the labor market.

Dispatched employees are those employees hired from another source under a particular Act designed for that purpose (JILPT, 2011).
Entrusted employees are those employed by contract for a fixed period by means of re-hiring the employees those who reached their retirement age.

Temporary agency work is a temporary employment relationship between a temporary work agency, which is the employer, and a worker, where the latter is assigned to work for and under the control of an undertaking and/or establishment making use of his or her services (the user company).

Casual work is an employment contract with generally limited entitlements or benefits and little or no security of employment. The main attribute is the absence of a continuing relationship of any employment stability with an employer, which could lead to their not being considered ‘employees’ at all. Casual workers differ from other non-permanent workers in that they may often possess fewer rights and less protection.

Telework is a form of organizing and/or performing work using information technology, in the context of an employment contract, where the work, which could also be performed at the employer’s premises, is carried out away from those premises, on a regular basis. Thus, computers and telecommunications becomes the primary means of carrying out work.

Homework is a form of work away from the factory or office in which the employment status of the worker, as an employee or a self-employed person, is sometimes uncertain.

2.6 Non-conventionally Careered Employees in the Japanese Workplace

A comprehensive review of literature in relation to the Japanese workplace reveals the existence of diverse categories of workers in terms of age, gender, career stage, the nature of employment relationship, circumstances, career behavior, desires or the type of employment.

The categories

Thus, it identifies mainly the categories such as, youth (those at exploratory stage of career), female (seeking or not seeking regular employment), mid-careered (transferring among organizations/occupations), reemployed (females, after child birth), older or retired (males & females those wish to continue work), temporary agency worker (irrespective of gender & age), dispatched worker (irrespective of gender & age), and employees those displaced or disturbed in normal civil life (due to natural disasters and aligned unavoidable circumstances).

2.7 Summary

This chapter presented a review of theoretical establishments in the subject area of career with a brief review to its empirical establishments, which appears in the form of diverse work styles in contemporary work organizations, referring especially to the Japanese workplace. Individual career means the collective work life experiences of a person irrespective of the nature or type of employment and its involvement period. Career stage model depicts different stages of an
individual work life that is commencing from an opportunity searching period and then proceeding to grow with time until ending up at the point of decline from the work life. The conventional career denotes a work life consisting of upward hierarchical movements in a particular job (most often located in a single work set-up). It seems that the present day career takes a non-conventional model due to many activators at the work environments mainly such as, generational changes, shifting of knowledge base, changes in the generational structure, and organizational systems and policies those aligned with certain macro environmental circumstances. Resultantly, the existing theory evidences a variety of such models, such as, relational career, protean career, boundaryless career, intelligent career, kaleidoscope career, and post-corporate career. These non-conventional models have been possible partly with the adaptation of non-regular work arrangements at the contemporary workplaces. They include contract employment, temporary employment, part-time work, dispatched employment, entrusted employment, temporary agency work, casual work, telework, homework etc. The recent Japanese workplace consists of diverse categories of work population including youth, female, reemployed people, older or retirees, temporary agency workers, dispatched workers and displaced workers.
CHAPTER THREE


3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide some background knowledge of the labor situation in Sri Lanka in order to grasp the background of its labor market, labor force, and the employment situation. Thus, it provides a brief summary of the nature, characteristics, and trends of Sri Lankan labor force, education, and employment and unemployment. It further pays attention to the trends in the recent past, and presents the situation of labor force participation in terms of gender distribution and industry distribution. It elaborates some future projections on population aging and labor force participation, and concludes with a summary.

3.2 Nature and Characteristics of Labor Force

In order to provide a slight knowledge of the background of labor market and the employment situation in Sri Lanka, below it briefly summarizes the figures of economically active and inactive population, labor force, employment, unemployment and underemployment situation, as per the availability of data.

Economically Active / Inactive Population

The economically active people (employed or unemployed) in the working age population (age 10 years and above) are considered as the labor force in Sri Lanka (Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Labor Force Survey, 2010). Thus, full-time students, retired/old age, infirmed/disabled, and full-time household care-takers (those who are neither working nor looking for work) come under economically inactive population.

Figure 3.1: Economically Active and Inactive Population by Age Groups (2010)

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka, 2010
Labor Force

The total labor force participation rate (LFPR) in Sri Lanka has been around 48% to 51% (from 2001 to 2010), thus, without showing a significant change during the past decade. The rate for males has been around 66% to 67%, while the same for female has been around 31% to 35% during the same period. This record shows the low labor force participation of females and its continuous non-improvement throughout the period. However, the literacy rates and the numbers those enrolling in education, and entering into higher education are comparatively higher for females than those of males.

Figure 3.2: Labor Force by Sex (2000 – 2010)

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka, 2010

The sector-wise total labor force participation rate evidence a high involvement in the rural sector throughout the years even though it is in a declining trend over the past three years. The table 3 below shows the figures on these. This trend displays a comparatively slow urbanization process in the economy.

The labor force share by age groups in Sri Lanka shows that a higher proportion is shared by the employees above 40 years of age. Further, it seems that the contributions to the labor force by middle aged groups are slightly declining over the past decade (figure 3.2). Moreover, the involvement of young population (who are highly literate than adults) are comparatively low and it is decreasing over the past few years.
A disparity between the supply and demand of labor on different job categories has been highlighted in the Sri Lankan labor market. The situation is evidenced with a higher labor supply in the job categories around clerical, service, and sales-work related areas while only a less demand is seen for the same in the labor market. Thus, it depicts a picture of low absorption of skilled labor into work organizations.

*Source: Labor Market Information Bulletin, Sri Lanka, 2010*

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**Figure 3.4: Labor Market Conditions on Different Job Categories**

*Source: Labor Market Information Systems, 2006*
3.3 Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment

Employment

As per the Department of Census and Statistics, ‘employed’ people in Sri Lanka is defined as ‘those who work as paid employees, employers, own account workers (self employed), or contributing family workers (Sri Lanka Labor Force Survey, 2010). Accordingly, the total employment in Sri Lanka from 2000 to 2010 shows an upward movement, even though it seems a decline in 2009. The comparison of male and female employment rates from 2000 to 2010 shows a significant difference. This situation has been recorded beside the gender parity reached in terms of education achievements, a huge gap between male and female employment rates exist in Sri Lanka.

Figure 3.5: Employment Rate by Gender from 2000 – 2010 (excluding Northern & Eastern Provinces)

Source: Labor Market Information Systems, 2010

The sector-wise distribution of employment has maintained the same pattern in terms of gender, as shown above, throughout the last ten years. The highest employment has been recorded in the service sector, the second highest been the agricultural sector (table 3.1).

Thus, as in many other South Asian countries, the service sector is becoming important in employment generation in Sri Lanka. This will be a factor to be considered by the work organizations those are engaged in the service sector. It would be hopeful to rely on the
organizations in the service sector for their increased involvement in the opening up of avenues for absorbing more skilled (or even unskilled) labor into economic activities.

Table 3.1: Employed Population (2001-2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>6235588</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(32.6)</td>
<td>(23.9)</td>
<td>(43.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>6519415</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(34.5)</td>
<td>(22.4)</td>
<td>(43.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>7012755</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(33.5)</td>
<td>(23.0)</td>
<td>(43.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>7394029</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(30.7)</td>
<td>(24.1)</td>
<td>(42.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>7518007</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(32.2)</td>
<td>(25.6)</td>
<td>(43.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>7105322</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(31.3)</td>
<td>(26.6)</td>
<td>(41.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>7041874</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(32.6)</td>
<td>(26.6)</td>
<td>(42.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>7648305</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(25.9)</td>
<td>(26.2)</td>
<td>(41.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>7706593</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(24.2)</td>
<td>(25)</td>
<td>(42.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka, 2010

The percentage distribution of the employed population by status of employment in the 2nd Quarter, 2010 was: employees in private sector 42.2%, self-employed 30.7%, employees in public sector 14.1%, unpaid family workers 10.3%, and employers 2.6% (Department of Census and Statistics, 2010). Thus, the highest percentage is recorded with the private sector while the second highest being the self-employed population. This shows that the economy foresees a growing private sector.

The percentage distribution of occupation in Sri Lanka shows 43.7% of permanent occupation while 28.5% being temporary and 9.9% being casual in nature. Further, 17.9% is recorded as no permanent employer.

**Unemployment**

The Department of Census and Statistics defines ‘Unemployed’ people as those who are seeking and available for work, but had no employment (Sri Lanka Labor Force Survey, 2010). The unemployment rate of the country shows a gradual decline over the past few years however the female unemployment remains higher (nearly twice that of male) throughout the past years.

Table 3.2: Unemployment Rate (2001-2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Both gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka, 2010
As seen through the educational levels, the unemployment rate of the population with G.C.E. (Advanced/Level) qualification and above depicts a higher rate of unemployment for females. The Global Employment Trends for Youth (2010) highlights the differences between the youth unemployment rates for male and female. It reports that Sri Lankan female youth unemployment rate was 23.3% in Quarter 3 2010, compared to 16.3% for young men. (In Japan and the Republic of Korea, male youth unemployment rates were 2.5 percentage points higher than the female equivalent in Quarter 4 (Global Employment Trends for Youth, 2010).

**Underemployment**

Besides the above-shown adult, youth, and female unemployment patterns and figures, it can be noted the status of underemployment in Sri Lanka. The figure 3.6 below shows the underemployment by sector and gender as a comparison of 1996/97 with 2003/04. The highest underemployment lies with female that is in the agricultural sector.

**Figure 3.6: Underemployment by Sector and Gender**

![Figure 3.6: Underemployment by Sector and Gender](image)

**Source:** Karunathilake, 2006

The reasons for being underemployed are depicted in figure 3.7 (Karunathilake, 2006). As per Karunathilake, nearly 50 per cent of underemployment was due to three reasons, such as, nature of work (22%), reduction in economic activity (15%), and off-season inactivity (10%). Further, there were only a few reasons beyond the control of policies. He notes that the underemployment
can be reduced to a great extent by creating a conducive, consistent policy environment for economic activities (2006).

**Figure 3.7: Reasons for being Underemployed**

![Figure 3.7: Reasons for being Underemployed](image)

**Source:** Karunathilake, 2006

### 3.4 Trends of Labor Force

Below it presents a glance at the future trends of population and dependency in Sri Lanka. The purpose of providing this review is to give a slight understanding the nature of its unforeseen but predictable future workforce that would be available for the future work organizations.

Demographic figures for Sri Lanka shows a low average population growth rate (1.1) which takes a declining trend over the years and showing the same trend in future projections. The figure below shows birth rate, death rate, and population growth rate from 1951 to 2031 (projection).
The projections for birth and death rates indicate the possibility of a zero population growth (nearly in another 30 years period).

The dependency ratio (the ratio of the population in the age groups below 15 years and above 60 years to the rest of the population), is projected to rise at an increasing pace. These projections are likely to hint many socioeconomic problems to be created in the future (Karunathilake, 2006).

Thus, it implies the need of being sensitive on future labor situations as well in considering human resource strategies and practices of work organizations.
3.5 Summary

This chapter presented a brief review of the labor situation in Sri Lanka in lines of the nature and characteristics of labor force, employment, unemployment, and underemployment, and the trends of labor force with available statistics. The economically active population is seen from early 20’s to late 60’s in the age groups. The LFPR in Sri Lanka has been around 50% during the recent past. Female labor force participation is recorded to be one third of the total, and has not been changed during the past decade. There is an increasing trend of the contribution to labor force by the people in their 40’s. Labor market shows a mismatch between the supply and demand. There seems a slight up-movement in the employment rates in Sri Lanka however the female employment rate is quite below than that of male. Higher employment is shown to be in the private sector, while the second ranking been the self-employment. Nearly 44% is engaged in permanent occupation, while nearly 39% been engaged in temporary or casual occupations. Even though the unemployment rate is in a decreasing trend, high unemployment of female has become a significant factor. Underemployment also reflected in figures, especially for female. The major reasons to be underemployed are noted to be the nature of work, reduction in economic activity, or off-season inactivity. Further, there seen a trend of lowering annual population growth and increasing dependency in its projections of future.
CHAPTER FOUR
Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Present chapter briefly explains the research methodology adapted in the study. First, presenting the research design and method, next it elaborates the data collection protocol with brief descriptions to data sources used. Discussing the nature of instrument and data, and providing a short description about the rigor and reliability of data, it ends up with a summary.

4.2 Methodology in Brief

Methodology of a research reveals, basically, the particular research design, including the procedures and process, and the methods used in addressing the research questions and achieving study objectives. For the identification of human resource strategies and practices for successfully employing people those who adapting non-conventional models of career, and for drawing implications for Sri Lanka, the present study adapted the following methodology.

Research design

Research design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the study’s initial research questions, and ultimately, to its conclusions. Thus, the present study was designed in a framework, which first reviewed comprehensively the literature related to non-conventional models of career and non-regular employment patterns, and then proceeded to survey the strategies and practices those used for employing the afore-said type of employees in Japanese organizations. Finally, followed by a brief discussion, it drew implications for Sri Lankan organizations.

Research method

‘Survey method’ can be used when the research questions take the form of who, what, where, how many, and how much. Further, survey method focus on contemporary events and it does not require control of behavioral events (Yin, 2009, p. 8). Thus, the present study adapted the survey method as its research method on the grounds that it questions ‘what’ and ‘how’ about human resource strategies and practices in Japanese organizations, focuses on contemporary events, and does not require controlling any behavioral event or variable.

4.3 Data Collection Protocol

The study basically relied on five types of data sources: (a) review of research reports, (b) focused discussions with field researchers, (c) interviews and discussions with industrial management, (d) observations of Public Employment Security Service Centers, and (e) archival data.
Review of research reports

The already published research reports were reviewed for their findings in relation to the contemporary labor issues, non-regular employment patterns, their forms, practices, and organizational strategies. It mainly included the publications of Japan Institute of Labor and research publications of Japanese and foreign researchers on the same issue.

Discussions with researchers

There were held planned and focused discussions with some of the field researchers who are actively engaged in on-going research activities in the same area of study. It enables not only to get their views and research findings, but also to get access to some valuable sources of archival data.

Interviews and discussions with industrial management/employment centers

A several interviews were held with industrial management in the service industry (hotel industry) in the new town area of Makuhari. These discussions were helpful in getting access to some first-hand information from the real work set-ups. Two discussions were held at Public Employment Security Service Centers (Chiba and Ishinomaki, Miyagi). These revealed the formal arrangements at the centers designed for helping diverse categories of people who are adapting to diverse work styles.

The interviews and discussions were held in Japanese language. These interviews and discussions were made possible by the assistance of Japanese researchers, who themselves participated in the events and later helped in clarifying certain unclear points. The interviews used semi-structured and open-ended questionnaires for probing into details. The questions mainly focused on the past trend and current situation of regular and non-regular labor and strategies and practices for employing, developing, and maintaining them.

Observation of Public Employment Security Service Centers

On-site observations were done at two Public Employment Security Service Centers (Chiba and Ishinomaki, Miyagi) in order to get knowledge on their work set-ups, the arrangements, facilities provided, and the artifacts used.

Archival data

The present study used publicly accessible data sources through the World Wide Web. The Ministry of Health, Labor and welfare of Japan, the World Bank, Labor Market Information Services, the Central Bank of Sri Lanka etc. included among them.
4.4 Instruments and Data

It used basically two instruments for collecting data. One was used at the hotel industry, and the other was used at the Public Employment Security Service Centers.

**Instrument used at the hotel industry**

The instrument used for the interviews and discussions (held with industrial management) mainly focused on the (a) non-conventional types of individual careers / non-regular types of work styles those can be seen with their employees, and (b) the strategies they have designed and the practices followed by for successfully employing and motivating those types of employments. (See Annexure A for the survey questionnaire). Accordingly, the following matters were addressed:

a. diverse types of non-conventional / non-regular work styles adapted by contemporary employees in the organization (with %)

b. the trend of such career / work styles during the recent past

c. strategies and practices used especially in the following functions for employees those adapting such work styles:
   i. Recruitment
   ii. Promotion
   iii. Remuneration
   iv. Training & Development

d. special issues identified by the organization in relation the those employees

e. any remedial actions taken so far for such issues

f. special measures taken by the organization in motivating such types of employees

g. future strategies (if any) to be used by the organization for them.

**Instrument used at the Public Employment Security Service Centers**

The instrument used for collecting data from the Public Employment Security Service Centers focused the areas such as, (a) the role played by the center, (b) the functions, procedures, policies, and information required for effective performing, (c) the type of service and the clients, and (d) specific functions performed after tsunami in March 2011. The questions were faxed to the Ishinomaki center in advance as per their request. (See the Annex B for the instrument).

Thus, the present study dealt with qualitative data.

4.5 Rigor and Reliability of Data

A several measures were taken to assure the rigor and reliability of data and unbiased analysis during the study. Those are, (a) using multiple sources of evidence, (b) using research findings made available by local researchers, (c) being accompanied with local researchers in the field studies, and (d) having discussions with the participant researcher about the content of data collected during the visits.
4.6 Summary

This study reviewed the literature related to non-conventional models of career and the non-regular patterns of employments at first, and then surveyed the human resource strategies for facilitation them. Based on that understanding, it drew implications for Sri Lankan organizations. It employed the survey method, and used mainly five data sources, namely, review of research reports, focused discussions with field researchers, interviews and discussions with industrial management, observations of Public Employment Security Service Centers, and archival data. Two instruments were used with semi-structured and open-ended questions for collecting data from the industrial management and the Public Employment security Service Centers. The study dealt with qualitative data, and used several measures to assure the rigor and reliability.
CHAPTER FIVE

Human Resource Strategies and Practices for Employees with Non-conventional Models of Career

5.1 Introduction

The present chapter commences with a discussion of the diverse categories those can be seen as non-conventionally careered employees in the Japanese workplace. Then, it discusses in detail the human resource strategies and practices in a general point of view, covering the areas of major corporate strategies of the organizations of the day, institutional changes to that effect, major employment strategies, government support for non-conventional models of career, and the legislative facilitation for modification of employment strategies. Next, it presents the human resource strategies and practices those facilitating non-conventional models of career in particular, paying attention to atypical workers in general, youth, older, female, reemployed, contracted, and the employees those who were displaced or disturbed in their normal civil life.

5.2 Non-conventionally Careered Employees in the Japanese Workplace

Japanese workplace accommodates diverse categories of employees even in unequal numbers. Below it discusses briefly the nature of such main categories in order to give a slight understanding of each before looking into the diverse human resource strategies and practices.

The categories

Youth (those at exploratory stage of career), older or retired (males & females those who wish to continue work), female (not seeking regular employment), mid-careered (transferring among organizations/occupations), reemployed (females, after child birth), temporary agency worker (irrespective of gender & age), dispatched worker1 (irrespective of gender & age), contract workers (irrespective of gender & age), displaced or disturbed in normal civil life (due to natural disasters and aligned circumstances).

Youth

Young workers2 theoretically locate in the exploratory stage in their career, and thus show a tendency of exploring into new and different employment opportunities before settling in one occupation in one organization. As per the survey conducted by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW, 2005), there seem some attitudinal differences in the young workers when compared to their predecessors. For instances, there has been recently an increasing trend of the response to ‘the reason for working’ by the young workers as “To have an enjoyable life”, while

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1 The present study does not discuss and report HR strategies related to dispatched workers due to the reason that such a category of employment is not in practice among the Sri Lankan employment categories.

2 Youth at workforce (or workplace) is being considered as the individuals falling in the age category between 18-35 years in Japan (JIL, 2011).
again having an increasing trend of the response to ‘what gives meaning to your work’ being “Accomplishing my own work”, "Feeling that I’m progressing and improving", or "Having my work recognized as important". This shows an individualistic orientation (Ohishi, 2000) being taken by the youth at work, accompanied with their expectation for acceptance and recognition by the particular community. Honda (2011) explains four types of motives for young people to work harder even at low-paid and non-secured workplaces as to, (a) pleasure (or entertainment), (b) enthusiasm, (c) devotion, and (d) cultism, all of which symbolize innate (psychological) needs or enactments of young people.

**Older employees**

Japan, experiencing an aging society, evidences a healthy older workforce, which possesses strong desires for work. As per the survey conducted by MHLW in 2004, however, notes that the percentage of elderly people who seek regular employment is decreasing with age, while the percentage of those who desire to work in short durations or at their own discretion is increasing with the age (MHLW, 2005). The main reason or motivation to work for older people has not being strongly bound to economic concerns, but instead it has been grounded on the reasons like health, purpose of life, participation in society etc. The roles expected by the employers (more than 35%) from the elderly workers have been mainly, (a) provision of leadership and advice to younger employees, (b) provision of specialized knowledge and expertise, and (c) frontline work utilizing experience and personal networks.

**Female employees**

The female labor force participation in Japan is identified to be in an ‘M’ curve, showing their withdrawal from employment from late 20s to early 40s in age. This withdrawal has been due to marriage, pregnancy, childbirth, or child rearing. The MHLW (2005) indicates in a survey result that there is an upward trend of the opinion of men and women in favor of women’s continuation of work even after childbirth. It has identified three types of desires of women towards work after childbirth, (a) continuing employment, (b) reemployment, and (c) being regular homemakers concentrating on housework and childrearing. It further shows that among the employed female, the percentage of those who left the job after childbirth is less when compared to those who did not. In addition, the percentage of female those who were employed in the same regular jobs even after childbirth is higher than that of employed in non-regular jobs. It shows that majority of female in the Japanese workplace would like to continue with the same regular employments even after childbirth. There is a possibility that some will search for non-regular employment or no employment.

**Reemployed female employees**

Reemployment after a period of leave or resignation from the workplace by female workers in Japan has been due to several reasons like marriage, pregnancy, childbirth and child rearing. Okutsu and Kuniyoshi (2010) found that the time of reemployment varies depending on the
reason for resignation. Their survey further revealed that the most quoted reason for reemployment is ‘financial needs’, while other reasons being ‘planned the time of reemployment’, ‘became willing to work after finding the job’ or ‘invited by the previous office’. The job-hunting channels for the respondents had been (a) advertisements and leaflets, (b) public employment security office (Hello Work), (c) information from neighbors, and (d) invitation by previous workplaces. The majority of the reemployed female employees had obtained part-time employment while half of that number had gained full-time employment. Some part-time workers had become full-time workers and vice versa. There had been some reemployed female workers who were later on promoted to managerial positions, started their own businesses, or became part-time managers.

**Contract employees**

With the lifting of ban on worker dispatching, the number of contract workers in Japan has been increased, due to the reason that the increase of organizations those were utilizing them, the entering of new contract agencies to the labor market, and the increase of people those who adapting to this employment style 3 (Fujimoto & Kimura, 2005). Employment of contract workers have been advantageous to organizations in terms of (a) ease of securing labor (providing quantitative flexibility and enabling outsourcing of HRM), and (b) reduction in labor cost (as the contract companies bear cost of recruitment and training) (Morishima & Shimanuki, 2005). As noted by Morishima and Shimanuki (2005), the expectations of organizations in employing them are the (a) improved skill levels, (b) adaptability in the workplace, and (c) commitment to work. However, the contract companies those dealing with contract employees have faced the certain challenges such as, maintenance of worker commitment, improvement of ability and skills, promote long-term commitment of contract workers (Morishima & Shimanuki, 2005), raise skill levels of contract workers, train onsite production workers by devising training programs, and compensation system (Fujimoto & Kimura, 2005).

**Employees those who were displaced / disturbed in normal civil life**

People those who were displaced, or disturbed in their normal civil lives by certain unavoidable circumstances, and consequently lost their usual employment, become a part of a community that deviated from the regular pattern of working. Recently, in Japan, such a community was appeared in the Northeastern coastal area due to natural disasters (earthquake and tsunami) and its aligned unavoidable circumstances. Irrespective of their gender, age, educational background,

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3 The present discussion does not entertain worker dispatching and the employment strategies for employing them, but instead it focuses on the sub-contracting (fixed-term contract) and related strategies. Sub-contracting is differentiated from dispatching based on the source of authority in giving instructions to employees at work. Thus, sub-contracting is identified with contract companies giving instructions and orders to workers, while dispatching is identified with client companies (work organizations) giving instructions and orders to workers.
previous work experience, or even special desires, they constitute a group of people who search for employment after just being settled in a shelter (even temporary).

5.3 Human Resource (HR) Strategies / Practices in General

The background and organizational corporate strategies

It seems that the non-conventional models of career have been possible in Japan due to changes in various general environmental conditions\(^4\), including economic crises, demographic changes (declining birth rate, shrinking population, aging society etc.), socio-cultural transformations (generational changes, change of values, expectations, work ethics etc.) and changes in the industrial characteristics. The overall corporate strategies in Japanese organizations have considered the above conditions to a greater extent. A survey conducted by MHLW in 2004 reveals that the main focus of the corporate strategy of surveyed Japanese organizations has been the ‘cost reduction’. Among the rest of the strategies, (a) focus on profits rather than sales, (b) developing value added products, (c) diversifying business by seeking opportunities in new areas, and (d) focus business attention have been highlighted. Not surprisingly, their HR strategies and practices have been formulated and designed in such a background that it took the afore-mentioned changes into consideration (MHLW, 2005).

Human Resource (HR) strategy and institutional changes

Thus, in the area of HR strategy, the organizations have revealed their adoption of following strategies (given in the order of highest use to lowest use):

1. Developing human skills
2. Using elderly workers by extending retirement age
3. Enhancing use of female workers
4. Outsourcing
5. Mechanization of business operations and production processes
6. Facilitate recruitment by improving employee benefits
7. Enhancing use of foreign workers

Along with these strategies, organizations have proceeded to adopt certain changes in their institutional systems in order to address the afore-mentioned issues at workplaces. It seems that the focal points in such changes hit at (a) wage systems, (b) working hours, (c) personnel development, and (d) management hierarchy. In line with these points, the following changes can be identified in organizations’ institutional systems in relation to human resources:

1. Introduction of performance and results-based wage systems (to promote productivity and to satisfy and motivate individual employees without common pay hikes)
2. Application of goal-management (MBO) and empowering employees (to increase commitment and productivity)

\(^4\)This report does not discuss such environmental conditions as it is out of the scope of present study.
3. Introduction of variable working hour systems (to get the use of a vast range of employee base)
4. Shifting of personnel development from company to individual employees (to reduce the cost of training & development and to show a positive attitude towards personnel development)
5. Introducing professional positions (to overcome the shortage of managerial level positions)

Employment strategy

Amid the afore-mentioned environmental conditions, and aligning corporate and HR strategies, Japanese organizations focus on increasing the productivity with the use of their employment strategies. In that, they have been making changes and modifications in their employment structure.

Thereby, the main characteristics shown in their employment strategies are as follows:

1. Maintain the total number of employees, while expanding the proportion of non-regular employees and slightly reducing the regular employees
2. Expand the proportion of part-time employees, direct-contract employees and dispatched workers
3. Increase assigning non-routine jobs to non-regular employees
4. Active utilization of female workers
5. Offer non-conventional working modes, including short and flexible working hours

The expansion of non-regular employee base has been directed towards the purposes such as (a) to save labor cost and cost other than labor, (b) to respond to business fluctuations, (c) to fill professional posts, or (d) to assign regular employees more critical jobs.

However, the MHLW (2005) points out that the organizations have to consider the aspects of employee satisfaction, motivation, and aspirations when they are modifying employment structures. Further, it emphasizes the need of attention on identifying role models and even a superior for consultation in need of an employee at the workplace.

Government support for non-conventional career

Within the threatening demographic and socio-cultural changes in its atmosphere, the government is in the process of taking certain measures in supporting diverse life-styles of people in order to assure the interests of both employees and the employers. The main areas focused are, (a) equal employment, (b) work-life balance, (c) childcare, and (d) fair and diverse working styles. The Equal Employment, Children and Families Bureau (EECFB) mentions that the ‘changing working styles for a good work-life balance and improving support services such as childcare are two wheels of one cart’ (p. 22). In this endeavor, the Bureau has taken several steps in formulating policies or supporting legislations in following lines:
1. Encouraging organizations to follow the stipulations in the Act on Advancement of Measures to Support Raising Next-Generation Children
3. Providing guidance based on the Part-Time Employment Act
4. Supporting the introduction of Short-Time Regular Employee System

Legislative facilitation for modification of employment strategies

There are facilitation made by enacting, revising, and renaming some of the Laws and Acts related to the employment strategies of organizations. Some of them are:

2. Stabilization of Employment of Older Persons (1986) revised
4. Employment Promotion of Disabled Persons (1986) revised
5. Part-time Workers Law (1992)
8. Shorter Working Hours Law (1992)
9. Employment Security Law

In a discussion on ‘employment strategies required in an aging society with fewer children’, Higuchi (2004) stresses the need of transferring authority to local governments or firms, which are closer to the needs of clients and local residents, in designing appropriate measures and mechanisms for creating employment policies.

5.4 HR Strategies / Practices for Facilitating Non-conventional Models of Career

Organizational HR strategies for facilitating non-conventional models of career adapted by Japanese organizations can be discussed in line with different categories of non-conventionally careered employees in the workplace. Below it presents such HR strategies adapted in employing youth (those at exploratory stage of career), older or retired (males & females those who wish to continue work), female (not seeking regular employment), mid-careered (transferring among organizations/occupations), reemployed (females, after child birth), temporary agency worker (irrespective of gender & age), dispatched worker (irrespective of gender & age), and employees those displaced or troubled in normal civil life (due to natural disasters). At first, it gives a brief of such strategies for atypical workers (in general) without focusing any category.

Strategies for employing atypical workers in general

The main issues in relation to the employment of atypical workers (in general) at workplaces have been identified especially in lines with (a) enhancing their willingness to work, (b) education and training needs, (c) increasing their job retention rate, (d) motivating them to
improve skills, and (e) motivating them for work. Ariga Kambayashi & Sano (2009), explained in their study the following ways for attending to some of those issues.

**Improving willingness to work & upgrading skill level**

Their suggestion is to utilize atypical workers for a medium to long-term by renewing the fixed-term employment contract, that is, to use them as a stationary workforce, not as a temporary workforce.

**Motivation to work & job retention strategies**

For motivating atypical employees to work and resultantly to increase the job retention rates, the following strategies are suggested.

1. Opportunities for OJT
2. Wage system reflecting skills (both part-time & contract workers)
3. Introducing a flexible working hour system for part-time workers
4. A mechanism of posting to managerial positions for contract employees
5. Support for acquisition of external qualification
6. Improvement of skill training program for contract employees

When compared to the regular (full-time) employees, the part-time employees in organizations undergo inferior conditions in terms of remuneration, social welfare benefits (e.g. housing allowance, congratulatory or condolence leave), and job training opportunities (Kayama & Kusayanagi, 2009). However, Japanese work organizations have taken several steps to attract, retain and satisfy part-time workers with the use of certain strategies. Those include:

(a) flexi schedules (with options for condensed week, ten-hour days etc.),
(b) free-working system (work from home),
(c) rehiring programs for female employees,
(d) rehiring of retired employees etc.

Below it focuses on the HR strategies for particular categories of workers as mentioned above.

**Youth**

Japanese workplace shows certain strategies and HR practices adapted towards touching the needs and expectations of its young workforce in the recent past. The MHLW has accumulated some of such attempts in a survey (2005). Through its data, we can infer three main types of areas focused in their strategies as to (a) motivating, (b) training and development, and (c) retaining young workers in the workplaces. Figure below summarizes the details.
Figure 5.1: Strategies / Practices adapted for Motivating, Training, and Retaining Young Employees in the Workplace

**Source: Adapted from MHLW (2005)**

Adaptation of achievement-based wage systems in order to reflect the individual performance in earnings (monetary rewards) has been widely used by Japanese organizations, as per the MHLW (2005). Next widely used strategy is the assignment of positions to reflect the employee preference. Some organizations have taken measures to promote young employees to managerial positions. All these attempts visualize the organizations’ understanding of young minds to a certain extent. Further, it seems that organizations have facilitated training and development of young workers with the facilitations such as (a) appointing leaders to train young employees, (b) developing opportunities for them to exchange views and opinions and to interact with each other, and (c) improving training programs designed for them. There were a large number of organizations those conducted follow-up-interviews by the supervisor or HR department in the form of sensitization to retention of young workers. Further to this, there were seen attempts to establish systems in the HR department through which employees can express their opinions directly beyond their supervisory level, and assignment s to reflect young employees’ tendency of seeking advice. Even though a minor number, some organizations had introduced employee counseling systems too.

**Older employees**

The strategies adapted in the Japanese workplace for employing the elderly workers or serving their desires are seem to be two-fold. That is, (a) removal of legal restrictions (at national level), and (b) revising or establishing of new systems and procedures for extending the working period at organizational level. Under the legal dimension, there has been the amendment of Act; Stabilization of Employment of Older Persons (2006) in order for making it eased for employing
older persons at the usual workplaces. Further, there seem considerable attempts made by individual organizations for obtaining the service of older (retiring) workers in their particular organizational set ups. Those attempts are mainly focused on revising mandatory retirement systems and continued employment systems in work organizations. Such systems have been activated through the mechanisms of:

- Extending mandatory retirement age
- Expanding continued employment
- Step-by-step extension of the pensionable age etc.

Moreover, at some of the organizations, continued employment has been restricted to veteran skilled workers (in order to address the issue of skill transfer well). The reasons for such for restrictions were health issues, occupational differences at skills and continued motivation (Mitani, 2008).

**Female**

Organizations’ reasons for taking positive actions for employing women have been highlighted in a survey (MHLW, 2005). The reasons those highly ranked stand to be, (a) to make workers aware that both genders are judged on performance, (b) to improve managerial efficiency by using female capabilities, (c) to improve productivity by using capacities of both genders, (d) to recruit well qualified people, (e) to improve work ethics, and (f) to improve corporate image.

For female employees to continue with their usual employments and progress in the career or to find any other working style as they wish may need a set of supportive systems at workplaces. MHLW survey found implications for such supportive systems as below:

1. Systems and environments enabling mothers to work while raising children
2. Work that is challenging and rewarding
3. Consideration in work hours of child-care and nursing care
4. Colleagues and superiors to whom one can turn for advice
5. Workplace cultures and environments in which women are not discriminated against for marriage, childbirth, child-care, and so on
6. Equal treatment of men and women and fair personnel evaluations
7. Not too much overtime
8. Flexible work hours

**Reemployed**

It seems that the HR strategies for reemployed female workers necessarily look into the aspects of support services and systems that could ease their continuation of work and progression in the career. The survey conducted by Okutsu and Kuniyoshi (2010) implied that the reemployed female workers need flexi-time arrangements at work, avoiding long-hours or over-time work, child-care services, psychological support when they faced a problem etc. Further, the
organizations may benefits with such a workforce if they can make arrangements for providing information on the available job opportunities and the nature of prospective candidates.

When it comes to the reemployment of retired people, the organizational strategy has been to hire them as ‘non-regular employees’, especially on a lower wage.

**Contract employees**

Fujimoto and Kimura (2005) reveal business strategies employing contract workers in two types such as development type and acquisition type. The development type of strategies focuses on employees with highly technical skills, and thus, emphasize on skill development of contract workers handling high-skilled duties. Accordingly, the strategies include the establishment of (a) human resource development systems, (b) skill-based wage systems, and (c) promotion and pay-raise schemes. They note that the other type does not need the afore-said strategies due to the reason that the acquisition type deals with an employee category that does not require technical skills. Thus, their suggestion is to (a) add value by charging low contract fees, and (b) supply contract workers speedily and steadily to the client organizations. Further, they identify two modes of contract operations management, i.e., contractor-managed and client-managed, and present the strategies of successfully employing contract workers, in the following lines.

1. **Strategies of contractor-managed companies for employees with high technical skills:**

   **Hiring** - (Place weight on long-term commitment)

   - (a) Assessing candidates’ possibilities of quitting (checking employment history/commutation facilities etc.)
   - (b) Screening at selection in order to maintain a high retention rate
   - (c) Workplace tours prior to commencement of work

   **Site management** –

   - (a) Select leaders from contract workers

   **Evaluation & Development Systems** – (Through skill evaluation & training)

   - (a) Not limiting contract periods
   - (b) Offering pay increases
   - (c) Offering chances to be regular workers
   - (d) Conducting job rotations (occasionally)
   - (e) Holding training sessions for leaders

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5 As per Fujimoto and Kimura (2005), the contractor-managed companies raise productivity by independently managing and improving their operations, while client-managed companies curb personnel cost, and offers services at low price as no need of administering operations management.
2. Strategies of Client-managed companies for employees without high technical skills

**Hiring** - (Use a registration system and informal networks)

(a) Maintaining a human resource database registering those wishing to work  
(b) Utilizing informal networks among immigrants

**Site management** –

(a) Leaders only to take attendance & supervise production lines  
(b) Onsite managers only for labor management

**Development** -

(a) No skilled-based evaluation and treatment

**Employees those who were displaced / disturbed in normal civil life**

Usually for the people those who were displaced or disturbed due to unavoidable circumstances are facilitated by the central government with the help of local government authorities. This study reports some important measures taken by the Public Employment Security Service Bureau at the tsunami hit Northeastern coastal area of Japan, for facilitating the employment searching efforts of its displaced community and the re-establishing work organizations. Their service has been in line with the areas, (a) issue of training for work, (b) helping employment searching, (c) make people knowledgeable on basic principles of civil laws and labor regulations, (d) helping people to start up their own businesses, (e) directing them any other matter out of center’s specialty, and (f) helping work organizations in re-establishment or new establishments. Below it gives a brief description of these efforts.

(a) Addressing the issue of training for work

It seems that mainly two kinds of programs are in action for successfully addressing the issue of prospective employees’ lack of training for undertaking employment in any work organization. They are the (i) supportive training opportunities, and (ii) trial employment opportunities at work organizations.

i. Supportive training opportunity

The supportive training opportunities are designed for people those who are lack of/unable to receive employment insurance benefits. The training period lasts from 3 to 6 months, and the target group includes those who have completed the qualification period for unemployment benefits, those who did not meet the requirements to receive the benefits, those who are not covered by the employment insurance, the new graduates (who were not employed), or those who have closed their own business. The program mainly runs at two phases, that is the basic training for educating candidates with fundamental knowledge and competency for general work, and the special training focused on some specific skills for selected occupations.
ii. Trial employment opportunity

This is an opportunity created for both prospective employees and the work organizations to initially see the extent to which the needs of both parties are matching together, and then the possibility of proceeding it as a formal employment. The program is especially designed for those who lack any previous work experience in any field of work, and meant for making job applicants skilled in some selected areas. The trial period is 3 months, and the target group consists of candidates; below 40 years, above 40 (middle-aged), mothers of single parent families, seasonal workers, daily workers, disabled, displaced, and homeless. The program is conducted in collaboration with work organizations, and a candidate receives ¥40,000 per month during the training period.

(b) Helping employment searching

The center provides a great service by providing with a safety net for employment for many categories of employment seekers including school leavers, young mothers, single mothers, middle-aged, elderly people, retired, people with disabilities, homeless, and even for those who lost their house or living fund due to the unemployment. Its service includes providing employment-seekers with job placement services with in-depth consultation. Further, it provides information on child-raising, day care and childcare at one place (Mother’s Hello Work). It also provides livelihood support for unemployed people providing employment insurance benefits in order to ease their employment searching efforts.

(c) Making awareness on principles of civil laws and labor regulations

The center helps job applicants not only in finding their employments, but also in educating them with basic principles of civil laws and basic labor regulations. The matters covered in these awareness efforts include, rights of workers, standards for working conditions, freedom to choose occupation, equality, rights to act collectively, labor agreements between employees and employers, fair pay, employee safety, contractual times, and legislations on part-time work, female labor, dispatched work, contract work etc.

(d) Helping and guiding people to start up their own business

The center helps and guides in certain avenues for people to start up their-own business (small & medium sized businesses) or for being entrepreneurs, without seeking employment under any organization, if they wish so. This includes financial support for establishing new business, support to the employment maintenance of the small and medium-sized business, employment maintenance support expansion to the small and medium-sized business, (The foundation of the small and medium-sized business emergency job security grant), the expansion of a small and medium-sized business emergency job security grant / the labor adjustment grant etc.
(e) Directing people for relevant authorities as appropriate

In case of any matter beyond the sphere of service of the center, it directs people to appropriate / relevant bodies (ex. lawyers, counselors etc.).

(f) Helping work organizations in re-establishment or new establishments

It seems that some new business ventures (from other prefectures) are reaching the area for establishing their business organizations in this tsunami-destructed land. At the same time, the already destructed business organizations of the area exert their efforts for re-establishment. Thus, the center renders its service to these work organizations in many aspects, especially in registration, legal dimensions, labor relations and regulations, safety requirements and measures etc.

All these services taken together seemed to be fulfilling a vast range of requirements of a community which is trying to come out from their destructed and disturbed civil lives.

5.5 Summary

The employee categories; youth, older, female, reemployed, contract-based, and even those who were displaced or disturbed in normal civil life can be seen reflecting their adaptation to non-conventional models of career. The work organizations seemed to be using a variety of corporate strategies, among which the ‘cost reduction’ is noted as significant to majority of them. There have been adapted certain institutional changes those which facilitate the implementation of the particular employment strategies. Among the major employment strategies of organizations, the expansion of the proportion of non-regular employees and slightly reducing the regular employees, expanding the proportion of part-time employees, direct-contract employees and dispatched workers, increasing assigning non-routine jobs to non-regular employees, active utilization of female workers, and offering non-conventional working modes, including short and flexible working hours have been highlighted as the mainly and frequently utilized strategies. Beyond these, there seem some areas of government support for non-conventional models of career, such as, encouraging organizations to follow the stipulations in the Act on Advancement of Measures to Support Raising Next-Generation Children, promoting flexible working styles, providing guidance based on the Part-Time Employment Act, supporting the introduction of Short-Time Regular Employee System etc. Moreover, a strong facilitation from the part of legislations can be seen in Japan in the form of enforce new labor laws, revising or adding necessary parts to the existing Acts and laws etc. Apart from these, there are a number of attempts made by organizations through their home-made strategies to employ youth (addressing the issues of motivating, training and development, and retaining), older (through extending mandatory retirement age, expanding continued employment, step-by-step extension of the pensionable age etc.), female (by introducing systems and environments enabling mothers to work while raising children, offering challenging and rewarding work, consideration in work
hours of child-care and nursing care, creating non-discriminatory work environments, arranging flexible work hours etc.), reemployed (with the facilitations of flexi-time arrangements, short work hours, child-care services, psychological support etc.), and contracted employees (through human resource development systems, skill-based wage systems, promotion and pay-raise schemes etc.). The Public Employment Security Service too renders a considerable service to the displaced or disturbed employee communities and to the work organizations as well of the particular areas, in finding a successful match with each other.
CHAPTER SIX
Summary, Findings and Implications

6.1 Summary of the Study

The present study had three-fold objectives, i.e. to examine the characteristics of non-conventional models of career, to investigate the most appropriate strategies and practices for facilitating the non-conventional models of career, and to draw implications for Sri Lankan organizations for employing and motivating employees those adapting to such career models. It used the survey method, which included literature survey, interviews and discussions, and dealt with qualitative data for achieving the afore-mentioned objectives.

The non-conventional models of career are made possible through certain uncontrollable macro level conditions in economic, socio-cultural, political, demographic and technological environments of the nations. The present study defines the non-conventional career as ‘a series of work life experiences of an individual that gained through crossing-over multiple organizations across diverse types of jobs or assignments with or without an upward hierarchical movement along time’. These career models are, most often, developed through mutual interactive processes of people, self-invented, cross the boundaries of a single employment setting, based on distinct ways of ‘knowing’, tend to shifting to or working parallel in many organizations, focused on gaining work-life balance, acquiring career resilience, and gaining employability, supported by and survived with a pool of networks outside the work environment, not being bound to traditional career arrangements within the organization, and moving horizontally. In the Japanese workplace, there seem diverse categories of employees, such as youth (those at exploratory stage of career), female (seeking or not seeking regular employment), mid-careered (transferring among organizations/occupations), reemployed (females, after child birth), older or retired (males & females those wish to continue work), temporary agency worker (irrespective of gender & age), dispatched worker (irrespective of gender & age), and employees those displaced or disturbed in normal civil life (due to natural disasters and aligned unavoidable circumstances) whom are seemingly deviating from conventional model of career.

In line with many economic, demographic, and socio-cultural concerns of the era, the Japanese organizations opt to give priority to cost reduction among their corporate strategies. Thus, their human resource strategies necessarily are based on the focus of cost reduction. Among the HR strategies, developing human skills, using elderly workers by extending retirement age, enhancing use of female workers, outsourcing, and mechanization of business operations and production processes have been given priority (as shown in order). The work organizations have undergone certain systems changes in order for implementing these strategies in their particular environments. Some of these changes include the introduction of performance and results-based wage systems, application of goal-management (MBO), introduction of variable working hour systems, shifting of personnel development from company to individual employees, and
introducing professional positions. Their employment strategies consist of maintaining the total number of employees while expanding the proportion of non-regular employees and slightly reducing the regular employees, expanding the proportion of part-time employees, direct-contract employees and dispatched workers, increasing assigning non-routine jobs to non-regular employees, active utilization of female workers, and offer non-conventional working modes, including short and flexible working hours etc. Focusing on atypical employees, organizations seem to be concentrating on the matters such as enhancing their willingness to work, education and training needs, increasing their job retention rate, motivating them to improve skills, and motivating them for work. The present study learns and reports that diverse categories of employees have been dealt with diverse sets of strategies and practices by the work organizations and by the Public Employment Security Service Centers.

6.2 Findings

The non-conventional models of career were found to be a gradual deviation from the conventional model of career. Thus, the former is made possible through numerous uncontrollable environmental conditions and some of the intentional actions of the governing bodies, authorities and work organizations.

The investigation of human resource strategies for employing non-regular employees in Japan revealed a number of measures taken at the workplace in order to enhance diverse work styles of its employees. Among them, a significant finding is the serious attention that has been paid on the facilitation provided by the government and affiliated authorities.

Further, in the recent years, a considerable effort has been taken by the authorities to look into the areas of supporting with work- family balance, child care, child rearing facilities etc.

Beyond these, another significant finding was the legal facilitation served for these particular employment categories by the government. Among them, revision of certain existing Acts, renaming of existing Laws in order to convince certain points to work organizations and working communities, and even imposing of new laws were seen as significant endeavors.

The Public Employment Security Service in Japan has been an exemplary mediator between the government and the employees. Further to its activation of search engine for employment searching, it has extended services to newly-establishing work organizations or helped in re-establishment and rehabilitation at disaster-driven areas of the country.

From the part of the individual work organizations, there were seen a diverse set of plans, strategies and practices used commonly or specifically for employing and motivating non-regular type employees. Most impressive plan was the post-retirement plan designed for prospective retirees. Further to this, there were seen a handful of strategies formulated and implemented in-house. Thus, the implications drawn below are based on these areas, and it attempts to direct some applicable insights to Sri Lankan work organizations.
6.3 Implications for Sri Lanka

The practical implications drawn in the study are presented below in two divisions; as the overall implications at macro level and as implications for individual organizational practitioners.

Implications at macro level

These implications address a higher level in decision making bodies, and cover a broader spectrum.

Endorsement of diverse work styles of people

With the uprising conditions in social, cultural, economic, and technological spheres at macro level, it implies the need of endorsing diverse work styles for diverse groups of people in the contemporary society. Accordingly, it becomes a responsibility from the part of work organizations as well. Thus, organizations have to provide with opportunities for individual men and women (young, adult or old) to select their own working styles. For an example, for a women worker, such working styles may be (a) continuing work even after childbirth, (b) re-employment after childbirth, (c) full-time housewife after childbirth, (d) re-employment after retirement etc.

State involvement in regulating external labor market

The free labor market movements have not been successful in efficiently handling the employment concerns of individuals even in Japanese labor market. Thus, it implies the importance of state’s involvement in strengthening the mechanisms of external labor market with the use of appropriate policies and various systems at times.

Legal provisions for non-conventional careers

Japanese labor market seems to be regulated timely with appropriate labor laws and regulations. (Examples: Childcare and Family Leave Act, Act on Advancement of Measures to Support Raising Next-Generation Children etc.) Even though there seem a handful of labor laws and regulations in use, there is a lack of provisions for non-conventional type employments in Sri Lanka. Thus, it implies the need of legal provisions for facilitating non-conventional models of career of employees.

Mechanisms for supporting work-family balance

The Japanese workplace implies the increasing need, as well as its provisions of mechanisms for supporting work-family balance, child care, and child rearing facilities etc. in order to facilitate diverse work styles for its people. It seems to be worked to a greater extent in helping sustainment of a healthy atmosphere at family level, which ultimate ensure a committed and satisfied workforce. Thus, here it emphasizes the need of state involvement for that endeavor.
Specificity of strategies and practices

From all the corners of evidence, it implies that any particular strategy and practice that is designed and used for deploying and managing non-conventionally careered employees in an organization has to be specific in certain terms. This specificity can be related to the industry, the type of employment, size of the workforce, long-term strategies of the organization, and even size of the organization. Thus, designing and identifying strategies and practices for such employees would become a micro-organizational concern rather than an exercise of formulating grand strategies and national practices for managing human resources in a macro perspective.

Establishment of a public employment security service

As per the evidence shown in the study, the implication on establishment of a public employment security service becomes vivid. Such a mechanism would be more helpful and beneficial especially in the Northern and North Eastern provinces where the war-affected people in many categories of ages and with diverse living conditions are with the dead need of employment opportunities. Further, the needs of the re-establishing work organizations would be addressed through such mechanisms.

Implications for organizational practitioners

Below it presents the implications derived for the practitioners in Sri Lankan organizations.

Opportunities for re-employment

It implies the need and advantages of offering re-employment opportunities for former employees of the same organization after retirement, childbirth, or resignation on personal matters, under a special scheme. This kind of employment schemes could be designed on non-regular basis while allowing flexibility on work time, workdays, and task contents etc. with a cost sensitive strategy for the work organizations. Post-retirement planning will be one of those kinds.

Post-retirement life planning

Being sensitive to the issues of cost reduction strategies, need of non-regular workers, allowing diverse and meaningful life styles for elderly workers, and population aging, one implication extended to organizational management is the use of post-retirement planning for its existing older workers. It will be a secured source of labor (internal) at a marginally low cost, but still well experienced and knowledgeable of the organization and its intended operations.

Trainers from a pool of retired workers

Training of non-regular or non-conventional types of employees at younger age can be arranged with the use of most experienced senior people of the retired workforce. Selected numbers of workers who are willing to continue as trainers, while sharing their experiences with the new
generation in a cost sensitive scheme, will be the target group here. This facilitates skill transfer while making ease the training arrangements at a fairly lower cost.

A unit (or a counter) for dealing with non-regular type employments

The organizations those are with the intention of getting certain functions or activities done by non-regular or non-conventional type of employees constantly can establish a unit or arrange a counter, which is open regularly for (external) prospective job applicants. It may open avenues for open recruitment, and at the same time, it eases the organization to develop a database of prospective employees with their desires and abilities, which could be matched later on for making recruitment decisions at appropriate times.

Service of a career consultant

There can be internal employees who wish to change their career, seek for mid-career transfers, and need guidance and support for career development and related endeavors. Thus, the availability of a career consultant would be beneficial for the organization and the individuals, in the contemporary work organizations. Organizations will be able to train such a person internally, if possible, or otherwise get the service from an expert on that.

Implications for the Two Cases on Motivation and Labor Turnover

The following implications are possible in addressing the two cases highlighted in Sri Lankan organizations in relation to the research issue.

Issue of motivation: The implication drawn in the present study is that non-regular types of employments should bring employees the life satisfaction enough to engage in them even without job security and even at a moderated or low rate of pay when compared to regular and conventional types of employments. Further, such employment patterns should allow them the anticipated flexibility and the choice at their discretion. (Only) for the people who desire to make a path from such an employment type to a regular status, should be allowed a choice for conversion. In order to strengthen this conversion system, it seems the need of establishing a ranking system based on the employee performance that may be measured in terms of (a) the time spent in the job, (b) quality of the work (defects free), and (c) experienced gained on the job etc. (This may lead to low labor turnover as well).

Issue of high labor turnover and the related cost of training: The implication was made that the non-regular type of employments, which ease the non-conventional models of career, are better to be concentrated on tasks that do not necessarily require highly skilled labor, intensive training or previous work experience.

Further, motivation, training, and reducing labor turnover of non-regular employees at the workplace can be related to the responsibility of the person-in-charge whose developmental
opportunities are evaluated on his/her capacity and competence for taking that responsibility and successful performance.

 Issue of non-regular work that needs prior training (ex., Call Center of the Bank): For the tasks, which require a certain extent of training it is implied that organizations can use strategies alike re-employment of retired employees that could be secured through a post-retirement life planning.

 6.4 Theoretical Implications

Apart from the afore-given practical implications for Sri Lankan work organizations, the present study identifies a theoretical implication in general as follows. The diverse work styles and the non-conventional models of career themselves implies the possibility of developing a new career stage model, which would stand away from the age-bound career stage models. However, it would require a closer investigation of individual careers of employees from their perspective.

 6.5 Limitations of the Study

The present study was conducted in the Japanese context and necessarily it had a barrier in terms of the language when it came to review some of the Japanese-only literature. Further to this, the present study did not attempt to get any insights from the point of employees who are adapting non-conventional models of career by themselves, even though it would have been helpful in drawing some implications for Sri Lanka. Moreover, the field survey was limited to hotel industry due to lack of time for covering a wide range of industries in the service sector.

 6.6 Directions for Future Research

Along with the limitations discussed above, it seems to be suggestible a future study on the employee opinions on their-own career including a survey on career satisfaction. Further, it would be beneficial to look into employee opinions over the existing work environment in their work organizations, the employment strategies, and the human resource practices as well. Moreover, an empirical study on career stages; in the form of re-visiting the existing career stage model would add value to the existing knowledge as a theoretical contribution. The present research would be extended further to identify the organizational reforms required for facilitating non-conventional models of career in contemporary organizations.
References


Appendix A

Questions used for Semi-structured Interview with Industrial Management on Human Resource Strategies for Deploying Non-regular Workers

1. What are the categories of workers employed in your organization? (Give ratios)
   (Please brief the particular work assigned to them.

   a. Regular:
   b. Part-time:
   c. Arubaito:
   d. Contract:
   e. Dispatched:
   f. Temporary:
   g. Juushain:
   h. Any other:

2. What is the trend of non-regular workers in the recent past?

3. What are your strategies and practices used in following functions with regards to non-regular workers?

   a. Recruitment
   b. Promotion
   c. Remuneration
   d. Training & development

4. What are the special measures those have been taken to motivate your non-regular workers?

5. What are the special issues identified as concerning to non-regular workers in your organization?

6. What are the remedial actions those taken for them so far?

7. What would be your future strategies on non-regular workers?

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

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「非正規雇用労働者の活用の際の人事資源管理に関する調査・研究」

1. 貴事業所における正規雇用、非正規雇用労働者の比率を教えて下さい。
   A. 正規職員
   B. パートタイマー
   C. アルバイト
   D. 業務委託
   E. 契約社員
   F. 派遣社員
   G. 請負会社の社員
   H. その他

2. 貴事業所における、最近の非正規雇用労働者数の動向について教えて下さい。

3. 正規職員以外に関する雇用管理策を教えて下さい。
   A. 採用
   B. 昇進
   C. 賃金、ボーナス、昇給
   D. 職場訓練

4. 貴事業所では、正規職員以外を「動機付け」するために、特別な方策を講じておられますか。

5. 貴事業所では、正規職員以外を活用してきた際に、何が問題となりましたか。

6. 貴事業所では、その問題に対して、どのような方策を講じられましたか。

7. 貴事業所では、正規職員以外の活用を今後、どのように進めていかれる御予定ですか。

御協力頂き、ありがとうございました。

（独）日本貿易振興機構（ジェトロ）アジア経済研究所

海外客員研究員 ディサナヤケ・クムディニ（DISSANAYAKE Kumudinei）
Appendix B

Questions used for Semi-structured Interview with the Officer-in-charge of Public Employment Security Service (at Chiba and Ishinomaki, Miyagi)

1. What is the role played by your entity (Hello Work) in helping organizations (employment strategy) and individuals (employment searching or career progressing)?

2. What are the specific functions / procedures / policies / information needed for effective intermediation between organizations and the individuals (for a better ‘matching of jobs and individuals’)?

3. What types of industries (eg., manufacturing, service, agriculture), organizations (eg., restaurants, retail shops, construction sites), individuals (eg., female, young, retired), jobs (regular, part-time, fixed-term or contract ), at what levels (eg., first employment, mid-career transfer, re-employment after a break) are most served by your entity?

4. Have your usual role or functions been changed or shifted to different directions after the Tsunami (March 2011)? If so, to what directions?

Optional
5. If possible, please provide some statistics of the individuals and organizations served after the Tsunami (with above no. 3 details).
The Author

Kumudinei Dissanayake obtained her Bachelor’s Degree [B.Com. (Special) Honors] and Master’s Degree [MBA] from the University of Colombo, Sri Lanka. She earned her second MBA and the Doctoral Degree [Doctor of Business Administration] at Meiji University, Japan. She is a senior lecturer attached to the Department of Management & Organization Studies, Faculty of Management & Finance, University of Colombo, Sri Lanka. She was the Head of the Department of Management & Organization Studies from 2007 to 2011, and was the coordinator of Master of Business Administration in Human Resource Management Program of the Postgraduate and Mid-career Development Unit of the Faculty from 2006 to 2010. She obtained the Diploma in Counseling from the Sri Lanka Foundation Institute in 2010, and work as a professional counselor.

Her research interest is in the areas of managing new generation of workforce, non-conventional models of career, newly emerging structures of organizations, and human resource strategies. Her special focus is on case study research in Sri Lankan service and industrial sector. Her teaching interest is on general management, organization theory, organizational analysis, organizational behavior, organizational psychology, and career development.

This monograph is the result of her six-month study at the Institute of Developing Economies, Japan, from July to December 2011, under its Visiting Research Fellowship Program.
List of Major Work of the Author

Text Books:


Selected Research Papers:


