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人口問題研究所

Working Paper Series (E)

No. 8

Women and the Class Structure in Japan and Great Britain

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March 1999

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*The Paper was presented at the 14th World Congress of Sociology at the Universite de Montreal in Montreal (Quebec), Canada in July 1998. Earlier versions of this paper were presented at the meetings of the "Women and Stratification Group" of the 1995 SSM Research Committee. I am grateful to the participants of the meetings for helpful comments, especially Professors Kazuo Seiyama, Kunihiro Kimura, Shigeto Tanaka, and Hiroshi Ishida, and to Seiko Yamada for her assistance in preparing tables and figures.

Women and the Class Structure in Japan and Great Britain

Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to determine how to assign women's class position in the society. In most industrialized societies, the growth of female labour force participation has been witnessed since the end of World War II. In response to this significant social change, feminist sociologists questioned the way women were treated in the orthodox class theory, in which the class position of women, particularly of married women, was automatically determined by their spouse. In this study, I compare three different approaches in assigning the class position of married women: the conventional approach in which the women's position is determined by their husband's social class, the individual approach in which the class position of women is determined by their own employment, and the dominance approach in which the class position of women is assigned by the comparison of the wife's and the husband's position. I use the 1995 Japanese Social Stratification and Mobility Survey and the 1992 British Election Survey.

The analyses of the two surveys show that the three approaches are different at the absolute level, but once different marginal distributions under different approaches are taken into account, the relative chances of mobility are virtually the same among these approaches both in Japan and Britain. As far as the pattern of mobility regime in the society is considered, the conventional way of analyzing the class structure does not provide a misleading picture. Further, the proportion of the family in which the class position of wives is superior to that of their husbands is still small. This implies that the families which lie outside the scope of the conventional class analysis are still a minority. Married women's class identification is more likely to be affected by the husbands' class than by their own class in both Japan and Britain. The asymmetry in the effect of the husband's class and of the wife's class on class identification is related not only to the gender inequality in the labour market but also to the gender division of labour within the household.

Keywords: Gender, Class structure, Comparative analysis

Women and Class Structure in Japan and Great Britain

1. Introduction

The primary purpose of this paper is to examine how to assign class position of women, especially married women. I will also investigate whether the women's position in the Japanese class structure is different from that in other highly industrial societies by focusing on the Japanese-British comparison. There are two reasons why I compare Japan with Britain.

First, the shapes of the women's labour force participation rate by age group in the two countries follow a broadly similar pattern of the M-shaped curve (see Figure 1). However, the M-shape is much more pronounced in Japan than in Britain. Second, the proportion of part-time work among all female workers in Britain is especially high among the EU countries. Similarly, in Japan the increase in part-time work among female workers has witnessed in post-war Japan.¹ The labour force participation rate among females who are over the age of 15 is 51.7 percent in 1991 in Britain and 50.7 percent in 1992 in Japan. The proportion of part-time workers among all female workers is 42.4 percent in Britain and 34.8 percent in Japan. Part-time work serves an important avenue for the middle-aged women who withdrew from the labour market to re-enter in both countries, although the types of occupation engaged by these women are different in the two countries (Shirahase 1995).

The debate on women and the class structure took place in 1970s and 1980s in Britain and elsewhere. Acker (1973; 1980) sparked the debate by claiming that previous class theories ignored women and other members of the household by assuming that the class position of the family is derived from the male head. Under

the name of the family or household women were neglected in the study of class structure. With the increase in the female labour force participation rate in many industrial societies, according to Acker, class theory should incorporate women into the analysis of inequality. Allen (1982), Delphy (1981) and Stanworth (1984), from a feminist perspective, criticized the conventional class analysis.

Goldthorpe (1983; 1984) and Lockwood (1986), in response to these critics, defended that the conventional class analysis, which uses family as the unit of analysis, is still effective in examining social structure of industrial nations. Goldthorpe (1983; 1984; Goldthorpe and Payne 1986), in particular, using empirical data showed that women's labour force participation is still closely related to family events and that the feminist criticism entails serious difficulty. Feminist scholars tend to ignore the fact that women's employment is often more intermittent and involves part-time work than men's. According to Goldthorpe, it is this disadvantaged condition of women in the labour market which leads to the male dominance in the determination of the family's class position and that the conventional view recognizes gender inequality in the labour market.

The conventional approach to class analysis which emphasizes family or household as the unit of analysis and the feminist perspective which claims the priority of individual stand at the opposite poles of the debate. The dominance approach which was advocated by Erikson (1984) occupies the middle ground between the two poles. This approach shares the view with the conventional approach that the unit of the class analysis should be the family or household, but it does not automatically use the husband's employment to represent the class position of the family. Rather, it

claims that the class position of the family should be determined by the family member who carries the economic responsibility of the family, thereby allowing the wife's work position to be taken into account. The work positions of both spouses are ranked based on an order of dominance: those who work are ranked higher than those who do not work; full-time work over part-time work; and professional managerial occupations are ranked higher than blue-collar occupations, etc. It is important to recognize that not only occupation but also work time and employment status are taken into account in determining the order.²

This study evaluates which of these approaches is most appropriate to the determination of class position of the women in the Japanese society. Seiyama (1996) claims that the determination of class position of women and the adequacy of class theory should be distinguished. Similarly, Golthorpe and Marshall (1992) insist that the measurement of class position of married women pertains to analytic decision, rather than theoretical one. The debate about class and women does not necessarily exclude theoretical discussion, but this study has no intention of modifying class theories. I will focus on the issue of whose work position is most crucial in the determination of class position of the family.

This study analyzes married women and excludes single women. Feminist sociologists criticize the conventional approach because a woman's position suddenly changes at marriage from that of her own to that based on her husband. However, there is no disagreement between the conventional and the feminist approach with regard to the class position of single women. I will discuss later the issue of the change of class position following the life cycle and stage.

2. Data and Theoretical Framework

The data sets used in this study are the 1995 Japanese Social Stratification and Mobility Survey (SSM)³ and the 1992 British General Election Survey (BES). The SSM surveys have been conducted in Japan every decade since 1955, and female respondents were included from the 1985 SSM survey. The 1995 SSM survey consists of three parts (A, B and Prestige part), with each part having common and different questions. This study combines part A and B because both parts asked information on the father's and the respondent's employment. The valid number of cases is 5357; male respondents were 2490 (46.5%) and female respondents were 2867 (53.5%). The details of the survey are given in the 1995 SSM Research Committee (1997).

The British General Election Survey began in 1963 by Dr. Butler and Dr. Stokes. Since then, the surveys have been conducted at every election. It is a national sample of adult population (18 years of age or over) in England, Wales, and Scotland. The 1992 survey includes valid sample of 2855, with 1335 males (46.8%) and 1520 females (53.2%).

This study places class categories at the center of the analysis. The difference between class and strata is due to the fact that strata is a hierarchy of ranking based on occupational prestige scores or other scores, whereas class consists of discrete groupings based primarily on the means of production and employment relations (Lockwood 1958; Goldthorpe et al. 1987). Each class is distinguished by the difference in life chances and mobility chances, but there is no intrinsic order

between different class categories (Weber 1922; Goldthorpe et al 1987). Based on these class categories, I will investigate whether the individual or the family is the unit of class analysis and how women's position is taken into account in understanding the class structure of the Japanese and British society (Erikson and Goldthorpe 1993; Wright 1989; Marshall et al. 1988; Ushijima 1995).

Class categories used in this study come from those advocated by John Goldthorpe and his associates (Goldthorpe et al. 1987). The main reason for using the Goldthorpe scheme is that it takes into account not only occupation but also employment status, firm size, and managerial status. In particular, in Japan men and women who occupy the same occupation tend to differ in terms of employment status and managerial status. For example, among those who engage in farming, men are more likely to hold the self-employed or employer status whereas women are more likely to work as family workers. Among those who occupy clerical position, men tend to use clerical position as a stepping stone to a managerial rank while women tend to permanently stay in clerical work.

The other advantage of using the Goldthorpe scheme is that it allows us to conduct cross-national comparisons with a high degree of comparability. The class categories were constructed carefully from the primary raw data following the very similar procedure in the two countries (Ishida, Goldthorpe, and Erikson 1991). The use of these categories enables us to distinguish what is different in Japan and what is similar in Japan, compared with Britain. Unlike some studies (e.g., Imamura 1987; White 1987) about the Japanese society which emphasize Japanese uniqueness without explicitly conducting a comparative analysis, this study will conduct a refined

comparative study using a high quality data and comparable categories.

The class categories used in this study are the six-category version of the Goldthorpe scheme: (1) the service class (I+II), (2) the upper non-manual class (IIIa), (3) the petty bourgeoisie (IVab), (4) the farming class (IVc+VIIb), (5) the skilled manual class (V+VI), (7) the non-skilled manual and the lower non-manual class (VIIa+IIIb).

3. Three Approaches to Class Analysis and Class Distribution

Table 1 shows the distribution of women's class using three different approaches to class analysis: the conventional approach, the individual approach, and the dominance approach.⁴ The most obvious difference among the three distributions is that the individual approach produces very different distribution, compared to the other two approaches. In order to understand the magnitude of the difference, the index of dissimilarity (ID) between two sets of distribution is computed. In Britain, these indices are very high: the index between the individual approach and the conventional approach is 40 and between the individual approach and the dominance approach is 38. In Japan, the corresponding figures are 34 and 37. The individual approach shows the distribution of work position among women which is clearly different from that among men. These results imply that the shape of the class distribution among women varies greatly depending on whether the unit of class is the individual or the family.

The difference between the conventional approach and the dominance approach is small in both societies: the index of dissimilarity is 5.1 in Japan and 11.8 in

Britain. The index is particularly small in Japan. In other words, even though both spouses are incorporated into the determination of the class position of the family, the distribution of class resembles that determined by the male head of the family. The reason why there is difference between the conventional approach and the dominance approach in Britain is due to the fact that non-manual occupations which tend to have concentration of women are ranked relatively high in the hierarchical order.⁵

4. Women's Intergenerational Mobility by Three Approaches

Table 2 shows the crosstabulations of class origin and class destination among Japanese women using three different approaches, and Table 3 shows the same crosstabulations for British women. Class origin is determined by the father's class, and class destination is determined by three different ways: (1) by the male head (the conventional approach), (2) by the wife (the individual approach), and (3) by the most dominant person (the dominance approach). Cell entries are outflow rates from a particular class origin. The analysis is restricted to working couples, that is, both husband and wives were working at the time of the survey.

I begin with the Japanese tables. As was the case for the distributions of class destination shown in Table 1, the outflow rates are similar between the conventional approach and the dominance approach. The outflow rates using the individual approach are different from those of the other two approaches. The main difference pertains to the inheritance cells. The proportions of those who stayed in the service class (51% and 56%) or the petty bourgeoisie (30% and 32%) under the conventional and the dominance approach are much higher than those computed under

the individual approach. On the other hand, the proportion of those who stayed in the non-skilled manual class is much higher in the individual approach table than in the other two tables.

The tables constructed from the conventional or the dominance approach show generally high outflow rates to the service class (I+II) or the petty bourgeoisie (IVab) whereas the table using the individual approach shows relatively high outflow rates to the non-manual class (IIIa) or the non-skilled class (VIIb+IIIb). These differences reflect the fact that class destination under the individual approach is measured by the position of the female respondent whose sex is different from the father. In other words, the difference between the class origin and class destination distributions pertains not only to the generational change in the class distribution but also to the sexual inequality in the labor market.

I next examine the pattern of outflow rates in the British tables. The tables constructed from the conventional and the dominance approach show relatively high outflows to the service class (I+II) and the petty bourgeoisie (IVab). In particular, the outflows to the service class are higher in Britain than in Japan. When we compare the Japanese and British tables which are constructed from the dominance approach, the outflows to the service class are more apparent in the British table. Cross-national comparison of the two tables which are constructed from the individual approach also points out that those who stayed in the service class is much higher in Britain (43%) than in Japan (26%).

Under the individual approach, the outflow rates to the non-manual are generally high in Britain, similar to Japan, but the outflows to the service class are

more frequent in Britain than in Japan. In contrast, under the individual approach in Japan, the outflows to the manual classes are more frequent than in Britain. These cross-national differences, which are apparent in the tables under the individual approach, reflect the differences in the class destination distributions among working women in the two countries: in Britain white-collar work as represented by the service class and clerical positions dominates the class destination distribution while in Japan the skilled manual work, although many of them part-time, constitutes an important share of the class destination distribution (Shirahase and Ishida 1992; Shirahase 1995).

The results of outflow rates are heavily influenced by the class destination distributions as represented by three approaches to class analysis. Outflow rates are generally high to those class categories which have large shares in the class destination distribution. In order to control for the effect of the class destination distribution, I will resort to the log-linear analysis. The results are shown in Table 4 (Japan) and Table 5 (Britain). The first model in Tables 4 and 5 is the independence model which does not assume any relationship among class origin (O), class destination (D), and approach (A). The lack of the fit of the independence model suggests that there are some significant associations among the variables.

The best fitting model in both societies is the fourth model which implies that origin and destination are associated and the destination distribution is different by approach. This model does not allow the class origin distribution to be different by approach (O.A term). This model also excludes a three-way interaction (O.D.A), implying that the pattern of association between class origin and class destination is basically the same among three approaches. In other words, if we use the notion of

relative mobility chances or the odds ratio pattern as the measure of the openness or fluidity in a society, then the conclusion about the openness or fluidity does not depend on the approach we use. We will arrive at a similar conclusion regardless of the type of approach used to operationalize the women's position.

5. Family Type Based on the Dominant Order of Spouses' Employment

The most persistent criticism of the conventional approach to class analysis relates to the claim that the class position of married women is determined by the husband's employment even though an increased number of wives work in the labor market as employees. Therefore, I would like to classify married couples into one of the following types: (1) husband-dominant families in which the husband's employment determines his family's class, (2) homogamy families in which the wife's work position and the husband's work position are equally ranked, and (3) wife-dominant families in which the wife's own employment determines her family's class. I would like to examine the magnitude of the wife-dominant families because these families lie outside the scope of the conventional approach to class analysis.

Table 6 shows the distribution of family type by nation. The distribution is shown for all married couples and for married couples in which both spouses worked at the time of the survey. First, focusing on all married couples, 85 percent of all Japanese couples are classified as husband-dominant families, and the families who fall outside the conventional approach constitute only 8 percent. In Britain, 72 percent of all couples are classified as husband-dominant families, although one-fifth of all couples are wife-dominant families. Second, focusing on dual-earning couples,

the distributions of family type in the two societies are very similar. The proportion of wife-dominant families constitutes only 13 percent, and almost three-quarters are husband-dominant families. In Britain, the reason why the proportion of wife-dominant families is smaller among dual-earning couples than among all married couples is related to the effect of high male unemployment rate.

Table 6, the bottom half, presents the distribution of family type by age group among dual-earning couples in Japan and Britain. In both countries, the proportion of wife-dominant families is highest among the youngest age group (20-39). Among the two older age groups, the proportion of husband-dominant families is about three-quarters in both societies and correspondingly the proportion of wife-dominant families is small. However, it is worth noting that husband-dominant families are the majority in all age groups in both Japan and Britain. Although there is a trend of an increasing weight of wife-dominant families, families which fall outside the conventional approach are still minority in contemporary Japan and Britain.

6. Determinants of Class Identification

According to the individual approach to class analysis, women's class identification should be determined by their own class position. In order to empirically evaluate this proposition, I will examine the effect of the wife's class and the husband's class on class identification. Tables 7 and 8 report the results of the logit analyses predicting class identification by the respondent's class position, education, and age, and the spouse's class position and education. The effect of class position is represented by dummy variables using the non-skilled class as the base category. The dependent

variable in the Japanese data set is class strata identification: those who responded that they belonged to upper or upper middle strata are coded 1 and 0 otherwise. The dependent variable in the British data set is class identification: those who responded that they belonged to the working class are coded 1 and 0 otherwise.

As shown in Table 7, the results of the Japanese data set show that among female respondents the effect of the husband's class appears to be more pronounced than that of their own. Furthermore, the husband's education exerts significant effect while the wife's own education does not. In contrast, among male respondents, the husband's own class affects significantly their class identification while the wife's class does not. Similarly, the husband's education shows significant effect while the wife's education does not. Therefore, there is a clear asymmetry in the effect of the husband's and the wife's attributes.

Table 8 reports the results of the British data set. They parallel in many ways the Japanese analyses. Among male respondents, the husband's own class position exerts significant effect on their class identification while the wife's class generally does not. Among female respondents, the effect of the husband's class position appears to be much stronger than that of the wife's own position. These results of the British analyses also support the notion of asymmetry in the effect of class position of the husband and the wife.

The above analyses, however, did not take into account whether the wife's work is full-time or part-time. In order to fully test the proposition derived from the individual approach, it is important to restrict the analyses to women who were working full-time. The re-analyses using the restricted sample of women who were

working full-time in Japan are reported in Table 7. Among male respondents, the effect of the wife's class position on class identification is still not significant even though the wives worked full-time. However, among female respondents, the effect of the wife's own class position is apparently increased and is almost as strong as the effect of the husband's class. The increased effect of the wife's own class on class identification suggests that the wife's involvement in the labour market does affect how women view themselves in the class structure.⁶

In summary, the most crucial finding from the analyses of the determinants of class identification pertains to the asymmetric effect of the husband's and the wife's class. In both societies, women's class identification is not solely determined by their own class position; rather, their class identification is more likely to be affected by their husband's class. In particular, the British society shows a very pronounced asymmetric effect. The Japanese analyses also suggest that not only whether women participate in the labour market or not but also the extent of participation -- at least in the form of full-time or part-time -- has some implications for the women's class identification.

7. Discussion

This study examined three different approaches to conceptualize women's position in the class structure. By analyzing the pattern of intergenerational mobility and the effect on class identification, this study evaluated the validity of these three approaches. The empirical analyses suggest that the contribution of women's work on the determination of class position of the family is still limited despite the increased flow

of female employees into the labour market in recent period. The patterns of intergenerational outflow rates show variation among three different approaches because of the gender inequality in the labour market. However, once the difference in the marginal distributions between men and women is taken into account, the relative chances of mobility are basically the same among the three approaches; even between the conventional and the individual approach where the difference in the outflow rates was apparent, the odds ratio pattern shows remarkable similarity. This finding confirms that “the forces that shape the association between origins and destinations among men would seem to be ‘sex blind’ – operating in much the same way among women” (Marshall 1997, p.108).

The cross-classification of the wife’s and the husband’s employment indicates that the wife-dominant families are still minority in both Japan and Britain. This finding implies that the families which fall outside of the scope of the conventional approach are still small in number. Furthermore, the class identification among the working wives is more likely to be affected by their husband’s class position than by their own. All these findings lead to the implication that the conventional approach to class analysis is still valid. However, when women occupy full-time position, the effect of their own class position on class identification cannot be ignored.

Cross-national comparisons between Japan and Britain indicate the basic similarity in the position of married women in the class structure in both societies. The outflow rates show large variation between the individual approach and the conventional approach, reflecting the gender inequality in the labour market, while the relative chances of mobility are basically the same among three approaches in both

societies. In other words, the increased participation of women in the labour market in both societies does not seem to increase the fluidity or openness in the society.

The asymmetry in the effect of the husband's class and of the wife's class on class identification is related not only to the gender inequality in the labour market but also to the gender division of labour within the household. Furthermore, because women are more likely to be disadvantaged than men in pay and labor condition and wives are more likely to take care of domestic duties than husbands, wives are less likely to contribute to the determination of the class position of the family than husbands. In other words, the gender inequality in the labour market and within the household leads to the gender asymmetry in the determination process of the family's class position.

¹ The proportion of women among all part-time workers is 85 percent in Britain and 75 percent in Japan (OECD 1993).

² When both spouses occupy the same employment status and work time, the following order is used to rank the work position of the spouses: (ranked from high to low) class I, class II, class IVa, class IVb, class IVc, class IIIa, class V, class VI, class IIIb, class VIIa, and class VIIb.

³ I would like to thank the 1995 SSM Survey committee for providing me with the data set.

⁴ Table 1 distinguishes class IVc (farmers) from VIIb (farm workers who are predominantly family workers). The reason is that women tend to occupy farm worker's position due to their family worker status while men tend to occupy the independent farmer's status in Japan.

⁵ Erikson and Goldthorpe (1992) claim that they placed class IIIa above class V+VI in order to bring more women into the determination process because women tend to concentrate in class IIIa position.

⁶ Naoi (1990) evaluated the validity of the three models which determine the class identification among women: the status borrowing model, the status sharing model, and the status independence model using the 1985 SSM. Among women who worked full-time, Naoi (1990, p. 163) reports the increased explanatory power of the status

independence model which suggests that the women's class identification is determined by their own independent position. The results shown in this study are not altogether consistent with Naoi's findings. However, my analyses are based on class category and class analytic framework, and the direct comparison of the findings is not warranted.

Figure 1 Labour Force Participation Rate by Age Group among Japanese and British Women

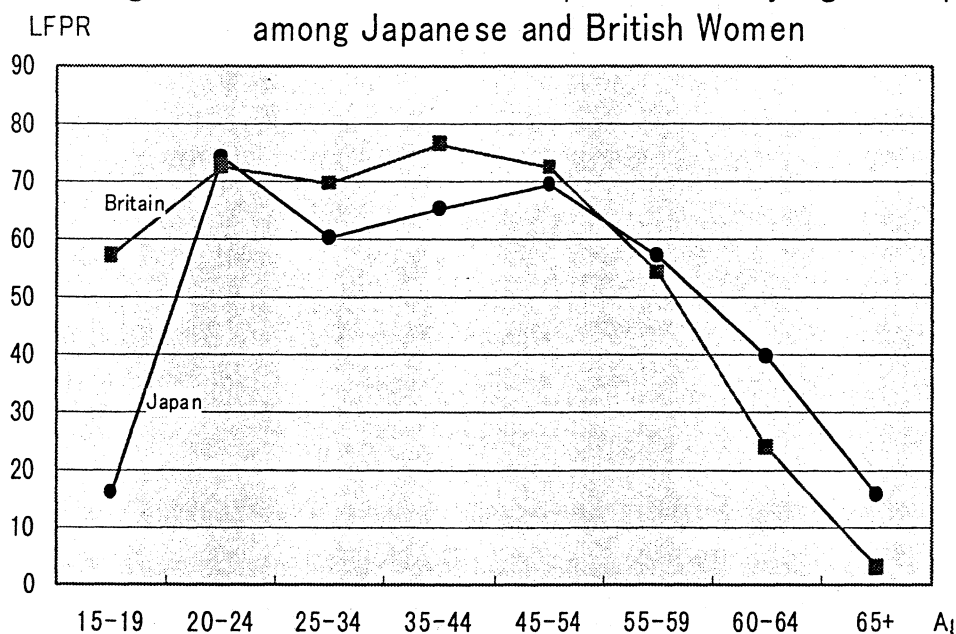


Table 1 Distribution of Women's Class under Three

Approaches in Japan and Britain (%)

	Japan			Britain		
	Conv.	Ind	Dom	Conv	Ind	Dom
Class I+II	33.9 (30.0)	14.6 (14.5)	36.3 (35.1)	35.5 (38.1)	24.1 (28.1)	42.5 (45.4)
Class IIIa	9.7 (8.0)	22.5 (23.3)	11.0 (9.8)	4.9 (5.0)	25.8 (26.2)	9.7 (11.0)
Class IVab	17.8 (23.8)	7.6 (7.6)	19.1 (24.9)	14.7 (15.8)	4.6 (5.2)	13.2 (14.5)
Class IVc	4.7 (6.7)	1.5 (1.5)	4.8 (6.4)	1.0 (1.3)	0.2 (0.5)	1.0 (1.2)
Class V+VI	17.5 (16.5)	16.7 (16.2)	15.0 (12.8)	23.6 (22.0)	5.8 (4.5)	16.4 (14.5)
Class VIIa+IIIb	15.1 (14.5)	30.2 (30.2)	12.5 (10.1)	19.7 (17.7)	38.7 (34.5)	17.0 (13.3)
Class VIIb	1.3 (0.9)	6.9 (6.7)	1.3 (0.9)	0.6 (0.2)	0.6 (1.0)	0.2 (0.1)
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

	Japan	Britain
ID (conv-ind)	33.5 (36.7)	39.8 (38.9)
ID (conv-dom)	36.5 (42.8)	38.2 (37.3)
ID (conv-dom)	5.1 (8.2)	11.8 (13.2)

Note: The numbers in parentheses are among dual-earning couples.

Conv= conventional approach

Ind= individual approach

Dom = dominance approach

Table2 Intergenerational Class Mobility among Japanese Women under Three Approaches (outflow percentages)

1. Conventional approach

Class origin	Class destination						
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIb	N
I+II	51.4	13.0	17.1	1.4	10.2	6.9	216
IIIa	32.0	14.0	32.0	2.0	12.0	8.0	50
IVab	31.6	7.4	29.8	1.8	14.0	15.4	272
IVc+VIIb	20.1	3.1	22.0	20.1	18.2	16.4	318
V+VI	29.1	9.4	22.2	3.4	24.8	11.1	117
VIIa+IIIb	19.2	10.6	20.2	2.9	22.1	25.0	104
N	331	87	251	80	176	152	1077

2. Individual approach

Class origin	Class destination						
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIa	N
I+II	25.9	35.9	7.7	1.8	9.1	19.5	220
IIIa	24.5	34.0	5.7	-	15.1	20.8	53
IVab	14.1	21.7	12.3	2.9	16.3	32.6	276
IVc+VIIb	9.6	13.6	3.7	22.6	17.0	33.4	323
V+VI	14.3	25.2	10.1	3.4	15.1	31.9	119
VIIa+III	7.7	23.1	4.8	4.8	26.9	32.7	104
N	165	255	83	94	174	324	1095

3. Dominance approach

Class origin	Class destination						
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIb	N
I+II	56.0	13.9	17.1	1.4	8.3	3.2	216
IIIa	42.0	14.0	32.0	2.0	6.0	4.0	50
IVab	37.1	8.8	32.4	1.8	10.7	9.2	272
IVc+VIIb	23.3	5.0	22.4	20.5	14.8	13.9	317
V+VI	38.5	10.3	23.9	3.4	17.9	6.0	117
VIIa+IIIb	21.2	13.5	24.0	2.9	20.2	18.3	104
N	384	103	265	81	139	104	1076

Table 3 Intergenerational Class Mobility among British Women under Three Approaches (outflow percentages)

1. Conventional approach

Class origin	Class destination						N
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIb	
I+II	55.6	7.7	11.2	1.2	16.0	8.3	169
IIIa	43.2	6.8	18.2	2.3	15.9	13.6	44
IVab	40.0	2.7	17.3	4.0	28.0	8.0	75
IVc+VIIb	27.3	9.1	21.2	6.1	6.1	30.3	33
V+VI	34.8	3.1	13.3	0.8	27.3	20.7	256
VIIa+IIIb	25.7	3.1	17.8	1.6	25.7	26.2	191
N	290	35	115	13	176	139	768

2. Individual approach

Class origin	Class destination						N
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIb	
I+II	42.4	29.7	7.0	10.5	4.1	6.4	172
IIIa	30.4	39.1	4.3	6.5	2.2	17.4	46
IVab	23.1	26.9	5.1	19.2	7.7	17.9	78
IVc+VIIb	36.7	13.3	10.0	13.3	6.7	20	30
V+VI	18.0	26.2	3.5	17.2	7.4	27.7	256
VIIa+IIIb	17.1	21.8	3.1	13.0	7.8	37.3	193
N	195	203	36	109	50	182	775

3. Dominance approach

Class origin	Class destination						N
	I+II	IIIa	IVab	IVc+VIIb	V+VI	VIIa+IIIb	
I+II	61.2	12.2	10.2	0.7	9.5	6.1	147
IIIa	55.0	12.5	12.5	2.5	7.5	10.0	40
IVab	39.7	17.2	20.7	3.4	15.5	3.4	58
IVc+VIIb	37.5	8.3	16.7	12.5	12.5	12.5	24
V+VI	40.7	8.5	12.6	0.5	20.1	17.6	199
VIIa+IIIb	32.2	6.6	14.5	4.6	20.4	21.7	152
N	274	62	83	15	100	86	620

Table4 Results of Applying Log-linear Models to 3-way Table of Class Origin (O) by Class Destination (D) by Approach (A) in Japan

	G	df	p	ID
O+D+A	1070.2	95	0.000	22.6
+O.D	503.7	70	0.000	16.1
+O.D + O.A	503.6	60	0.000	16.1
+O.D + D.A	40.1	60	0.978	3.5
+O.D + O.A + D.A	30.8	50	0.985	3.1

Table5 Results of Applying Log-linear Models to 3-way Table of Class Origin (O) by Class Destination (D) by Approach(A) in Britain

	G	df	p	ID
O+D+A	334.7	95	0.000	22.5
+O.D	220.0	70	0.000	17.0
+O.D + O.A	219.6	60	0.000	17.2
+O.D + D.A	49.5	60	0.831	6.4
+O.D + O.A + D.A	46.7	50	0.607	6.1

Table6 Distribution of Family Type in Japan and Britain (%)

	Japan		Britain	
	All married	Dual-earning	All married	Dual earning
Female-dominant	8.0	13.3	20.5	13.4
Homo-gamy	7.5	13.4	7.6	12.9
Male-dominant	84.6	73.4	71.9	73.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Distribution of Family Type by Age Group among Dual-Earning Couples in Japan and Britain

	Japan			Britain		
	20-39	40-49	50+	20-39	40-49	50+
Female-dominant	18.7	11.0	11.9	16.7	9.6	11.8
Homo-gamy	15.0	11.7	14.1	12.5	14.2	11.6
Male-dominant	66.3	77.3	74.0	70.8	76.2	76.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 7 Results of Logit Analysis on Strata Identification in Japan

Women	b	All women		Full-time working women	
		B	Wald	B	Wald
AGE3			2.5384		1.0223
AGE3(1)	-0.2977		2.3766	-0.1216	0.1295
AGE3(2)	-0.1795		1.3035	-0.2893	0.945
RQUAL3			0.333		0.6627
RQUAL3(1)	-0.085		0.0999	0.123	0.0541
RQUAL3(2)	-0.0264		0.019	0.2713	0.4508
SPQUAL3			7.0755 *		1.1288
SPQUAL3(1)	0.6089 *		6.3859	0.0158	0.0012
SPQUAL3(2)	0.2088		1.2403	-0.2625	0.5044
GC3C6			14.2684 **		12.9137 *
GC3C6(1)	0.5639 **		7.0126	-0.0796	0.0522
GC3C6(2)	0.3617 *		3.8656	-0.5358	2.1167
GC3C6(3)	0.8086 **		10.7155	1.2935 **	6.2514
GC3C6(4)	0.4091		1.6481	-0.408	0.1095
GC3C6(5)	0.3522		3.095	-0.1125	0.0832
GC3S6			24.2856 **		13.6691 **
GC3S6(1)	0.9849 **		17.208	1.2278 **	8.1798
GC3S6(2)	0.3236		1.0758	0.4564	0.698
GC3S6(3)	0.8302 **		12.1649	0.1648	0.1
GC3S6(4)	0.4805		1.6988	0.1108	0.0255
GC3S6(5)	0.3774		2.1307	0.4902	1.2674
Constant	-0.7702 **		81.0549	-0.8378 **	11.2622

Men	Variables	All men		Full-time working wives	
		B	Wald	B	Wald
AGE3			5.2810		2.9543
AGE3(1)	-0.4217 *		5.2809	-0.3590	2.9490
AGE3(2)	-0.1780		1.3647	-0.1425	0.6506
RQUAL3			9.5653 **		8.6793 **
RQUAL3(1)	0.6399 **		7.5513	0.7839 **	8.3315
RQUAL3(2)	0.2057		1.1319	0.4005	3.1155
SPQUAL3			1.2343		2.6629
SPQUAL3(1)	0.1946		0.5906	0.2443	0.7110
SPQUAL3(2)	-6.8E-06		0.0000	-0.0772	0.1141
GC3C6			18.2450 **		21.8275 **
GC3C6(1)	0.5348 **		6.0371	0.7135 **	7.6594
GC3C6(2)	0.3622		1.3801	0.3937	1.1216
GC3C6(3)	0.3161		1.9418	0.2451	0.8563
GC3C6(4)	0.5053		1.9486	0.5812	1.9889
GC3C6(5)	-0.3446		1.6512	-0.4268	1.6988
GC3S6			2.7162		1.1073
GC3S6(1)	0.2253		1.1932	-0.1546	0.4146
GC3S6(2)	0.2270		2.0126	0.0106	0.0030
GC3S6(3)	0.1333		0.1761	-0.0525	0.0248
GC3S6(4)	-0.0484		0.0209	-0.1931	0.2609
GC3S6(5)	0.0196		0.0094	0.0868	0.1163
Constant	-0.9890 **		111.1931	-0.9023 **	75.0815

Note: *significant at .05 level, ** significant at .01 level

AGE3=age cohort, RQUAL3=respondent's qualification, SPQUAL3=spouse's qualification, GC3C6=respondent's class, GC3S6=spouse's qualification

Table8 Results of Logit Analysis on Class Identification in Britain

variables	Women		Men	
	B	Wald	B	Wald
AGE3		2.8323		4.2356
AGE3(1)	-0.2411	1.4372	-0.4650 *	3.9535
AGE3(2)	0.1080	0.2546	-0.1156	0.2475
AQUAL31		11.6143 **		13.3008 **
AQUAL31(1)	1.4506	8.4137	1.0093	2.2884
AQUAL31(2)	0.6287 *	4.8508	0.5449	3.0876
AQUAL31(3)	0.4655 *	5.0778	0.8122 **	12.4336
VQUAL1		5.5578		2.5258
VQUAL1(1)	0.6615 *	4.3809	0.7995	1.8642
VQUAL1(2)	-0.4441	0.6949	-0.0479	0.0328
VQUAL1(3)	-0.0083	0.0006	-0.1905	0.4584
GC3C6		9.9388		61.1241 **
GC3C6(1)	0.1403	0.2801	2.1704 **	42.9886
GC3C6(2)	0.0822	0.1376	1.1393 **	6.6048
GC3C6(3)	1.1976 **	8.4006	1.2698 **	10.7917
GC3C6(4)	0.7400	0.5671	-0.8745	0.3339
GC3C6(5)	0.4879	1.9034	0.5201	2.2176
GC3S6		54.6770 **		10.0371
GC3S6(1)	1.6229 **	38.4016	0.3763	1.9329
GC3S6(2)	0.9119 *	5.1560	0.0244	0.0100
GC3S6(3)	0.4249	1.8264	0.4472	0.8232
GC3S6(4)	0.3713	0.2370	3.3096 *	3.7200
GC3S6(5)	0.4324	2.4863	-0.7751	2.3675
Constant	-0.0936	0.1397	-0.4383	2.3115

Note: * sinificant at .05 level, ** significant at .01 level

AGE3=age cohort, AQUAL31=respondent's academic qualification

VQUAL=respondent's vocational qualification

GC3C6=respondent's class, GC3S6=spouse's class

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