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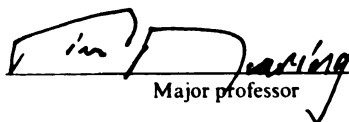
Japanese Managers' Leadership in Overseas Subsidiaries:
Perception and Communication Differences between
Japanese Managers and Host Country Subordinates in
Malaysia and the Philippines

presented by

Reiko Nebashi

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of the requirements for

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**JAPANESE MANAGERS' LEADERSHIP IN OVERSEAS SUBSIDIARIES:
PERCEPTION AND COMMUNICATION DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
JAPANESE MANAGERS AND HOST COUNTRY SUBORDINATES
IN MALAYSIA AND THE PHILIPPINES**

By

Reiko Nebashi

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ABSTRACT

JAPANESE MANAGERS' LEADERSHIP IN OVERSEAS SUBSIDIARIES: PERCEPTION AND COMMUNICATION DIFFERENCES BETWEEN JAPANESE MANAGERS AND HOST COUNTRY SUBORDINATES IN MALAYSIA AND THE PHILIPPINES

By

Reiko Nebashi

This dissertation is a study of leadership in Japanese overseas subsidiaries and the relationship between leadership and communication in such organizations. The theoretical purpose of the study is to answer key questions and test hypothesized relationships about leadership and communication style in these businesses by testing a leader-subordinate communication model; an applied purpose is to find more effective means of communicating between Japanese leaders and host country subordinates.

In the global market where competitiveness among multinational corporations is accelerating, training capable host country successors and replacing employees from a parent company with those of host countries are urgent matters. Japanese corporations have not been especially successful at these tasks. Communication issues, it is argued here, are critical for Japanese leaders to manage subordinates well and increase rates of capable host country successors.

The present study focused on intercultural settings since such settings heighten the potential for leadership and communication problems. The following questions (and related hypotheses) were posed: (1) How is Japanese managerial leadership perceived by host country subordinates? (2) How can leaders and subordinates communicate more efficiently? And (3) What represents effective leadership and management

communication to Japanese leaders and host country subordinates?

There were 292 participants joined this study: 63 Malaysians, 162 Filipinos, and 67 Japanese. They were recruited from 7 Japanese companies located in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia and 10 in Makati City, the Philippines. A questionnaire was utilized for this study. The questions in the questionnaire were worded to ask about the leader's communication with subordinates or the subordinates' communication with leaders. Japanese participants completed one questionnaire for leaders and Malaysians and Filipinos completed one for subordinates.

Results reveal that subordinates perceived that information was better shared under Japanese managers who emphasized both performance and maintenance (PM) as leadership functions, and when messages were communicated explicitly. As PM leadership theory suggests, PM style of leadership was most strongly related to information sharing and satisfaction among employees, whereas pm style was least strongly related to information sharing and satisfaction. However, the maintenance function of Japanese managers seems more important to Malaysian and Filipino employees than their Japanese managers. The findings of perceptual gaps about leadership, communication style, information sharing, and satisfaction are discussed in terms of the Leader-Subordinate Communication Model.

Implications of the present results are discussed for both scholars of intercultural communication and leadership and for practitioners involved in international subsidiaries.

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To my parents, grandparents, and husband.

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INTRODUCTION

With the dawn of a new century, global corporations from industrialized and newly industrializing countries are seeking to enlarge their economic bases. Over the final two decades of the twentieth century, one of the most recognizable additions to this global corporate landscape has been the powerful presence of Japanese corporations.

From the 1950s until the mid-1960s, Japanese multinational corporations primarily exported finished goods from Japan. Overseas investments were made mainly to purchase raw materials such as coal and timber. In the 1960s, the Japanese “economic miracle” took off. Labor costs at home skyrocketed. Manufacturers and related industries were forced to look overseas for cheaper labor to reduce costs so that they could sustain product sales (Beechler & Taylor, 1994). Japanese corporations shifted from export-oriented business to labor-intensive assembly operations in other countries, primarily Southeast Asian countries such as Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand.

In terms of the number of subsidiaries operating overseas, many Japanese corporations are multinational corporations. However, there are characteristics of the “Japanese multinational corporation” which differentiate them from Western multinational corporations. For example, they are the number of employees from a parent company, shortage of capable host country employees, and practicing on-the-job training. Compared with Western multinationals, Japanese multinationals keep more employees from a parent company, have less host country employees promoted to management

positions, and depend more on on-the-job training rather than book instructions (Yoshihara, 1996).

Supported by technology and a strong economy from 1970s through 1980s, Japanese corporations steadily transferred the Japanese way of doing business into foreign countries where Japanese multinationals located. Many Japanese parent companies relocated Japanese managers to affect this transfer. However, relocation is no longer a vital option. The wholesale transfer of Japanese business practices led to problems in host country subsidiaries that now require a transformation into new business practices, not a mere transfer of existing practices (Fujino, 1998).

Corporate globalization has led to standardization. For instance, the ISO (International Organization for Standardization) and the IAS (International Accounting Standard) have been introduced all over the world. Standardized corporate software is beginning to spread, too. Many western corporations developed leadership programs and team management programs and are practicing such programs in host countries, leading to global standardization of management practice. In this powerful movement, Japanese corporations are far behind. Toyota began a department of global human resource management only in 1998 ("Promoting global human resource management," 1998; "Barrier to globalization," 1999). Japanese corporate leaders have long made light of organizational globalization. Part of their long indifference has been a reluctance to seriously consider cultural issues in their foreign subsidiaries.

From the 1980s through the early 1990s, Japanese corporations established many overseas subsidiaries. Now, many of these companies have retreated. Chung (1995) investigated Japanese corporations in Korea and found that one of the most frequent

reasons of withdrawal of Japanese overseas subsidiaries was the aggravation of relationships with Korean business partners. Chung emphasized the importance of effective communication between business partners as a key to success.

It is now important for Japanese corporate leaders to learn more effective communication skills and become intercultural business leaders. It has been said that Japanese leaders don't provide enough feedback about work performance to host country subordinates, don't explain procedures well enough, and too work-oriented (Kagano, 1997). Host country subordinates often feel that Japanese employees do not share knowledge and information. They think that they are not trusted by their Japanese superiors; thus employee turnover is rapid. Therefore, Japanese leaders have had little success at identifying and nurturing successors from host country subordinates (Hayashi, 1994).

This kind of problem will eventually make Japanese corporations lose competitiveness in the global market. Moreover, this problem is not limited to overseas subsidiaries, but can affect any Japanese company in any field as more international business alliances, mergers, and acquisitions take place.

The present study examines leadership in intercultural settings with regard to communication, specifically leadership and management communication in Japanese overseas subsidiaries. The following questions are posed: (1) How is leadership by Japanese manager perceived by host country subordinates? (2) How can leaders and subordinates communicate more efficiently? And (3) What is effective leader-subordinate communication in such intercultural business settings? The unique aspect of this research

is that it approached the study of Japanese leadership in overseas subsidiaries from both a Japanese point of view and a host employees' standpoint.

The Present Study

In order to examine these questions, the next chapter (Chapter 1) reviews the historical background of Japanese overseas subsidiaries in Malaysia and the Philippines. Chapter 2 reviews the literature about problems in Japanese overseas subsidiaries. Chapter 3 discusses issues concerning leadership, especially leadership of Japanese managers in intercultural business settings. In addition, current problems between Japanese superiors and their host country subordinates and the possible determinants of these problems are examined. Based on the discussion of these issues, several hypotheses are generated. Chapter 4 discusses the data-collection methods and analytical procedures of this study. It details the participants, procedure, measures, and analysis.

Results are presented in Chapter 5, with their theoretical and practical import discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 1

JAPANESE OVERSEAS SUBSIDIARIES IN MALAYSIA AND THE PHILIPPINES

Malaysia and the Philippines are popular sites of foreign investment. Japan has led foreign investment for many years in both countries (Smith, 1993; Miranda, Jr., 1994).

There were 1,346 Japanese companies and joint ventures doing business in Malaysia (JETRO: the Japan External Trade and Research Organization, 1996) and approximately 700 in the Philippines (Japanese Chamber of Commerce, personal communication, February 12, 1997) in the mid-1990s. Japanese are everywhere in these countries – having opened sushi shops, restaurants, department stores, book stores, karaoke bars, etc.

Although some people are not pleased with this Japanese presence, the relationships between these two countries and Japan have improved over the years. Malaysia started its famous Look East Policy in the early 1980s, which aimed to learn Japanese work ethics such as patience, diligence, and loyalty and apply them in Malaysian workplaces (Kawatani & Abdullah, 1996). The Philippines reestablished political stability under the Ramos Administration in 1992 (JETRO, 1997), which was followed by the Estrada Administration. The political stability allows two countries' relationship stabilized.

Japanese-affiliated companies in these countries have made substantial contributions in the form of job creation, technology transfer, and foreign exchange earnings. However, these companies have been responsible for new frictions as well. The

cause of friction may result from a lack of skills of how to manage people from different cultures, misunderstanding their behaviors, and cultural insensitivity, or what is sometimes seen as the arrogance of Japanese managers.

Efforts made by Japanese companies to overcome cultural barriers are not always fully understood by host country people and communities. Much research has studied this issue with respect to human resource management, economics, and technology transfer. However, few studies have shed light on communication issues for better understanding intercultural human behavior. In order to have better understanding of the communication issues between Japanese and Malaysians and Japanese and Filipinos, this chapter provides information about the historical background of Malaysia and the Philippines in terms of economic development and their populations.

Malaysia

Historical Influence on Current Society: Bumiputra Policy

During the colonial era (from the 1800s to 1960s), the British developed local industries in Malaysia, particularly tin and rubber, and built infrastructure to support the area's burgeoning trade. In addition to the indigenous and diverse Malay population, Malaya (the Peninsula) became home to a mix of ethnic and cultural groups, namely Chinese and Indians. Their numbers, when combined, once exceeded the local Malay population because the British imported labor from India due to a local labor shortage. Indians were primarily from the southern part of Tamil, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka (Dunung, 1995; Kaur & Metcalfe, 1999).

The Chinese population originally came from the southern part of China as laborers; quickly, however, they became merchants. The Chinese were split into two

groups: recent immigrants and straits-born (Baba) Chinese. The straits-born Chinese had been born in the Straits Settlement and regarded Malaya rather than China as their homeland (Dunung, 1995).

Under the British control, “the Malays were encouraged to remain in the rural subsistence sector, whereas the Chinese were allowed to concentrate their economic involvement in the mining, commercial and the financial sectors” and this “segregation of ethnic groups by economic functions was economically sound and politically safe for the colonial regime. However, this led to a highly lop-sided economic development in which the gap between the rural and the urban and between the Malays and the Chinese became bigger and bigger” (Talib & Chee-Beng, 1995, p.387). Malaysia became an independent country in 1963 and Singapore was separated from Malaysia in 1965. After independence, ethnic tensions between Malays and Chinese heightened. After ethnically motivated riots against the Chinese population in 1969, the government took steps to deal with the grievances and frustrations of the economically backward Malays by adopting the New Economic Policy (the so-called “Bumiputra” Policy). Bumiputra literally means “the sons of the soil,” meaning the ethnic Malays. This policy intended to reduce, and then, obliterate, poverty, and to restructure the society to correct economic imbalances between Chinese and Malays and eliminate the identification of race with economic position. Special privileges were extended to Malays to help them buy land, obtain business licenses, receive better education, and secure more government positions. The Bumiputra policy brought the Malays into the modern era, and expanded the economic and social infrastructure for the rural poor. Historically, in Malaysia’s urban and commercial world, Chinese and Indians dominated, while Malays were relegated to poor rural areas.

This New Economic Policy achieved its goal of correcting imbalances through training and education of Malays in management, establishing percentages for employment and ownership in the industrial sector, and giving special consideration to Malay business people through advice, subsidies, and so forth (Mehden, 1987). The Chinese and Indian communities have subsequently become somewhat resentful about the special treatment of Malays (Dunung, 1995). However, despite reforms, the Chinese continue to exercise control over business. There are more Chinese in managerial positions in Japanese subsidiaries than Malays, for example (Fujiwara, 1997).

Economic Development

The spectacular performance of the Malaysian economy in the past two decades (until the recent Asian economic recession) drew the attention of experts from all over the world. There are five reasons for this economic growth: (1) Government policies and efforts for promoting industrialization, (2) increase of foreign investment, particularly from Japan and the NIEs (newly industrializing economies), (3) increase of export and intraregional trade in ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) countries, (4) decline in competitiveness among the newly industrializing countries, and (5) increased regional political stability (Yamashita, 1991, p.4). Since 1970, when the New Economic Policy was declared, the economy has undergone significant structural changes, shifting from an agricultural to a manufacturing-based economy (Ariff, 1991; Huq, 1994; Pillai, 1994). The employment distribution by industry shows that the proportion of both males and females in the agricultural sector has been constantly declining, with corresponding increases in the manufacturing and other service sectors (Peng, 1994, see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1- Employment Distribution in Malaysia by Industry by Sex, 1970-1995 (%)

Industry	1970		1980		1990		1995	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture/forestry	49.6	67.9	37.5	49.3	28.9	28.2	21.6	16.9
Mining/quarrying	2.3	0.7	1.4	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.2
Manufacturing	9.3	8.1	11.8	16.3	15.2	24.3	20.2	29.4
Electricity/gas/water	1.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.9	0.2
Construction	3.1	0.5	6.4	1.0	8.7	0.7	11.3	1.5
Wholesale/retail trade/hotels/restaurants	11.6	5.8	13.1	11.2	16.9	19.7	16.6	20.5
Transport/storage/Communications	5.0	0.5	5.0	0.7	5.9	1.5	6.2	1.7
Finance/insurance/real estate/business services	-	-	1.9	1.6	4.0	3.9	4.3	5.6
Community/social/Personal services	18.1	16.4	22.7	19.5	18.8	21.4	18.4	23.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Adopted from: Peng (1994) and The Ministry of General Affairs, the Statistics Bureau (1998)

These changes have been made through foreign investment. The Malaysian government has offered various incentives to foreign businesses such as exemption from corporate taxes and import duties. Malaysia has also attracted foreign investments by providing low-tech, labor-intensive, assembly-type operations in free trade zones for foreign investors. Foreign investors including Japan have, in turn, created exportable manufactured goods and transferred production technologies to Malaysia. These investments have provided thousands of jobs and helped overcome the previously high unemployment among young people. As a result, in the 1990s, job demand has outpaced labor supply (Pillai, 1994). With a tight labor market and persistent reports of shortages of skilled and unskilled workers, labor cost is rapidly going up (Ariffin, 1992). Labor cost is increasing more rapidly (12%) than annual economic growth (8%) (Fujiwara, 1997).

This labor shortage and high labor cost challenge both Malaysian and foreign investors. Malaysia no longer enjoys the kind of comparative advantage in labor costs that it did a few years ago. Other countries such as Vietnam and China are now more attractive locations for foreign investors for providing cheaper labor. Secondly, since Malaysia has a smaller pool of low-cost labor, foreign companies have to compete for hiring local staff with other companies. In addition, the labor shortage and high wages have resulted in constant job-hopping (Krishnan, 1997).

Features of Malaysian Employees

Malaysia is a multiethnic society. The population of Malaysia is approximately 19 million and consists of three main ethnic groups. Malays are 60% of the entire population, Chinese 30%, and Indians 9%, along with small indigenous tribes (Peng, 1994). Characteristics of these three ethnic groups differ (Abdullah, 1992). Understanding and

managing this cultural diversity, as in the United States, is a major challenge for Japanese managers who work with Malaysian employees.

Malays

The Malays historically have preferred agriculture as an occupation. They kept their village lifestyles intact into this century. With industrial modernization and the Bumiputra Policy, Malays have had political control of the country since independence. The government has tried to elevate the status of the Malay population through economic policies including scholarships, tax-exemptions, and stock ownership. The Bumiputra Policy has contributed to elevate the Malays status. The percentage of the number of Malay employees as a whole has rapidly increased due to this policy. However, Malays are hired mainly as production line workers. Most higher executive positions are filled by Chinese (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 - Proportion of Executive Employees in Malaysia by Ethnic Group (%)

	Malay	Chinese	Indian	Japanese
Director	8.5	17.4	0.7	73.5
GM	9.2	23.2	3.6	63.9
Manager	24.8	40.6	7.9	26.7
Supervisor	55.6	30.8	12.5	1.1

Adopted from: Fujiwara (1997)

Work ethic partly explains Malaysian employment stratification. Malays put family first in their daily lives. They think that hard work does not pay if family life is neglected and that the spiritual health of an employee is equally as important as the company's economic well-being (Kawatani & Abdullah, 1996). This idea conflicts with the norm in Japanese companies, where company and work supercede family life.

Another unique feature of the Malays is religion. Although Chinese and Indians have their own religion, the Malays practice religion more strictly than other two groups. Most Malays are Muslims. During work, they take time off to pray each day. Religious requirements pose challenges for modern industrial production in a multi-ethnic context (Smith, 1996).

Chinese

The Chinese who settled in Malaysia are economically and culturally very different from the Malays. Most of them are Buddhist or Taoist and have educated their children at Chinese schools in Chinese language or at English schools (Smith, 1996). This parochial education and cultural practices such as the celebration of Chinese New Year and the Mooncake festival have led to the maintenance of Chinese cultural and ideological views (Gomes, 1999).

The Chinese community has been most successful commercially and is loyal to its business interests, and is often considered to have the strongest work ethic in Malaysia. The notion that hard work brings success has spread among the Chinese in Malaysia (Dunung, 1996). Despite the Bumiputra Policy that gives advantages to the Malays, the Chinese has taken most of the managerial and the upper posts in foreign companies due to their abilities and determination in professional areas such as accounting and engineering.

Indian

Indians are mostly Tamil speakers and Hindus, though there are considerable numbers of Indians from other areas and practice different religions such as Muslim and Sikh (Gomes, 1999).

Among Indians there are two classes, professionals and laborers. Some Indians have been extremely successful as lawyers, physicians, and educators (McDaniel, 1994). However, as a whole the Indian community in Malaysia has not thrived economically. Only a few Indians hold government positions. There are not many Indians holding executive positions in Japanese companies in Malaysia, either.

Although there are unique characteristics of each of these ethnic groups, there are some common features among them, too. Because Malaysia was under British rule for a long time, Malaysian ideas of work, in a sense, are more westernized than in Japan, especially white-collar employees and those with higher education (Ishida, 1986; Aoki & Umata, 1997). For example, Malaysians prefer books to on-the-job training to learn skills, and clear job descriptions to vague job assignments (Kataoka & Mishima, 1997). Loyalty to a company is not high, and strong leadership is desired of their superiors (Ishida, 1986).

The Philippines

Historical Influence on Current Society

The history of the Philippines is the history of colonial rule by other countries for 400 years. No one nation clearly ruled the Philippine islands before the Spanish came and started its reign in 1565. Ironically, the Philippines push to establish its own identity as a nation came at the same time as Spanish settlement. The Spanish named the country the Philippines in honor of their king, Philip II. Spanish colonization lasted over 300 years,

until 1898. More than 100 of the governor-generals from Spain exploited the indigenous Filipinos, which impoverished the Filipinos. The center of plunder was the churches. The Spanish rulers established churches and civilized indigenous Filipinos. However, the churches, at the same time, constructed the system for controlling the Filipinos (Ikehata & Ikuta, 1992).

Unlike the rule of Malaysia by Britain, Spain didn't succeed in forming plantations and making a profit from them. Rather than plantations, Spanish rulers were concerned with trade. Trading with Mexico, another Spanish colony had brought Spain enormous fortune. The heart of Philippine trading was Manila. In the 1830s, Manila was commercially developed due to trading and the educated class and the upper class were formed. They invested their wealth on purchasing real estates and became land owners. Filipino inherited from Spain a highly inequitable system of land tenure dominated by the landowning class (Neher, 1999). This trend continues. Chinese are still in power of distribution channels and owns real estates in this country (Ikehata & Ikuta, 1992) and some elite Filipino families retain their power and wealth and many political leaders come from these families (Dunung, 1995).

In 1896, a revolution broke out, led by a group of intelligentsia with the support of the upper class. The United States intervened militarily for the sake of Filipino freedom from Spanish oppression. Then, in 1902, the United States declared its control over the Philippines. Since then, this country was under the rule of the United States, except a short period of Japanese rule during World War II. The Philippines finally became an independent country in 1946, though control by the United States continued until the 1960s. In the 1950s, against U.S. rule, anti-American nationalism raged all over the

country. Social unrest led to the despotic government of President Marcos and his cronies in the 1960s through the 1980s (SarDesai, 1994).

Thus, since the colonial era, this country has been ruled by foreign powers. Whenever a change of power took place, it caused social, political, and economic unrest, which greatly influenced the economic development of this country and the population.

Economic Development

In an effort to stop a trend of declining economic growth in the 1960s, the Philippine government started to provide incentives for the establishment of export-oriented industries, which facilitated the growth of manufacturing industries. However, beginning in the late 1970s through the 1980s, the Philippines was hit by internal and external incidents. Due to worldwide oil shocks, the country experienced protectionism in developed country trade as well as severe trade competition from other developing countries (Miranda, Jr., 1994). In addition, the country became politically insecure. This insecurity caused the withdrawal of foreign firms and an outflow of capital. In 1983, Ninoi Aquino was assassinated. In 1986, the Marcos Administration collapsed, followed by a coup d'état in 1989. These crises hit industry very hard (Miranda, Jr., 1994). Under the relative political stability of the Ramos Administration, the economy rose gradually until the recent Asian economic recession.

Due to its long period of foreign control, this country is very sensitive to foreign investment like other ASEAN countries including Malaysia and Singapore (Kimbara, 1991). The strong power of multinational corporations was regarded as a threat to them. Thus, this country was inclined to resist the direct investment by multinational corporations. However, without the introduction of technology and investment from

foreign countries, it seemed difficult for this country to attain successful economic development. The President Ramos encouraged foreign investment and international trades and privatized more public entities (Dunung, 1995). Beginning in 1987, the government established new investment rules. From the mid-1980s through the 1990s, Asian multinationals became the most active investors in this country. Investment from Japan increased considerably in this period. Especially in Export Processing Zones, Japanese investment represented about half of total investment (JETRO, 1997). JETRO (the Japan External Trade and Research Organization) analyzed the factors associated with increased Japanese investment: (1) Government incentives, including exemption from corporate taxes and import duties for export-oriented industries, (2) easy to hire well-educated personnel, especially engineers, (3) proximity to Japan, and (4) increased political stability (JETRO, 1997). After six years of compulsory education, many young Filipinos continue to study at high school or vocational school and go on to university. However, the Philippines' unemployment rate is relatively high among ASEAN countries. That implies that there is a constant over supply of labor. The labor surplus enables the hiring of capable engineers who play important roles in Japanese-owned manufacturing companies.

The increase of foreign investment generated employment and raised incomes. However, comparing to Malaysia, structural change has been modest. The employment distribution has only slightly shifted from the agricultural sector to the service sector. Agricultural employment dropped to less than 50 percent, from 51.4 in 1980, to 45.2 in 1990. Service employment climbed from 36.5 to 44 percent in 10 years (see Table 1.3), partly reflecting the emergence of female workers. Since 1987, the labor-force

Table 1.3 - Employment Distribution in the Philippines by Industry, 1970-1990 (%)

Industry	1970	1980	1990
Agriculture	53.7	51.4	45.2
Industry	12.6	11.6	10.7
Manufacturing	11.9	10.6	9.7
Services	32.1	36.5	44.0

Adapted from Ofreneo (1995)

Table 1.4 - Employment Distribution by Industry by Sex in 1988 and 1995 (%)

Industry	1988		1995	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture	54.9	33.8	51.7	31.1
Mining/quarrying	1.1	0.2	0.5	0.1
Manufacturing	8.0	13.5	8.4	12.7
Construction	6.0	0.1	7.5	0.2
Distributive trade	7.4	25.1	7.9	26.1
Transport/storage	7.1	0.6	8.8	0.7
Finance/insurance/real estate	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.3
Other services	13.7	24.8	13.1	26.8
Total	100	100	100	100

Adopted from: Miranda, Jr. (1994)

participation rate of female workers has gone beyond 50 percent. Women are concentrated in labor-intensive industries as well as sales and other service and clerical jobs (Ofreneo, 1995).

Features of Filipino Employees

Andres (1988) explains the characteristics of Filipino workers in somewhat stereotypical, but understandable way, “A Filipino can be hardworking and industrious because of his Chinese ancestry; he can be sensuous because of his Malay influences and he can also be religious because the Spaniards taught him so” (p.32).

Ethnically, Filipinos are rooted in Malay and Chinese. However, this fact does not suffice to understand them. Due to the long colonial period, the Spanish transmitted Christianity and social organization along western lines to Filipinos. The main religion in the country is still Roman Catholicism. The U.S. brought the concern for materialistic values to Filipinos (Andres, 1988; Dunung, 1995), introduced a system of public education along with incorporating English as the national language, and fostered the rise of highly trained technocrats, bureaucrats, and entrepreneurs (Neher, 1999).

Three values highlight Filipino behaviors: personalism, authoritarianism, and familism (Andres, 1988; Jocano, 1990). Personalism refers to the degree of emphasis Filipinos put on interpersonal relations or to face-to-face encounters. Jocano (1990) points out that successful leadership must have a trace of personal touch and communication has difficulty flowing through channels when personalized concern is not intended. Authoritarianism refers to concern of power (Andres, 1988). People in a higher status or position would be respected by followers and they act as responsible leaders

(Jocano, 1990). **Familism** refers to values of the family over the company or organization.

The focus of individual concern is on small group relations, especially the family.

Despite these features, however, Philippine laws and systems follow American laws and systems. Many bureaucrats and top company managers have study abroad experience in the United States (Kataoka & Mishima, 1997). They work as specialists and change jobs frequently (Takahashi, 1998). Therefore, as businesspeople, Filipino employees are strongly influenced by U.S. work culture.

In the next chapter, features and problems of Japanese business organization are described. By comparing Japanese with Malaysians and Filipinos in various aspects, the causes of friction between these groups are then suggested.

CHAPTER 2

PROBLEMS IN JAPANESE OVERSEAS SUBSIDIARIES

The transformation of Japanese companies from Japan to overseas is in full swing. As overseas subsidiaries become larger, problems regarding human resource management in overseas subsidiaries become more conspicuous. Many studies have documented the problems of international human resource management that are unique to Japanese companies (e.g., Bartlett & Yoshihara, 1988; Ishida, 1986; Kopp, 1994; Negandhi, Eshghi, & Yuen, 1985). Some recent work examines Japanese corporate management of international human resources (e.g., Iwauchi, Kadowaki, Abe, Jinnouchi, & Mori, 1992; Shiraki, 1995; Yoshihara, 1996). This chapter points out two key problems regarding Japanese organizations and then discusses these problems in relation to communication issues: perception and communication styles.

Although the purpose of this dissertation is to examine Japanese managers' leadership and communication in Japanese overseas subsidiaries, it is necessary to review the context where Japanese managers' leadership is taking place, that is, within Japanese organizations. In many Japanese overseas subsidiaries, human resource management is modified to fit the local environment. However, the fundamental organizational structure arrives intact from Japan. Thus, the leadership and communication that Japanese managers in overseas subsidiaries practice reflects the features of large Japanese organizations.

Ishida (1985; 1986) compares organizational features of Japanese companies to those of foreign organizations in terms of the concept of job, internalization of the labor market, and distribution of resources. According to Ishida, Japanese organizations are different from organizations in the U.S. and Europe regarding these dimensions, and even with those in Southeast Asia, because many Asian corporations practice business in western fashion (Ishida, 1986; Ofreneo, 1995).

Problems in Intercultural Management

Localization

The most prominent problem Japanese overseas subsidiaries face is localization.

Technology transfer has successfully progressed in many overseas subsidiaries.

Technology transfer refers to the transfer of production of new products and of more efficient production of existing products from a company to another company, more specifically in the case of Japanese multinationals, from the parent firm to its subsidiary (Das, 1987). However, the Japanese companies that have become true multinational companies are facing management structure and policy difficulties (Bartlett & Yoshihara, 1988). Management localization indicates the degree to which the management of a company is localized in a host country environment, as assessed by localization rate.

Localization rate reflects how many host country employees take management positions and the degree of authority delegation from parent company employees to host country employees (Shiraki, 1995). In companies at the early stages of management localization, Japanese employees transferred from headquarters in Japan occupy top management positions, while host country employees work as assistants. Promotion ceiling for host

country employees is viewed as ethnocentric staffing (Kopp, 1994; Negandhi, et al., 1985).

According to Negandhi et al. (1985), Japanese companies are the most ethnocentric among multinationals of the countries they investigated among the U.S., Europe, and Japan. Kopp (1994) also concludes from his research that Japanese companies, as a group, are shown to have more ethnocentric staffing practices and policies and that they experience more international human resource management problems than do American and European companies. In ethnocentric firms, home country employees are strongly tied to people back in headquarters rather than to host country personnel. This creates dual systems of human resource management in a company, and limits the locus of power and key information sharing to only home country employees (Ishida & Shiraki, 1990). In Japanese ethnocentric firms, Japanese and host country managers pursue different career paths, have different levels of job security, and receive different types of training and fringe benefits. This problem is most serious in Japanese subsidiaries based in developing countries (Negandhi et al., 1985). The issue of localization has been discussed by many researchers and practitioners. It remains a big challenge for Japanese overseas subsidiaries (Shiraki, 1995).

Unless such companies begin to change, they will remain culture-bound captives of their ethnocentric biases. As long as ethnocentric staffing interferes with the hiring of capable, “elite” host country employees, better employees won’t be attracted to such companies where there are fewer promotion opportunities. Elite employees should overtake the management positions now held by Japanese. Unless companies hire high-

caliber host country employees, they can not speed up rate of localization. Hiring capable employees and promoting localization are interdependent.

The next section discusses structural challenges that can cause ethnocentric staffing in Japanese overseas subsidiaries along with the three dimensions proposed by Ishida (1985, 1986): (1) the concept of job, (2) internalization of the labor market, and (3) distribution of resources.

Features of Japanese Organizations

The Concept of Job

Figure 2.1 differentiates between job responsibility in Japan and foreign organizations. In Japanese organizations, the white spots indicate areas of individual responsibility and the gray area represents mutual responsibility in which there are no definite lines between individuals. Therefore, each job is not strictly described. A task is often shared by several employees so that they can help each other to complete the task across functional divisions. In other words, there are no definite boundaries where one's responsibilities ends (Ishida, 1986).

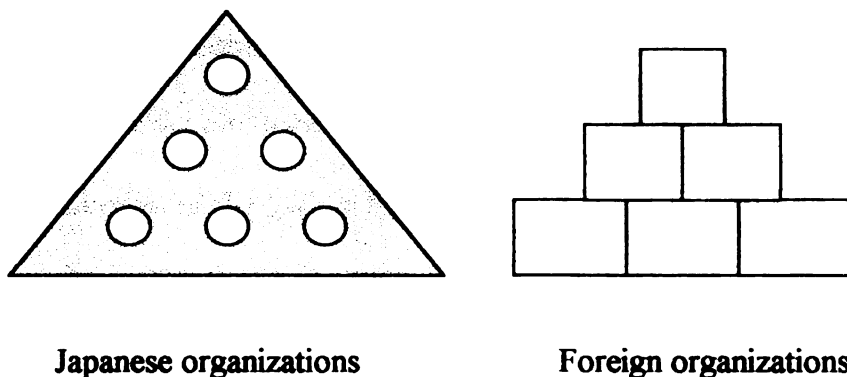


Figure 2.1 – Concept of Job

In Japanese organizations, implicit communication can play a vital role and unstated rules can be easily exercised among individuals. Bosses and subordinates reasonably depend on context in such organizations. Bosses do not need to provide detailed explanations about jobs. They expect subordinates to act more independently. However, when organizations become more multicultural, the style of communication, unless modified, can cause problems. In foreign organizations, on the other hand, the responsibility of each individual is clearly specified. In such organizations, conveying messages explicitly is necessary. Bosses are to give clear instructions and evaluations about work to subordinates and both bosses and subordinates do jobs only within their area of responsibility.

The difference in these concepts of job may lead to conflict between Japanese and host country employees. Host country employees may become confused by unclear job boundaries. Japanese bosses may be perceived as invading employees' areas of authority. On the other hand, Japanese managers may feel that host country employees do only what they are told and thus they lack initiative and flexibility. What Japanese overseas subsidiaries need to do is to provide job descriptions that are as clear as possible and establish a communication network among employees so that they can inquire and exchange information more flexibly. This issue is discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

Internalization of the Labor Market

Figure 2.2 shows the difference between Japanese and foreign organizations in internalization of labor market and orientation of employees. In Japanese organizations, new college graduates are often hired with no work experience. They start with at lowest entry level and gradually climb the corporate ladder. In many foreign organizations, there

is less demarcation between the inside and the outside of the organization, which leads to greater mobility of employees from one organization to another, while there is a clear distinction between the ranks of management, white-collar, and blue-collar employees.

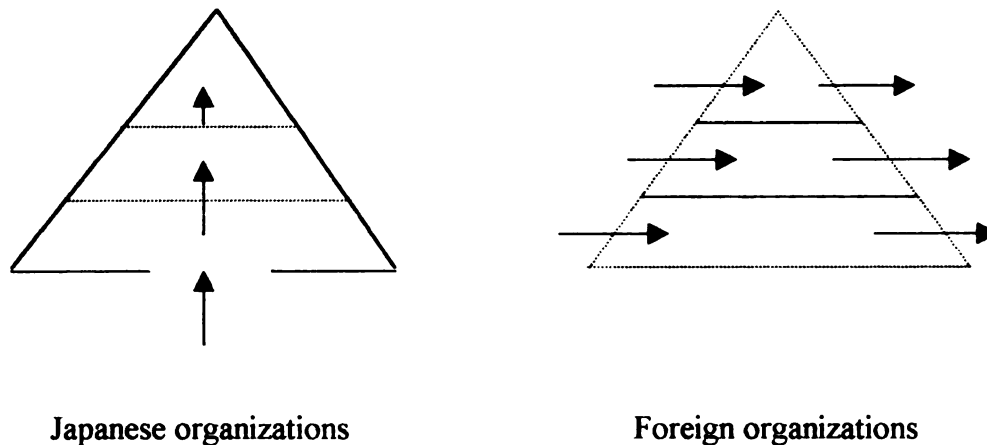


Figure 2.2 – Internalization of the Labor Market

This difference may result in the complaint of Japanese bosses saying that host country employees are not loyal to the company. Because host country employees tend not to stay in an organization for a long time, Japanese bosses may not think it is worth investing money and energy on training or developing the host country employees' skills. They are also likely to be afraid of “leaking” important information about the company and its environment given the mobility of host country employees. Such Japanese employees' behaviors may end up with host country employees' feeling that Japanese bosses do not trust them.

Furthermore, Japanese companies want to establish an independent internal labor market in each host country. That is, they want host country employees to stay in the

company for a long time. But overseas subsidiaries are not a part of the entire internal labor market of the company. They don't include host country employees in the labor market of their headquarter. This is also discouraging capable host country employees for staying in the company for a long time.

However, the Japanese internalization of the labor market system in subsidiaries is changing. This change is not only for host country employees, but also for the organization themselves. The Japanese system was established based on an affluent labor market in Japan after World War II. Companies could hire a large number of young employees at a low salary. In such companies, except for the first few years, young people receive low salaries regarding their high performance, while older employees receive relatively high salaries even though they may contribute less to the company (see Figure 2.3). However, young employees could reliably expect more returns when they became older, which provide ample incentive for them to stay in the company. To the company, the arrangement was beneficial because they could hire young talented employees at lower cost and did not have to worry about job-hopping. This arrangement required a context of constant economic growth (Shimada, 1994). After World War II, Japanese companies prospered with this "seniority-based pay system" and "lifetime employment." These two arrangements are deeply interrelated as discussed above (Fukuda, 1988). The seniority-based pay system supports the lifetime employment system because it rewards employees based on the length of services in the company; the lifetime employment system supports the seniority-based pay system because it regulates the hierarchical order and helps maintain group harmony among employees. Since they keep

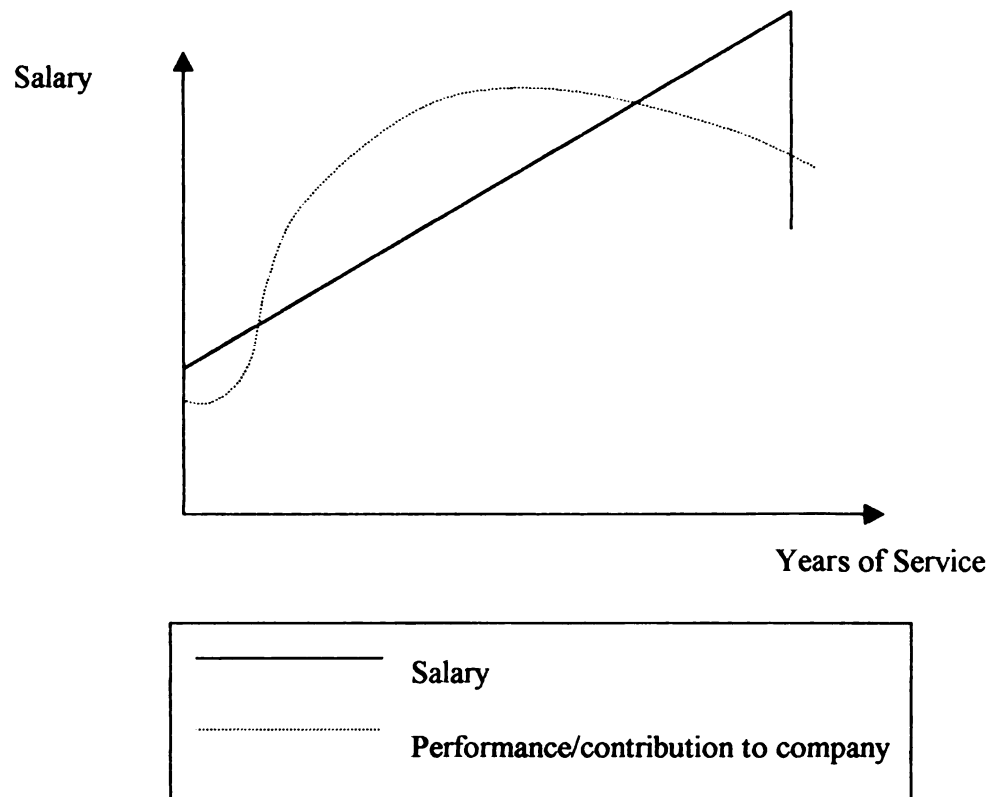


Figure 2.3 - Salary and Years of Service for Employees in Japanese Companies

employees for a long period, companies are able to invest in on-the-job training and education without fearing that the employee will leave to join a competing firm (Johnson, 1988). Steady employment makes it possible that employees will learn a greater variety of skills and be more flexible to work in different positions.

Under a slow or decreasing economy and aging society with a smaller number of young people like Japan, however, these systems cannot work. Companies can no longer hire fresh graduates and spend a long time and a large amount of money training them. Moreover, not only in overseas subsidiaries, but due to more international business alliances, mergers, and acquisitions, Japanese companies will have more opportunities (and necessity) to hire non-Japanese employees in the near future, who have different values towards work.

Distribution of Resources

Figure 2.4 illustrates the difference between Japanese and foreign organizations in terms of organization and human resources allocated at each level in organization. The darker the shades, the higher authority and the more information people at the rank can obtain. In Japanese organizations, authority increases with rank, as does information available to person at each rank. However, the gap between the top-ranked and the bottom-ranked is not so large, while there is a large and clear gap between the ranks in foreign organizations. It is noteworthy that this style of Japanese human resource management tends to be well accepted by blue-collar workers and to be perceived oppressive by white-collar employees who are accustomed to Western style (Ishida, 1986). The smaller gap between ranks in Japanese organizations may be less attractive to

high-caliber employees of host countries. They will go to Western companies where they can immediately receive more benefits.

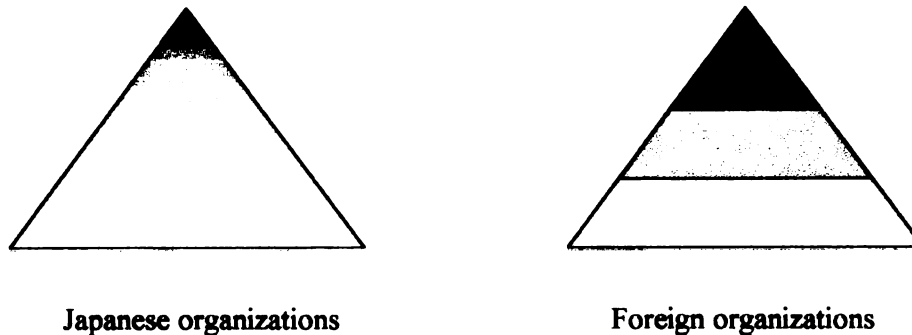


Figure 2.4 – Distribution of Resources

Although the gap between the ranks regarding authority in Japanese organizations is small, the gap of information available between the ranks in overseas subsidiaries is sometimes quite large, due to language barriers. Information sent from headquarters in Japan is usually transmitted in the Japanese language. There is a reasonable chance that information is kept among Japanese employees. Host country employees feel that information is not shared with them even when it is actually shared. Yoshihara (1996) reports that host country employees feel less informed compared to Japanese employees in overseas subsidiaries.

Communication

Based on the structural differences between Japanese organizations and foreign organizations, the previous section discussed the problems of Japanese overseas subsidiaries' international human resource management. Several communication issues

were raised. Now we turn to a more fundamental difference underlying the three problem areas discussed above: perception and communication style.

Perception and Communication Style

Communicating with host country employees is one of the most difficult issues most Japanese employees deal with in overseas subsidiaries (Haraoka & Wakabayashi, 1993). Many of them think how they communicate with host country employees is a key to make international management successful (Ishida, 1985).

When leading and working with people from a different cultural background, being an effective communicator is not an easy task. People speak different languages and have different cultural assumptions, thus have difficulties communicating with each other (Moran, Harris, & Stripp, 1993). After extensive interviews more than a decade, Hayashi (1994) raised the question: Why aren't Japanese good at communication in intercultural settings? He states that the sources of difficulties of working as an intercultural team are located in differences of perception and communication styles between cultural groups.

Perception is the process by which people become aware of the stimuli bombarding their senses and it includes their selection, organization, and interpreting-evaluating information about the stimuli (Devito, 1996). It includes analog perception and digital perception. Analog perception doesn't draw boundary lines between objects (see Figure 2.5). It relies on one's intuition and sense and perceives objects as a total image, not as distinct items. Digital perception is the opposite. It draws boundary lines between objects. For example, if X is on one side of the line, then X is not on the other side (see Figure 2.5).

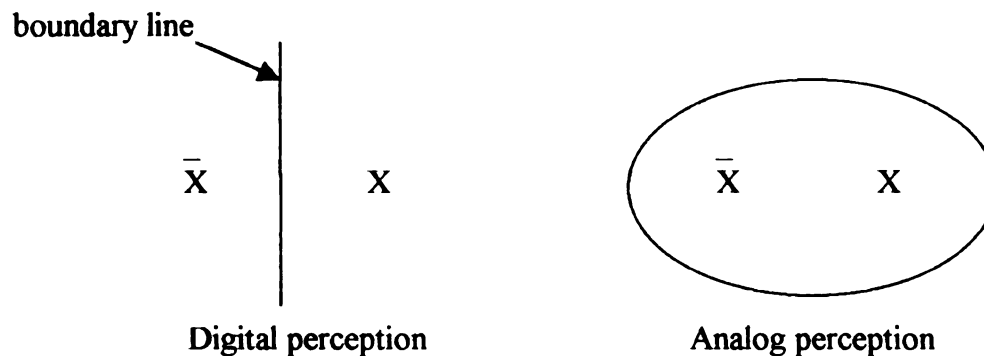


Figure 2.5 - Analogic and Digital Perception

Communication styles include the concept of high context and low context communication. High context communication depends on internal information among people in the context. People are expected to know how to behave because they share an understanding of contextual cues. Thus, information is not explicitly communicated. Low context communication, on the other hand, doesn't depend on context so much. Information is abundant, procedures are explicitly explained, and expectations are discussed frequently (Dodd, 1989).

Japanese are often said to be high context and hold analog perceptions (Earley & Erez, 1997; Funakawa, 1998; Hayashi, 1994). When working with Westerners who are low context and perceive digitally, these differences cause a lot of difficulties for Japanese and Westerners working together. For instance, (1) Westerners think Japanese don't give enough explanation; (2) they think Japanese don't want to share ideas with them; and (3) they think Japanese don't trust them. Most Japanese are not even aware of their co-workers' views. They don't know why their counterparts complain because they believe

that they do communicate information and share ideas readily. When these difficulties happen in overseas subsidiaries, they are not just complaints of host country subordinates, but may lead to even more serious problems for Japanese employees and companies themselves because: (1) Most employees are from the host country; (2) capable host country employees will leave the company; (3) thus it is impossible to create strategic management to host country employees; and (4) thus the company may lose international competitiveness (Hayashi, 1994).

These problems occur not only between Japan and Western countries, but between Japan and some Asian countries, since business is practiced in the Western manner in some Asian countries, including Malaysia, Singapore, and the Philippines (Ofreneo, 1995). Communication styles of these Asian countries are different from those of other Asian countries such as Thailand and Japan (Aoki & Umata, 1997). In addition to using English as the language of international business and the medium of instruction in education, these countries consist of several different ethnic groups, thus expressing one's opinion and oneself clearly (i.e., acting low context) is essential, particularly in business settings. Being quiet or modest, a virtue in Japan, can be perceived very negatively in these countries. Imada and Sonoda (1995) report that the high context style of Japanese communication was viewed positively as communication increased in Thailand, and negatively in Malaysia.

The next chapter discusses communication with reference to leadership and what style of leadership might be most effective when working as an intercultural team.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE ABOUT LEADERSHIP

There has been much research about leadership and many definitions of it. A common thread among definitions of many leadership is a process of interpersonal influence; a person responds because another person is considered influential (Hunt, 1991). More specifically, a person leads another person to establish goals and achieve organizational goals (Karimata, 1989; Shockley-Zalabak, 1995). Leadership in this dissertation is defined as an influential action between those who lead and those who follow in order to handle organizational events and problems and achieve organizational goals.

When studying leadership, at least three issues need to be discussed. One is the level of leadership. This study attempts to examine direct communication between Japanese leaders and host country subordinates. This is lower-level leadership, which indicates face-to-face or direct influence. Higher level leadership includes the indirect impact of leaders on what occurs at the bottom of an organization (Hunt, 1991).

The second issue is the extent to which leadership is seen as similar to or different from management. Some researchers do not differentiate leaders and managers clearly. Some researchers sharply differentiate between the leadership function and the managerial function (Hunt, 1991). According to Shockley-Zalabak (1995), leaders communicate about needed change, translate intentions into reality, propose new strategies, and help

sustain action to support decisions whereas managers are given legitimate power to affect the behavior of subordinates and are charged with obtaining routine compliance with the operating procedures and expectations of the organization.

In the present study, Japanese employees at Japanese overseas subsidiaries are in a high organizational position. They are in the role of manager in the organizational hierarchy and are expected to provide leadership for inspiring subordinates to excellent performance. Thus, they are leaders as well as managers in this particular study.

The third issue concerning leadership is how to view leaders; in other words, which leadership function and skill is studied. Researchers have viewed functions of leadership in various ways (Morgan, 1986) and classified its skills (e.g., Clement & Ayers, 1976; Yukl, 1989). Hunt (1991) categorizes various kinds of leadership skills into three groups: technical (e.g., knowledge about methods, processes, and techniques for conducting a specialized activity), human relations or interpersonal (e.g., knowledge about human behavior and interpersonal processes), and conceptual (e.g., general analytical ability). The present study puts an emphasis on human relations, represented by knowledge about interpersonal processes, the ability to communicate clearly and effectively, and the ability to establish cooperative and effective relationships. In addition, the premise about the leadership function in this study is that leadership is an information process between leaders and subordinates.

In sum, this study attempts to investigate direct communication between Japanese leaders and host country subordinates, particularly the ability of leaders to communicate clearly and effectively as information processors and establish cooperative relationships with subordinates.

Leadership Styles

A behavioral approach to studying leadership styles categorizes leader behaviors along two unrelated dimensions: production orientation and person orientation. A series of experiments were carried out by researchers at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan independently from the 1950s through 1970s. In these studies, a leader with production-oriented behaviors gives explicit instructions, solves problems, evaluates subordinates, and emphasizes production. A leader with person-oriented behaviors is friendly, supportive, consultative, and establishes two-way communication. Western studies have revealed that the most desirable leader is someone high on both dimensions (Hui, 1990).

Inspired by American researchers such as Lewin (i.e., Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1936) and Cartwright (i.e., Cartwright & Zander, 1968), Misumi developed a theory of so-called PM leadership (Misumi, 1984, 1985; Misumi & Peterson, 1985). The PM theory focuses on two main functions of effective leadership: task performance (P) and the maintenance (M) of group relations. Four distinct leadership styles are obtained by treating these two functions as axes with two levels each. They are PM (high P, high M), Pm (high P, low M), pM (low P, high M), and pm (low P, low M) (see Figure 3.1). Misumi suggests that Pm style be occasionally considered as an efficient leadership style at the beginning of the organizational development, but that Pm style results in a negative evaluation in the long run. He indicates that the most effective leader is the one who successfully achieves both group performance and maintenance; thus, PM.

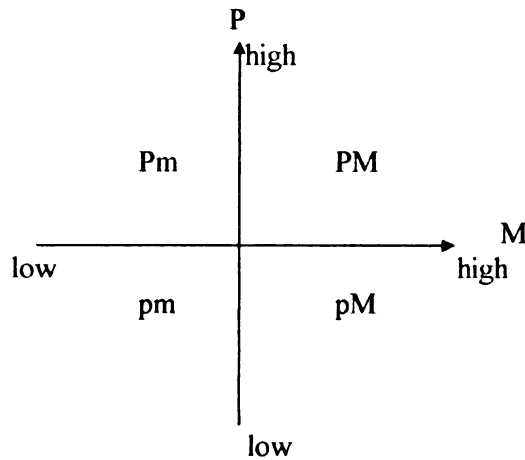


Figure 3.1 - PM Theory of Leadership

Typical P-type leadership gives emphasis to high quality and cost efficiently and enforces rules and regulations. Typical M-type leadership emphasizes a comfortable and friendly workplace and shows concern for subordinates' personal and work-related problems. The PM style of leadership involves an above-average concern with both task performance and the maintenance of group relations. The Pm (or P) style of leadership rates above average in its emphasis on performance and below average on the emphasis on group relations. The pM (or M) style of leadership rates above average in its emphasis on the maintenance of group relations and below average on the emphasis on performance. The pm style of leadership involves a below-average emphasis on both performance and the maintenance of group relations. Misumi has conducted numerous studies in diverse organizational settings in Japan and found that PM style leadership is consistently the most effective among the four styles, whereas pm style leadership is consistently the least effective. Similar conclusions were found in studies of other countries including India

(Sinha, 1981), Iran (Ayman & Chemers, 1983), China (Hui, 1990; Xu, 1989), and Australia (Casimir & Keats, 1996).

The generalizability of the theory of PM leadership remained a question because the concepts of performance and maintenance derived from American research. Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, and Bond (1989) then conducted a cross-cultural study on the validity of the measurement (also refer to Misumi, 1992). They organized a study in Britain, the United States, Japan, and Hong Kong. They performed factor analyses and found that items loading varied across countries, which may reflect different cultural values. However, the factors of performance and maintenance were consistent across all four countries.

PM style leadership suggests that the most effective leaders are those who are effective communicators as well as efficient. They create good interpersonal relationships with subordinates (group maintenance) and give clear instruction, proper feedback and evaluation to subordinates for efficient task performance.

This PM style of leadership approach is useful in cross-cultural comparisons because it recognizes that the two main functions of effective leadership are general functions that may be exercised in a specific manner depending on the setting (Hunt, 1991). However, this approach only focuses on one aspect of leadership, that is, how subordinates perceive their leaders' leadership style (Karimata, 1989). Since it only examines subordinates' rating of their leaders, it doesn't reveal how leaders and subordinates may perceive leadership style differently. Leadership styles need to be investigated from both the point of view of leaders and of subordinates.

Leadership and Management Communication

Some researchers in the field of organizational science have theorized about the importance of communication in organizations (Barnard, 1938; Bavelas & Barnett, 1951; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Schein, 1985). They consider an organization to be a communication system. Communication is the center of organizational and human activities. Leadership and management are enacted through communication. This suggests that communication is the key to studying leadership. Leaders communicate their thoughts and attitudes with subordinates. They lead their subordinates to corroborative work through communication in order to achieve organizational goals. Leaders are required to be effective communicators. Effective communicators build bridges to other people in an organization (Harris & Moran, 1993).

Hayashi (1994) suggests that Japanese managers verbalize objective examples and a clear vision with subordinates. Japanese as leaders in organizations can be more efficient communicators by being more explicit. At the same time, they need to make themselves and organization policies understood to host country employees.

What Hayashi (1994) suggests is important. However, communication is not a one-way process from a leader to a subordinate. It cannot be assumed that a subordinate will perceive and understand messages as the leader intends. The subordinate may perceive the message differently from the leader's intention and will give meaning to the message according to his/her own values. The leader may believe that s/he communicates explicitly, but the subordinate may not believe so. Hence, how messages are perceived differently between leaders and subordinates needs to be investigated to really understand the leadership process.

Leadership and Management Communication in Intercultural Settings

Leadership communication is a process of influence by leaders who attempt to convince followers to attain specific goals or broad organizational outcomes.

Management communication is direction of employees to work assignments, work evaluation, needed changes, and all other aspects of directing organizational action for goal achievement (Shockley-Zalabak, 1995). Japanese managerial communication in overseas subsidiaries should be a combination of these two definitions. The role of Japanese managers is to have subordinates perform tasks and to maintain group relations in order to attain organizational goals as leaders (Misumi, 1984). Thus, the content of the message from a leader to subordinates may contain both task-related information and relationship-related information such as providing instructions and praising another's work.

Figure 3.2 shows a leader-subordinate communication model based on this literature review. This model has a somewhat limited objective. It does not attempt to explain the full range of communication processes that occur in the work environment. It rather focuses on interpersonal communication between a Japanese leader and a host country subordinate although there are similar processes going on simultaneously among different individuals. In addition, this model does not attempt to define culture, but tries to identify processes of information sharing by which culture influences the communication between leaders and host country subordinates.

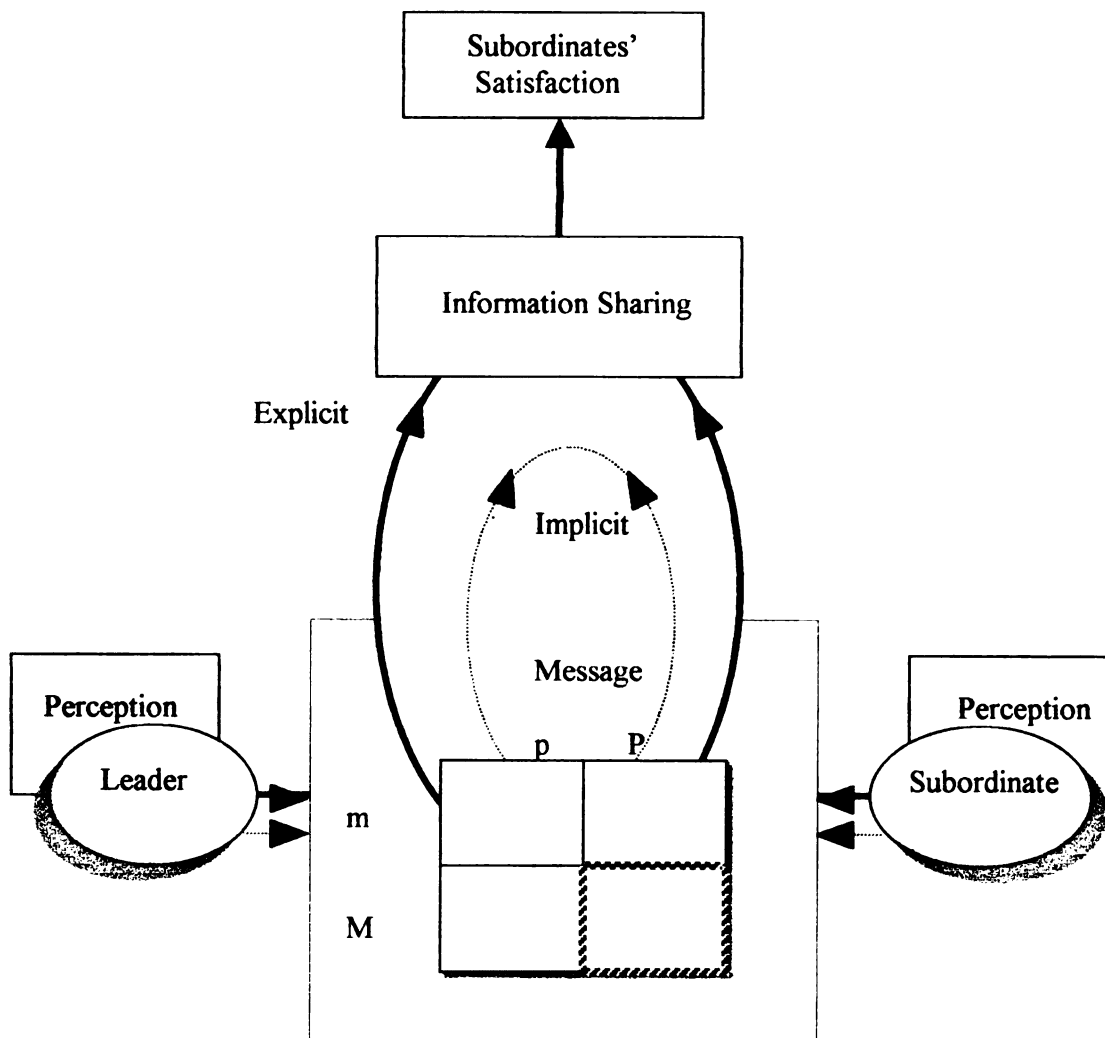


Figure 3.2 - Leader-Subordinate Communication Model

Communication in this model is an iterative process of information exchange that begins with a source of information, a person (e.g., a leader) who decides which message to send, and in what manner to send the message. The message is given in implicit form or explicit form to a receiver (e.g., a subordinate). The message can be transformed between implicit and explicit by the leader. The process of changing implicit information to explicit information is called externalization. The process of changing explicit information to implicit information is called internalization. When the message is verbally transformed, it goes through the externalization process.

In the case of Japanese leaders, the process of externalization is especially essential when working with people with a low context culture because the articulated message is easier for them to understand. After receiving a message, the subordinate decodes the message, interprets it with his/her own understanding, and acts accordingly. At this point, there may be a gap between what the leader transmits and what the subordinate understands due to perceptual differences. The message is transformed and then transmitted back to the leader through the same process explained above. How well a message is understood depends on the extent to which both the sender and receiver recognize perceptual differences between them and messages are transmitted. Through this process, information is shared between leader and subordinate, particularly when the messages about both performance and maintenance are explicitly communicated. When leaders and subordinates share more information, they will be more satisfied with each other.

Working as an Intercultural Team

Working as an intercultural team has great potential though it carries the risk of intercultural conflict and inefficiency (Moran et al., 1993). Yano (1998) studied the relationship between the diversity and the originality of R & D (Research and Development) teams. He found that the group, which manages diversity of group members well, does more creative work as an R & D team. Adler (1986) introduced a study in her book about the relationship between diversity and productivity of work teams. The productivity of multicultural teams was polarized, that is, either very high or very low, whereas mono-cultural teams' productivity was average. Adler analyzed this result and concluded that whether the group was multicultural or mono-cultural did not determine productivity, rather, how diversity was managed was the main determinant of productivity. Synergy cannot be generated without any effort of employees. If diversity were well managed between Japanese and host country employees, great outcomes are possible. However, if management is poor, the resulting productivity would be poor.

Many Japanese managers are transferred to overseas subsidiaries without any training or experience as a leader. They are automatically promoted when transferred. For instance, a section manager at headquarters could be a general manager at an overseas subsidiary. Because the manager has little or no experience of working as a part of management, it is unlikely that he/she can fully initiate his/her leadership. Moreover, as discussed previously, Japanese managers most often use a high-context communication style. When Japanese managers cannot communicate with host country employees very well, they are likely to fail to convey the differences in management style to subordinates, which leads to uncomfortable or distrustful relationship with host country employees.

That Japanese managers are not open and clear exacerbates host country employees' frustration towards the relationship with Japanese. This will create misgivings between Japanese and host country employees, thus discouraging communication between them.

The present research examines leadership of Japanese managers in overseas subsidiaries in two Asian countries: Malaysia and the Philippines. These countries were chosen for the following reasons. First, they have received a lot of investment from Japanese corporations. For both countries, Japan is a major investor. Second, they are English-speaking countries. This is also one of the reasons that Japanese companies go into these countries (Kataoka & Mishima, 1997). Since English is the language of international business there, and since Japanese employees speak at least some English, they don't have to learn yet another language, like they do in Thailand and Indonesia.

Japanese still have communication problems even if they speak English well. The problems are rooted in how a message is conveyed. The way a message is communicated by a leader needs to be examined, as well as the way the message is perceived by a subordinate. By investigating English-speaking countries like Malaysia and the Philippines, we can overlook language issues themselves and hope to get to the core of the communication issues in leadership and find out how to foster more effective communication.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses about Leadership

As discussed previously, the function of a manager is to communicate information regarding task-performance and group maintenance to a subordinate in order to achieve organizational goals (Misumi, 1984; Schein, 1985). Through the process in which

information is transmitted between a manager and a subordinate, information will be shared that will further contribute to creating organizational knowledge. Information can be delivered either explicitly or implicitly. When working with people from various cultures, explicit delivery of information is most efficient for information sharing (Hayashi, 1994). Therefore, when messages are explicitly communicated, information will be shared better and subordinates may feel more satisfied toward the leaders who communicate in a more explicit fashion. Figure 3.3 is a simplified model of Figure 3.2 to illustrate the above descriptions to show research hypotheses clearer.

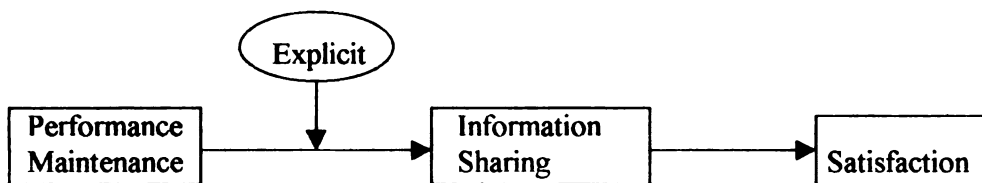


Figure 3.3 – Research Variables

The following hypotheses will be tested accordingly:

H1: Exercising the performance function (P) and the maintenance function (M) of leadership both make independent contributions to how well managers share information.

H2: When messages are explicitly communicated, both the performance function and the maintenance function of leadership each make independent contributions to how well managers share information.

H3: When messages are not explicitly communicated, neither the performance function nor the maintenance function of leadership make independent contributions to how well managers share information.

If information about task performance and group maintenance is clearly given to subordinates and shared between leaders and subordinates, satisfaction about communication with their leader or subordinates and with their organization will increase. Thus,

H4: Increased information sharing leads to greater satisfaction of both Japanese leaders and Malaysian and Filipino subordinates.

On the basis of the previous discussion and other research (e.g., Casimir & Keats, 1996; Misumi, 1984), it is suggested that the most efficient leadership style emphasizes both work performance and relationship maintenance. In order to test this suggestion, leaders will be grouped into four different types according to performance and maintenance: high performance, high maintenance (PM), high performance, low maintenance (Pm), low performance, high maintenance (pM), and low performance, low maintenance (pm). These four groups will be examined in terms of information sharing and satisfaction.

H5: The PM style of leadership is most positively correlated to information sharing and subordinates satisfaction.

H6: The pm style of leadership is least positively correlated to information sharing and subordinates satisfaction.

Hypotheses about Perception Gaps

One of the major purposes of this study is to answer the question, “How is leadership by Japanese managers perceived by host country subordinates?” The following sections hypothesize about perception gaps of four variables: leadership, communication style, information sharing, and satisfaction.

Leadership Gaps

Because previous studies examined leadership style as a set of functions, PM, Pm, pM, or pm, they didn’t investigate which function, if any, was particularly required of an efficient leader. The present study will define the characteristics of an efficient leader and compare them among three groups. Moreover, the aspects of leadership styles with which subordinates find difficulties and the aspects that motivate subordinates will be examined.

RQ1: To what degree is Japanese leadership perceived differently by Japanese managers, and Malaysian and Filipino employees?

RQ2: To what extent do the characteristics of efficient leaders vary across Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos?

RQ3: To what degree are leaders’ behaviors with which subordinates have problems different from the behaviors with which leaders have problems to exercise to subordinates?

RQ4: To what extent are the leaders’ behaviors by which subordinates feel motivated different from the behaviors which leaders believe motivate their subordinates?

Communication Style Gaps

Kagono (1997) points out that Japanese managers tend not to give full explanations and instructions about work to subordinates. Hayashi (1994) suggests that information is perceived differently when it is explicitly stated or implicitly given. There is often a divergence between superiors' views of their actions and subordinates' views of those same actions (Smith & Tayeb, 1988). Under the influence of Western business customs, Malaysians and Filipinos prefer clear instructions. Although Japanese leaders may think that their instructions are enough or clearly stated, their Malaysian and Filipino subordinates may think it is not.

H7: Malaysians and Filipinos think their Japanese leaders communicate more implicitly than Japanese leaders themselves think they do.

H8: Malaysians and Filipinos want Japanese leaders to exercise leadership more explicitly than Japanese leaders want to do.

RQ5: When messages are unclear, are the strategies used to clarify messages different among Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos?

Information Sharing Gaps

In Japanese overseas subsidiaries, Japanese think that host country managers are as well informed as other Japanese managers. However, host country managers sometimes think that they are less informed comparing to their Japanese counterparts (Yoshihara, 1996). Therefore, the following research questions will be examined:

RQ6: To what degree does perceived information sharing vary across Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos?

RQ7: To what degree do perceived problems of communication vary across Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos?

Satisfaction Gaps

Satisfaction may also vary across leaders and subordinates. There may be great differences between leaders satisfaction with subordinates and subordinate satisfaction with leaders. In addition, there may be also differences between leader satisfaction with the organization and subordinate satisfaction with the organization.

RQ8: To what degree is satisfaction with leaders by subordinates different from satisfaction with subordinates by leaders?

RQ9: To what degree do satisfaction with organization vary between leaders and subordinates?

Chapter 4 will discuss the method for investigating the above hypotheses and research questions.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Overview

The present study was funded by an Overseas Science Research Foundation, through Japan's Ministry of Education, for three years from April 1996 to March 1999, for the purpose of studying intercultural communication issues between Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos (Dr. Hiroko Nishida of the University of Shizuoka, Japan, is the project principal investigator).

As one of the several studies involved with this project, this study attempted to investigate leadership and communication between Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos working for Japanese companies in Malaysia and the Philippines. Seventeen Japanese companies in Malaysia and the Philippines joined this research, companies in which Japanese and Malaysians or Japanese and Filipinos work together. A questionnaire was utilized. First, a questionnaire was piloted by non-Japanese who work with Japanese superiors in Japan. Second, the questionnaire items were revised based on analysis of the pilot test and distributed to the companies that cooperated with this study.

Participants

Participants were recruited from 7 Japanese companies located in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia and 10 in Makati City, the Philippines. Industry type of these 17 companies included trading (10 companies), construction (3), food (2), pharmaceutical (1), and retail

(1). There were 63 Malaysians (33 females, 26 males and 4 unknown), 162 Filipinos (79 females, 69 males and 14 unknown), 22 Japanese in Malaysia (2 females, 17 males and 3 unknown), and 45 Japanese in the Philippines (2 females and 43 males). In total, 292 participants joined this study.

Because this research focused on leadership and communication in Japanese companies in Malaysia and the Philippines, it examined Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos who were in the relationship of leader-subordinate with their counterparts and had frequent communication with them. Although there are many Malaysians and Filipinos working for Japanese companies, not all of them have a direct, face to face, interpersonal, leader-subordinate relationship with Japanese employees unless they are supervisors or the upper positions since most Japanese employees are high-level executives such as department managers and general managers. Therefore, Malaysians and Filipinos who were white-collar and had frequent communication with Japanese managers were chosen to answer a questionnaire. Most host country participants had an executive title such as assistant manager and supervisor. Executives, in the current research, indicates those who supervise others (see Figure 4.1). Some executives have an administrative position such as managers and assistant managers and some have no administrative position such as supervisors and officers. There were some general staff included in this study, such as clerk and secretary, but all participants had frequent communication with Japanese and directly report to Japanese bosses.

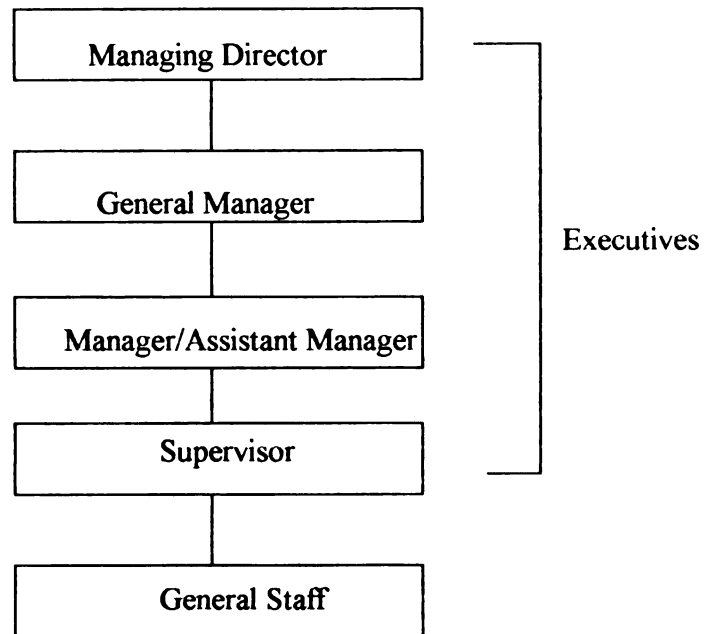


Figure 4.1 - The General Organization Structure of Japanese Overseas Subsidiaries

Procedure

As stated earlier, this study is a part of a larger project. The larger project in which Dr. Nishida already conducted surveys and interviews included only manufacturing companies. The present study examined only non-manufacturing companies, such as trading, construction, and retail firms. First, a directory published by the Japanese Chamber of Commerce in the Philippines was checked in terms of the type of industry represented and the number of Japanese included. About 30 companies were listed (Membership directory, 1998). Second, I started contacting these companies.

For the previous research with Dr. Nishida, I accompanied her to help with interviews and met several Japanese business people. From relationships with people, I contacted 5 companies. Three out of 5 agreed to cooperate with this study. Among the 30 companies listed, there were several where my friends or acquaintances were working for the headquarters. Through this connection, 4 other companies joined the study. It was extremely difficult to recruit more companies. I consulted with a staff member at JETRO (the Japanese External Trade and Research Organization) in Manila over the phone. He called several companies in the list and asked for their cooperation. Three more companies joined. In total, 10 companies in the Philippines agreed to join this study.

Because I wanted to compare the same companies in the Philippines and in Malaysia, recruiting companies in Malaysia began with the 10 Philippine firms I made an appointment. Several companies did not operate subsidiaries in Malaysia. Others were not willing to join the study. Five companies accepted and 2 more companies were recruited from previous research contacts.

Due to the time short period to collect data, the author visited all sites in both countries to distribute and collect questionnaires. Research was conducted in the Philippines from September 13th to 18th and in Malaysia from November 1st to 5th in 1998. When visiting companies, the author explained to a person in charge the purpose of this study, who could be participants, what needed to be given to the participants, and how to collect the questionnaires from them. In addition, a short interview was conducted with the person in charge mainly to obtain some background information about the company, including the year to establish the company in the host country site, the number of employees, the number of executives, job hopping rate, prospects for localization, and so forth. Each person in charge was given a set of questionnaires. The questions were worded to ask about the leader's communication with subordinates or the subordinates' communication with leaders. Japanese participants completed one questionnaire for leaders and Malaysians and Filipinos completed one for subordinates. Questionnaires were returned to the person in charge in each company. When returned, each participant put their questionnaire in an envelope so that their answers would be kept confidential. The author collected the questionnaires from the person in charge. Prior to this, a pilot questionnaire was tested in order to improve questionnaire items.

Measures

In this research, a questionnaire was utilized to examine leader-subordinate communication. In addition, it examined the perceptual differences between how Japanese perceived their leadership and how Malaysians/Filipinos perceived their Japanese bosses' leadership. The questionnaire was written in English. English is the second language to all three groups, Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos, and the official language at work as

well. The questionnaire for Japanese asked about their behaviors as a leader and their Malaysian or Filipino subordinates. The questionnaire for Malaysians and Filipinos asked about their Japanese boss. The questionnaire is attached here as Appendix A (leader version) and B (subordinate version). Some questionnaires were collected by the author during her visits and some were sent to her later by the person in charge.

Variables

In this study, there were three kinds of independent variables and two kinds of dependent variables. Independent variables are: (a) leadership (the performance function and the maintenance function), (b) communication style (the degree of explicitness), (c) demographics such as age, sex, and the length of years working for the company. Dependent variables are (a) information sharing and (b) satisfaction. Each variable is explained in details in the following section.

Leadership

The items to examine leadership are from Misumi (1984). There are eight items examining performance function of leadership (e.g. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders) and eight items for maintenance function (e.g. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems). On each item, there are four questions asked for the leader version and five for the subordinate version of the questionnaire. They are (1) the extent to which the leader practices the behavior (A.1: hereafter the number indicates the corresponding items in the questionnaire; see Appendices), (2) attitude toward the behavior (A.2), (3) difficulties in dealing with this behavior (A.5), (4) the degree to which this behavior motivates one's work (A.6), and (5) the importance of this behavior as a leader (A.7). The second question appeared only in the subordinate version

to evaluate leader behaviors. All questions were answered by marking an appropriate number from 1 (not at all/very little/very negative) to 5 (very much/very positive). These questions were worded to examine Japanese managers' leadership for Malaysians and Filipinos and one's own leadership for Japanese, to reveal how Japanese managers' leadership was perceived by Malaysian and Filipino subordinates as well as the perceptual differences between how Malaysians, Filipinos and Japanese perceived Japanese leadership. Reliability coefficient of the eight items on the performance function was .782 and that of the maintenance function was .890.

Communication Style

Communication style of leaders was examined by using the same 16 items for leadership described above. On each item, there were two questions: actual delivery style (implicit or explicit) (A.3) and the desired delivery style (A.4). These questions were answered by selecting one number ranging from 1 (very implicitly) to 5 (very explicitly). The reliability coefficient of the 16 items on the actual message delivery style (hereafter, explicitness) was .901. In addition, participants were asked to choose one to three items, which indicate explicit and implicit communication style such as "Defining words what my superior uses" and "Reading my superior's ideas and opinions by his mood" (B.1-12).

Information Sharing

There are six questions about information sharing (D.1-6). Three items are from the Organizational Communication Development Audit Questionnaire (Wiio, 1975) asking about sources of information (e.g. How much information about your work and organization do you get now from your superior?). The other three items are from the Organizational Culture Survey (Glaser, Zamanou, & Hacker, 1987) asking about

information flow (e.g. I get the information I need to do my job well). Factor analysis of these six items suggests there is one factor underlying them. All items are related to the degree to which people in the workplace share information. The reliability coefficient of the six items was .763.

In addition, there is another question asking about problems in communication (D.7). Participants were asked to choose one to three items, which are defects in communication of their organization such as “Information reaches me too late,” “The information I get is not important,” and “Management conceals important information.”

Satisfaction

The questions measuring satisfaction have three dimensions: satisfaction with superiors, satisfaction with subordinates, and satisfaction with communication in the organization. Malaysian and Filipino participants were asked about satisfaction with superiors (E.1-8) and with communication in the organization (E.11-17), while Japanese answered about satisfaction (E.1-9) with subordinates and with communication in the organization (E.11-17). These items are adopted from Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (Downs & Hazen, 1977). Satisfaction with superiors and subordinates have eight questions each, seven with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). Items included “Extent to which my superior knows and understands the problems faced by subordinates,” “Extent to which my superior (subordinate) trusts me,” and “Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to evaluation, suggestions, and criticisms.” Satisfaction with communication in the organization has seven items including “Extent to which this company’s communication motivates and stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting its goals,” and “Extent to which the company’s communication are interesting

and helpful.” The reliability coefficient of subordinates’ satisfaction with their boss and with the organization was .947, while that of leaders’ satisfaction with subordinates and with the organization was .862.

In addition to these questions, the questionnaire included two open-ended questions regarding satisfaction: (1) If the communication associated with your superior (or subordinate) could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how (E.10); and (2) if the communication associated with your organization could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how (E.18).

Demographics

In addition to the above variables, information about demographic variables was collected, including: type of industry (e.g. trading, construction), number of employees, and each respondent’s sex, age, ethnicity, length of time working with their current leader, type of work, and education. The organizational-level data was adopted from Dr. Nishida’s questionnaire responses.

Analysis

The unit of analysis for this study is the individual. Several types of analyses were used for testing hypotheses. Multiple regression analysis, with information sharing as the dependent variable, was used for Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. Hypotheses 4 used correlation analysis. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for Hypotheses 5, 6, 7 and 8 and Research Questions 1, 6, 8, and 9. Research Questions 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7 used rank order correlation analysis.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

This section begins with a general description of the profile of the participants and the companies, and descriptive data about the variables. This overview is followed by the results for each of the eight hypotheses and nine research questions.

Profile of the Participants

Table 5.1 summarizes characteristics of the study participants. The total number of participants was 292, of which 116 were female and 155 were male. Twenty-one did not respond. Out of 292, 67 were Japanese, 162 were Filipinos, and 63 were Malaysians. Among the 162 Filipinos, 7 answered that they were Chinese Filipinos; others answered that they were Filipinos. Out of the 63 Malaysians, 13 were Malay, 36 were Chinese, 2 were Indian Malaysians and the rest were unknown.

The average age was 35.7 years old. The average length of employment (in years) at the company was 8.5. The average length of time working (in years) for the current boss or with these subordinates was 2.3. One hundred and nineteen were in a managerial position, 54 were non-managerial executives, 15 were general staffs, 8 were doing a language-related job, and 17 were secretaries. Others were unknown. About the half of the participants were working for trading companies ($N = 155$), 79 were working for construction firms, 35 were in food businesses, 10 were in pharmaceuticals, 8 were in retail and 5 had no response.

Table 5.1 - Profile of the Participants

Variable	Description	Number
Sex	Female	116
	Male	155
	No response	21
Ethnicity	Japanese	67
	Filipino	155
	Chinese Filipino	7
	Malay Malaysian	13
	Chinese Malaysian	36
	Indian Malaysian	2
	No response	12
Age	(Average, in years)	35.7
Length of work for the company	(Average, in years)	8.5
Length of working with current boss/subordinate	(Average, in years)	2.3
Type of job	Manager	119
	Executive	64
	Translator or language related job	8
	Secretary	17
	Others	85
Type of industry	Trading	155
	Construction	79
	Food	35
	Pharmaceutical	10
	Retail	8
	No response	5

Note: N = 292.

The average length of education (in years) was 15.4 (Japanese 16.3, Malaysians, 14.9, Filipino 15.2). The number of employees who had study abroad experience was 39 (Japanese 16, Malaysians, 20, Filipino 3).

Table 5.2 shows the demographics of the companies that participated in this study. Out of 17 companies, 10 were trading companies and 7 were non-trading companies (see Table 5.2). Most companies had Japanese as a top manager. Eight out of 10 trading companies had 100 percent Japanese investment because they were mostly branch offices, though many of them had a joint-venture firm as a second company. Non-trading companies, on the other hand, were joint ventures. In 8 companies (5 trading companies and 3 construction companies), the number of Japanese managers was higher than the host national managers, while in 9 companies (5 trading companies and 2 food, 1 pharmaceutical, and 1 retail), the number of host national managers was higher than the number of Japanese managers. The job-hopping rate was very low. A majority of companies was trying to increase its rate of personnel localization. Advancing localization was considered difficult for various reasons (see Table 5.2). Two most prominent factors were: the difficulty of training host local employees, and the Japanese style of business, which is not well understood by host country employees. This issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

Table 5.2 - Profile of the Company

Variable	Description	Number
Type of industry	Trading	10
	Construction	3
	Pharmaceutical	1
	Food	2
	Retail	1
CEO or top manager/director	Japanese	15
	Host national	2
Investment rate	100% Japan	10
	more than 70% Japan	1
	more than 50% Japan	4
	more than 30% Japan	2
Number of Japanese manager	1~5	4
	6~10	7
	11~15	0
	more than 16	6
Number of host national manager	1~5	5
	5~10	5
	11~15	3
	more than 15	4
Job-hopping	High	2
	Low	9
	High at certain group (young, engineer, etc)	6
Localization	Proceeding	9
	Try to proceed	2
	Not proceeding	6
Obstacle for localization (participants could answer more than two)	Difficulty of training	6
	Japanese style of business	7
	Communication	1
	Information disclosure	1
	Wage	1
	Delegation	1
	Technical skill	1
	Low morality	1

Note: N = 17.

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Table 5.3 summarizes descriptive data (mean, standard deviation, and reliability) for each variable. Each variable consisted of multiple items. All items are 5-point Likert-scale questions with 5 indicating stronger responses to the question. The reliability of the scales ranged from .763 to .947.

Table 5.3 - Descriptive Data about Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Reliability
Performance function of leadership (8)	3.66	.60	.782
Maintenance function of leadership (8)	3.57	.80	.890
Communication style (explicitness) (16)	3.47	.63	.901
Information sharing (6)	3.61	.60	.763
Satisfaction of subordinates (15)	3.27	.70	.947
Satisfaction of leaders (16)	3.30	.40	.862

Note: N = 292; SD = Standard Deviation; Reliability = Alpha; Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of items in each scale; All items are 5-point Likert-Scale with 5 indicating stronger responses to the question.

Hypotheses about Leadership

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that managers who emphasize both performance and maintenance as leadership functions independently affect how well the managers share information. From the correlation matrix, it can be observed that the maintenance function of leadership appears to have stronger impact on information sharing than the performance function (see Table 5.4). Performing the multiple regression analysis shows that the standardized regression coefficient of the performance function and the maintenance function were .147 ($p < .05$) and .499 ($p < .001$) respectively ($N = 245$) (see Table 5.5), which were smaller than the correlations of the independent variables. There was no interaction effect. When controlling for maintenance function, the standardized coefficient of the performance function became smaller, when controlling for the performance function, the standardized coefficient of the maintenance function became smaller. However, the standardized coefficients were statistically significant and both functions may be enhancing on information sharing.

Table 5.4 - Correlation Matrix of Performance, Maintenance, and Information Sharing

	Performance	Maintenance	Information Sharing
Performance	1.00		
Maintenance	.374**	1.00	
Information Sharing	.333**	.554**	1.00

** = $p < .01$

Table 5.5 – Multiple Regression of Performance, Maintenance, and Information Sharing

	β	t	p
Performance	.147	2.577	< .05
Maintenance	.499	8.757	< .001

F = 58.26
R² = .570
N = 245

β indicates standardized parameter estimates.

Hypotheses 2 and 3

Hypotheses 2 and 3 predicted that managers' communication style affects how well exercising performance and maintenance as leadership functions determines the degree of information sharing. Hypothesis 2 predicted that managers emphasizing both performance and maintenance functions will affect how well managers share information when messages are explicitly communicated. Hypothesis 3 predicted that even if managers exercise both performance and maintenance, it will not contribute to how well managers share information if messages are not explicitly communicated.

In order to see how explicitness of communication affects information sharing, the data was divided into two groups: those who communicate explicitly and those who communicate implicitly.

When messages were explicitly communicated, both the performance function and the maintenance function were significantly correlated to information sharing (see Table 5.6). Multiple regression analysis yielded standardized regression coefficients of the performance function and the maintenance function of .177 ($p < .05$) and .538 ($p < .001$)

respectively and there was no interaction effect. Although there is less effect of the performance function on information sharing than the maintenance function, both functions still contribute to information sharing significantly. This indicates that both the performance function and the maintenance function affect information sharing. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was confirmed.

Table 5.6 - Correlation Matrix of Performance, Maintenance, and Information Sharing (Explicit Communication)

	Performance	Maintenance	Information Sharing
Performance	1.00		
Maintenance	.202	1.00	
Information Sharing	.273**	.574**	1.00

N = 84. ** = $p < .01$

When messages were not explicitly communicated, the performance function was not significantly correlated to information sharing, but the maintenance function was still significantly correlated to information sharing (see Table 5.7). Performing multiple regression analysis shows that the standardized regression coefficient of the performance function and the maintenance function were .143 ($p > .05$) and .473 ($p < .001$) respectively and there was no interaction effect.

The performance function did not contribute to information sharing when messages were not explicitly communicated. The maintenance function, however,

contributed to information sharing even when messages were not explicitly communicated. This result together with the result of Hypothesis 2 indicate that the maintenance function leads to information sharing regardless of explicit or implicit communication style, but the performance function leads to information sharing only when messages were explicitly communicated. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not confirmed.

Table 5.7 - Correlation Matrix of Performance, Maintenance, and Information Sharing (Implicit Communication)

	Performance	Maintenance	Information Sharing
Performance	1.00		
Maintenance	.112	1.00	
Information Sharing	.162	.462**	1.00

N = 93. ** = $p < .01$

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 predicted that increased information sharing leads to greater satisfaction of both Japanese leaders and Malaysian and Filipino subordinates. Increased information sharing was positively correlated to both satisfaction with boss or subordinates and satisfaction with the organization among all three groups and they were all statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was confirmed. Results appear in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 – Correlation between Information Sharing and Satisfaction

	Satisfaction	
	With boss/ subordinate	With organization
Information Sharing		
Japanese	.301 ($p < .01$, N = 54)	.436 ($p < .01$, N = 60)
Malaysians	.309 ($p < .05$, N = 58)	.629 ($p < .001$, N = 134)
Filipinos	.756 ($p < .001$, N = 59)	.544 ($p < .001$, N = 132)

Hypothesis 5 and 6

Hypothesis 5 proposed that the PM style of leadership is most strongly related to greater information sharing and satisfaction of subordinates, while Hypothesis 6 predicted that the pm style of leadership is least strongly related to greater information sharing and satisfaction of subordinates. The results of Hypotheses 1 and 4 imply the positive relationship between each function of leadership and information sharing and satisfaction. In order to ascertain the claim of previous literature, the PM style of leadership as the best style, subordinates were grouped based on the scores of their perception toward the performance function and the maintenance function of their managers' leadership. Participants who scored low on both performance and maintenance were grouped as the "pm" group. Participants who scored high on performance and low on maintenance function were categorized as the "Pm" group. Participants who scored low on performance and high on maintenance functions was the "pM" group. Finally, participants who scored high on both functions constituted the "PM" group.

The score of the PM group was expected to be highest. Table 5.9 shows the number of participants in each group. It suggests that 77 subordinates see their managers' leadership as pm style, 38 as pM, 37 as Pm, and 58 as PM. In order to see how Japanese managers viewed their own leadership style, the number of Japanese participants was placed in parenthesis. Sixteen managers see their own leadership as pm style, 8 as pM, 10 as Pm, and 33 as PM. About half of Japanese participants observed their leadership style as PM, whereas more than one third of the subordinates considered their managers' leadership style as pm.

Table 5.9 - Groups of PM Style Leadership

		Maintenance		
		Low		High
Performance				
Low	pm	77 (16)	pM	38 (8)
High	Pm	37 (10)	PM	58 (33)

Note: Numbers in parentheses reflect the number of Japanese participants.

These groups were compared with regard to the scores on information sharing and satisfaction. Means and standard deviations of each group on satisfaction scores are listed in Table 5.10. The participants who perceived their leaders as PM felt that they shared the most information, whereas the participants who perceived their leaders as pm felt that they shared information least. The analysis of variance indicated that group difference exerted

significant effects on information sharing ($F(3) = 29.36$; $N = 185$; $p < .001$). When looking at interaction term between performance and maintenance functions, there was no interaction effect. The Least Difference found that all four groups were significantly different from each other.

Table 5.10 - Comparison of Four Groups on Information Sharing

		Maintenance	
		Low	High
Performance	Low	pm M = 3.23 SD = .54 N = 68	pM M = 3.86 SD = .48 N = 32
	High	Pm M = 3.54 SD = .52 N = 34	PM M = 4.09 SD = .52 N = 51

Table 5.11 shows means and standard deviations of each group on satisfaction scores. The participants who perceived their managers as PM felt most satisfied with their boss and organization, whereas the participants who perceived their leaders as pm felt least satisfied. The analysis of variance indicated that group difference exerted significant effects on satisfaction, $F(3) = 28.15$; $N = 197$; $p < .001$. When looking at interaction term between performance and maintenance functions, there was no interaction effect. A test of Least Differences with significance level at .05 found that pm and Pm groups were not

significantly different, but that pM and PM were different from each other and from other two groups.

These results together suggest a PM style of leadership is strongly related to greater information sharing and subordinates satisfaction and a pm style of leadership is not related greater information sharing and subordinates satisfaction. Therefore, Hypotheses 5 and 6 were supported.

Table 5.11 - Comparison of Four Groups on Satisfaction

		Maintenance	
		Low	High
Performance	Low	pm M = 2.74 SD = .60 N = 72	pM M = 3.25 SD = .41 N = 34
	High	Pm M = 2.83 SD = .46 N = 37	PM M = 3.57 SD = .58 N = 55

Hypothesis about Perception Gaps

Leadership Gaps

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked whether the degree to which Japanese leaders' exercise leadership is perceived differently among Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos. In order to

answer this question, the means of the performance and maintenance scores were compared among these three groups. The means of performance function of Japanese, Malaysian, and Filipino were 3.81 (SD = .47, N = 67), 3.43 (SD = .62, N = 62), and 3.69 (SD = .62, N = 154) respectively. The mean of the Japanese groups was the highest. The analysis of variance found that group difference exerted significant effects on the perception toward the performance function, $F(2) = 7.13$; $N = 282$; $p < .01$. A Tukey-HSD test with significance level at .05 revealed that Malaysians were significantly different from the other two groups, but that Filipinos and Japanese were not significantly different from each other.

The same analysis was performed on the means of maintenance scores. The means of Japanese, Malaysian, and Filipino were 3.81 (SD = .60, N = 67), 3.34 (SD = .68, N = 61), and 3.55 (SD = .89, N = 156) respectively. Again, the mean of the Japanese group was the highest. The results of ANOVA were also significant, $F(2) = 5.75$; $N = 283$; $p < .01$. A Tukey-HSD test with significance level at .05 found that Japanese were significantly different from Malaysians, but not from Filipinos, and the latter two groups were not, either.

Japanese scores on the performance and the maintenance functions were the same, while Malaysians and Filipinos showed the maintenance scores was lower than the performance scores.

In order to see any sex differences among subordinates, the score of female participants and that of male participants were compared. Male employees tended to have higher scores on both perceptions of performance and maintenance functions (see Table 5.12).

These results together suggest that the degree to which Malaysian and Filipino subordinates recognized their Japanese managers' leadership is less than the degree to which Japanese managers believed that they exhibit leadership, which was even more obvious in the maintenance function and among female employees.

Table 5.12 - Perception Difference about Leadership by Sex

	M	SD	N	F	p
Performance					
Female	3.45	.64	106	14.87	< .001
Male	3.79	.58	94		
Maintenance					
Female	3.39	.82	109	3.48	> .05
Male	3.61	.85	92		

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 asked whether the characteristics of an efficient leader vary across Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos. For this question, participants marked one number ranging from 1 to 5 in response to following question: What is important for an efficient leader? Answers were ranked according to mean score; then Spearman's rank-order correlation was performed.

Of 16 items, the top 8 items are listed in Table 5.13. As seen in this table, there are several items listed similarly among three groups, though they do not inform us if the three groups have similar patterns on the characteristics of an efficient leader. Therefore,

Spearman's rank correlation was performed to find out the degree of rank-order association.

Spearman's rank-order correlation analysis shows that the characteristics that each group considers to be traits of as an efficient leader varied among Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos. They were not statistically similar to each other. However, Table 5.13 shows that half of the items Japanese chose as the qualities of efficient leaders are related to the performance function of leadership, while Malaysians and Filipinos selected the maintenance function related items. The items Malaysians and Filipinos chose are similar, though not statistically significant.

Table 5.13 - Ranks on Efficient Leader by Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos

Rank	Japanese (N = 53)		Malaysian (N = 58)		Filipino (N = 137)	
1	Give recognition	(4.57)	Trust	(4.51)	Trust	(4.58)
2	Give proper instruction	(4.52)	Support	(4.50)	Support	(4.57)
3	Treat fairly	(4.37)	Treat fairly	(4.45)	Treat fairly	(4.57)
4	Give time pressure	(4.31)	Give recognition	(4.41)	Give proper instruction	(4.54)
5	Support	(4.28)	Make us work to maximum capacity	(4.40)	Talk freely	(4.51)
6	Ask for report	(4.26)	Concern future	(4.38)	Give recognition	(4.48)
7	How to deal with inadequate job	(4.17)	Talk freely	(4.35)	Concern future	(4.45)
8	Trust	(4.17)	Give proper instruction	(4.28)	Ask for opinion	(4.34)

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate mean.

Items shadowed are Performance function, while not shadowed are Maintenance function items.

In addition, the means of performance function of Japanese, Malaysian, and Filipino were 4.15 (SD = .62, N = 54), 4.15 (SD = .52, SD = 136), and 3.94 (SD = 1.09, N = 59) respectively, whereas the means of maintenance function were 4.16 (SD = .64, N = 53), 4.36 (SD = .64, N = 57), and 4.41 (SD = .66, N = 138) respectively. While Japanese had similar scores on both functions, Malaysians and Filipinos saw maintenance function was more important than performance function as the qualities of efficient leaders.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 asked whether the perceived relational difficulties differ from behaviors which managers perform. The same procedure as RQ2 was taken for this question. Participants' answers to the following question were analyzed: Which behaviors of your Japanese manager is difficult to deal with (for Japanese participants, which behavior do you feel is difficult to deal with by your subordinates)? Table 5.14 gives the ranking of the top 8 items.

As seen in Table 5.13, it is obvious that all three groups think it is difficult to deal with performance-related behaviors such as "urging them to complete work by the time specified" and "making employees work to maximum capacity." Spearman's rank-order correlation analysis discovered that Malaysians and Japanese have similar patterns on their rankings ($r = .671$, $p < .01$). Other combinations of two groups were not significantly similar. Japanese felt difficulty in performing performance-related behaviors, and Malaysians and Filipinos also felt difficulty in dealing with managers' performance-related behaviors.

Table 5.14 - Ranks on Difficulty by Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos

Rank	Japanese (N = 58)	Malaysian (N = 61)	Filipino (N = 156)
1	Give time pressure (3.31)	How to deal with inadequate job (2.77)	Concern future (2.64)
2	Make them work to maximum capacity (3.28)	Make them work to maximum capacity (2.66)	Treat fairly (2.55)
3	Strict about regulations (3.22)	Strict about amount of work (2.66)	Give time pressure (2.50)
4	Strict about amount of work (3.09)	Ask for report (2.50)	Give recognition (2.33)
5	Work out plans (3.02)	Concern future (2.50)	Trust (2.46)
6	Concern personal problems (2.98)	Give time pressure (2.48)	Make us work to maximum capacity (2.41)
7	Ask for report (2.93)	Work out plans (2.48)	Strict about regulations (2.39)
8	Trust (2.91)	Concern personal problems (2.48)	Give proper instruction (2.39)

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate mean.

Items shadowed are Performance function, while not shadowed are Maintenance function items.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 asked whether the manager behaviors which subordinates feel motivate them differ from the behaviors which leaders feel to motivate their subordinates. The same analysis as RQ2 and RQ3 was followed. Participants answered the question: Which behavior of your Japanese leader motivates you to work (for Japanese participants, which behavior do you think motivates your subordinates)? Answers were ranked according to mean score. Spearman's rank-order correlation was then computed.

Table 5.15 - Ranks on Motivate Behavior by Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos

Rank	Japanese (N = 57)		Malaysian (N = 59)		Filipino (N = 137)	
1	Give recognition	(4.42)	Treat fairly	(4.35)	Trust	(4.37)
2	Treat fairly	(4.12)	Trust	(4.28)	Support	(4.32)
3	Support	(4.12)	Give recognition	(4.20)	Treat fairly	(4.28)
4	Trust	(4.09)	Support	(4.18)	Talk freely	(4.27)
5	Give proper instruction	(4.02)	Concern future	(4.17)	Give recognition	(4.25)
6	Concern future	(4.00)	Talk freely	(4.15)	Give proper instruction	(4.18)
7	Talk freely	(3.96)	Ask for opinion	(4.05)	Ask for opinion	(4.09)
8	Ask for opinion	(3.96)	Give proper instruction	(3.90)	Concern future	(4.05)

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate mean.

Items shadowed are Performance function, while not shadowed are Maintenance function items.

Spearman's rank-order correlation analysis revealed that the three groups have different patterns on ranking the 16 items. However, Table 5.15 shows that the same 8 items were chosen by three groups. This finding suggests that Japanese managers believe that maintenance-related behaviors would motivate subordinates, just as Malaysian and Filipino subordinates believe that maintenance-related behaviors do, in fact, motivate them.

Communication Style Gaps

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 predicted that Malaysians and Filipinos think their Japanese leaders communicate more implicitly than Japanese leaders themselves think they do. In order to test whether there is any difference between how Malaysians and Filipinos perceive Japanese leaders' communication style and how Japanese leaders see their own communication style, a Tukey-HSD test with significance level at .05 was employed. Means of explicitness score of Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos were 3.75 (SD = .57, N = 55), 3.30 (SD = .55, N = 60), and 3.43 (SD = .65, N = 157) respectively. Higher score indicates more explicitness. ANOVA found the difference among three groups was significant, $F(2) = 8.98$; $N = 266$; $p < .001$. A Tukey-HSD test revealed that Japanese score was significantly higher than those of Malaysians and Filipinos. The same pattern was found when looking at the two functions separately. This suggests that Japanese think their communication is more explicit than host country employees perceive. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 predicted that Malaysians and Filipinos want their Japanese leaders to exercise leadership more explicitly than Japanese leaders want to do. When examined both performance and maintenance functions of leadership together, there was no significant finding and thus Hypothesis 8 was not supported. However, looking at the two functions separately, there was an interesting outcome. The mean of how performance function of leadership wants to be delivered among Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos were 4.13 (SD = .65, N = 54), 3.50 (SD = .64, N = 62), and 3.82 (SD = .67, N = 155)

respectively. Higher score indicates more desire to have information more explicitly.

Japanese managers think that they need to be more explicit on the performance function of leadership, while Malaysians and Filipinos want less to do. ANOVA found the difference among these three groups was significant, $F(2) = 13.52$; $N = 270$; $p < .001$. A Tukey-HSD test with significance level at .05 revealed that all groups were different from each other.

On the other hand, the means of how the maintenance function of leadership want to be delivered among Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos were 4.02 (SD = .79, N = 56), 4.04 (SD = .72, N = 61), and 4.08 (SD = .81, N = 157) respectively. Higher score indicates more desire to have information more explicitly. The means of three groups were apparently not so different. However, when comparing the mean of the performance function with the mean of the maintenance function within each group, there was a significant difference for Malaysians and Filipinos, whereas no difference for Japanese (see Table 5.16).

Table 5.16 - Comparison of Means of Leadership Function Among Three Groups

	N	Performance	Maintenance	t	p
Japanese	54	4.13	4.02	-1.18	> .01
Malaysian	60	3.50	4.04	5.92	< .001
Filipino	152	3.82	4.08	4.69	< .001

This result indicates that Malaysian and Filipino subordinates want their Japanese managers to be more explicit on maintenance-related messages. Japanese managers want to be more explicit for delivering both types of messages, while Malaysian and Filipino subordinates want Japanese managers to be less explicit than Japanese want to be in terms of performance-related messages.

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 asked when messages are unclear if the strategies they use are different among Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos. This question attempted to reveal what kinds of strategies people use when messages are unclear. There are 10 items to choose from. Table 5.17 lists the top 5 items chosen by each group.

Table 5.17 - Strategies in Response to Unclear Messages

Rank	Japanese (N = 67)	Malaysian (N = 61)	Filipino (N = 162)
1	Making sure what is told	Making sure what is told	Making sure what is told
2	Ask more information	Ask more information	Ask more information
3	Use visual aids	Defining words	Defining words
4	Use examples	Read his/her mood	Read his/her mood
5	Judge from context	Use visual aids	Use examples

Note: Number represents the items shown below.

The top two strategies were the same among three groups. It seems that Malaysians and Filipinos were quite similar. In order to test how the ranking was

similar/different among these three groups, Spearman's rank correlation was performed. Spearman's rank correlation analysis yielded that Malaysians and Filipinos were significantly similar ($r = .746$, $p < .05$) indicating that they use the similar strategy when messages are unclear, while Japanese were different from other two groups.

Information Sharing Gaps

Research Question 6

Research Question 6 questioned that the degree to which they think information is shared among leaders and subordinates varies across Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos. When comparing means of information sharing scores among three groups, there was no significant difference among them. The mean of each group was as follows: Japanese ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .46$, $N = 60$), Malaysian ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .54$, $N = 60$), and Filipino ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .67$, $N = 139$). Thus, the analysis of variance didn't find any ethnic difference in information sharing.

Research Question 7

Research Question 7 examined if the communication problems they think exist in organization vary across Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos. For answering this question, participants selected three items about the worst problems in communication of their organization. There were 12 items to choose from. Out of 12, top six items were listed by country (see Table 5.18). The top six items Malaysian and Filipino participants chose were exactly the same, whereas Japanese chose some different items. Employing Spearman's rank-order correlation on all 12 items, Japanese and Malaysian/Filipino groups were not significantly similar.

Table 5.18 - Communication Problems by Country

Rank	Japanese (N=67)	Malaysian (N=63)/Filipino (N=162)
1	Information reaches late	Management does not know what the employees think
2	Information is not accurate	Information is not readily available
3	Information is not readily available	Management conceals important information
4	Information does not reach	Information is not accurate
5	Get too much information	Information reaches late
6	Management does not know what the employees think	The language in information is difficult

Satisfaction Gaps

Research Question 8

Research Question 8 asked the degree to which subordinates feel satisfied with their managers and which managers feel satisfied with their subordinates differ among Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos. The means were as follows: Japanese ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .40$, $N = 57$), Malaysian ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .64$, $N = 61$), and Filipino ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .84$, $N = 156$). Higher score indicates more satisfaction with their managers or subordinates. There was no significant difference among these groups. This indicates there was no ethnic difference in satisfaction gap with leaders or subordinates in the entire groups. There was no sex difference, either.

Research Question 9

Research Question 9 examined to see if the degree to which they feel satisfied with the communication in their organization is different among Japanese, Malaysians and Filipinos. The means of each groups was: Japanese ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .58$, $N = 61$), Malaysian ($M = 3.00$, $SD = .75$, $N = 62$), and Filipino ($M = 3.16$, $SD = .79$, $N = 153$). Higher number indicates more satisfaction with the communication in their organization. There was no significant difference among these groups at this level. However, male employees were more satisfied with their organization than female employees, $F(1) = 4.46$; $N = 200$; $p < .05$.

Thus, there was no ethnic difference in satisfaction with organization in the entire population. However, female employees were less satisfied than male employees.

Answers to Open-ended Questions

Although there were no hypotheses or research questions about the open-ended questions, it may be beneficial to analyze the data to extract the type of issues the participants were concerned with more satisfactory communication with superior or subordinate and organization. The questions were: (1) If the communication associated with your superior (or subordinate) could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how; and (2) if the associated with your organization could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how.

Superiors and Subordinates

First, each answer was carefully examined and several categories were generated. Second, each answer was grouped into one of those seven categories: performance function of leadership, maintenance function of leadership, communication, language,

meeting, information sharing, and other (see Table 5.19). Performance function of leadership includes opinions such as “Instructions should be clear and consistent” and “Superior shouldn’t give too much of working pressure to staff.” Maintenance function of leadership includes “Show appreciation when subordinates put effort and hard work” and “Superior must be trustful to his subordinates.” Communication items are “More chances of communication will create mutual understanding” and “Learn Filipino communication custom.” Language issues include “Let’s just use English among ourselves to make change more practical” and “Learn to speak English more fluently.” Meeting items are “We will make more time of meeting” and “Hold meetings with local staff – currently none. Very deep feeling of segregation.” Information sharing includes “Accuracy and availability of relevant information.”

As shown in Table 5.18, the most concerned aspect that Malaysian and Filipino subordinates seek for in more satisfied communication with superior was maintenance function of leadership. They would like their superiors to be more sensitive to interpersonal relationship issues. For instance,

“I wish my superior be much understanding and sensitive to the demands and ideas of his staff” (29-year-old, female, Filipino).

“Be more transparent and trust the capabilities of their subordinates who have been working for the company much longer than them” (38, male, Chinese Filipino).

“Treat subordinates as fair as possible. Maybe favor on one person/race, but not to show/over-show unbalance treatment to other subordinates” (30, female, Malaysian).

“My superior should know staffs’ problem, listen to them, treat them fairly, don’t just listen to one person’s idea and act friendly to all the staff” (23, female, Chinese Malaysian).

Table 5.19 - Suggestions for More Satisfied Communication with Superiors

	Japanese	Malaysian	Filipino
Performance function of leadership	2 (10.5%)	3(11.5%)	14(23%)
Maintenance function of leadership	1(5.3%)	17(65.4%)	22(36%)
Communication	7(36.8%)	1(3.8%)	6(9.8%)
Language	2(10.5%)	0	8(13.1%)
Meeting	1(5.3%)	2(7.7%)	5(8.2%)
Information sharing	0	0	2(3.3%)
Other	6(31.6%)	3(11.5%)	4(6.6%)
Total	19	26	61

On the other hand, Japanese leaders thought more frequent communication was the key. They recognized the importance of frequent communication with subordinates, though their answers implied only the general idea with no specific direction.

The Organization

The same procedure was employed for this data set and the categories found in the previous analysis were also obtained except benefits. Benefits were such as “Adapt employee development plan and employee interview in yearly evaluation” and “To offer more and better future benefits and promotion (pay raise).” Table 5.20 shows the participants’ suggestion to management about more satisfied communication in organization.

Table 5.20 - Suggestions for More Satisfied Communication in Organizations

	Japanese	Malaysian	Filipino
Communication	5(45.5%)	10(38.4%)	11(21.6%)
Information sharing/system	0	3(11.5%)	8(15.7%)
Meeting	0	8(30.8%)	6(11.8%)
Language	0	0	3(5.9%)
Benefits	0	1(3.8%)	3(5.9%)
Performance function of leadership	1(9.1%)	0	3(5.9%)
Maintenance function of leadership	1(9.1%)	0	15(29.4%)
Other	4(36.4%)	4(15.4%)	2(3.9%)
Total	11	26	51

Communication is a top concern for Japanese and Malaysians. The following are comments from both groups.

“Communication system should be established as a procedure” (49, male, Japanese).

“Japanese try to mingle with Filipinos more” (31, male, Japanese).

“Open communication between top management and staffs” (24, female, Chinese Malaysian).

“There should be more ‘human touch’ in the communication” (34, male, Indian Malaysian).

Among Filipino participants, communication was also a concern, but the maintenance function was an even greater concern. Maintenance means attention to relational issues in the organization, such as:

“Equality regardless of race, position or years of service” (27, female, Filipino).

“Japanese staff need to be more open, trustworthy, honest, not overly exaggerated in suspicion” (25, male, Filipino).

These are directed to the set of Japanese employees and management rather than to a particular Japanese superior. The results of open-ended questions about satisfaction with communication with superiors and in the organization urge more concern of interpersonal or relationship-maintenance aspects in communication from their superiors and organization. This issue is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Overview

This section begins with a description of general patterns of findings across hypotheses and research questions, followed by explanations of the results and theoretical implications for the study of communication and leadership in organizations. Based on the findings, some suggestions for Japanese leaders and their host country employees are offered. Limitations and implications for future research comprise the last section.

General Patterns of Findings

Hypotheses about Leadership

The Leader-Subordinate Communication Model (see Figure 3.2) predicts that information will be shared better between managers and subordinates under managers who emphasize both performance and maintenance (PM) as leadership functions, and when messages are communicated explicitly.

According to the results of examining hypotheses, subordinates did perceive that information was shared more under Japanese managers who emphasized both performance and maintenance as leadership functions, especially managers who focused on maintenance issues and not just performance issues. In addition, when messages were communicated more explicitly, information was shared more, and subordinates felt more satisfaction with their managers.

The Leader-Subordinate Communication Model also predicted that more information sharing will lead to more satisfaction among both managers and subordinates with each other and the organization. Results confirmed these predictions. When information was shared, Japanese managers were more satisfied with Malaysian and Filipino subordinates and the subordinates were satisfied with their managers. Moreover, all groups were more satisfied with the organization when information was better shared.

The results of analyses about leadership styles based on the functions of performance and maintenance revealed that the PM style (high in both performance and maintenance) was most strongly related to information sharing and satisfaction. The pM style (low in performance and high in maintenance) was next most related, and the pm style (low in both performance and maintenance) was least strongly related to information sharing and satisfaction. This result is consistent with the claim of PM leadership theorists and previous literature (e.g., Misumi, 1984; 1992). However, considering that the pm style and the Pm style didn't differ statistically, the maintenance function seems more important to Malaysian and Filipino employees. High maintenance behaviors by managers seem linked to information sharing and satisfaction. There must be transcultural dimensions of leadership style which appear to be effective in any cultural settings, but the specific aspects may vary across cultures (Smith et al., 1989).

According to the data, both the maintenance function and the performance function contributed to information sharing when messages were communicated explicitly, whereas only the maintenance function contributed to information sharing when messages were not explicitly communicated. This result does not support hypothesis 3. Perhaps subordinates feel secure and act cooperative when they believe that their leaders try to

protect their benefits and care about them (Chemers, 1997; 1998). Under such conditions, they are willing to work toward their leaders' objectives and achieve organizational goals.

In addition, when messages are explicitly communicated, subordinates acknowledge that both performance and maintenance functions are performed, thus information sharing and satisfaction increase. However, when messages are not explicitly communicated, performance-related messages do not facilitate information sharing and satisfaction.

This result is slightly different from the Leader-Subordinate Communication Model that predicts that neither performance nor maintenance functions contribute to information sharing and satisfaction when messages are not explicitly communicated. Though there must be more studies needed to investigate this difference, the earlier study of PM leadership theory (Misumi, 1984) may explain a part of it. The study investigated the relationship between communication flow and PM style leadership. Communication flows most smoothly under PM style leaders, pM next, Pm, and then pm style leaders. The maintenance function may play more vital role in communication. Thus, even when messages are not explicitly communicated, the maintenance function still could contribute to information sharing and satisfaction, whereas the performance function could not.

Hypotheses about Perception Gaps

In order to examine how the data reflect on the Leader-Subordinate Communication Model in more detail (see Figure 3.2), perceptual differences between leaders and subordinates were investigated in terms of leadership, communication style, information sharing, and satisfaction.

With regard to leadership, Japanese managers believed that they exhibited both performance and maintenance as leadership functions whereas Malaysian and Filipino subordinates little recognized Japanese managers' leadership. This gap was more obvious in the scores for maintenance functions. In addition, there was a sex difference among subordinates. Male subordinates recognized Japanese managers' leadership better than female subordinates.

When examined in greater detail, differences between Japanese managers and Malaysian/Filipino subordinates were revealed in terms of perceived leadership behaviors. Japanese managers defined an efficient leader as someone who handles performance-related matters well, such as giving proper instruction, giving appropriate amounts of time so that subordinates complete tasks on time, and asking subordinates to report their work progress. However, Japanese managers felt it difficult to deal with these performance-related issues. As other studies found (Takamiya & Thurley, 1985; White & Trevor, 1983), Japanese managers are strongly task-oriented. Even if they want to push Malaysian and Filipino subordinates strongly for excellent performance, their high expectation does not meet; the subordinates do not act as the managers want.

On the other hand, Malaysian and Filipino subordinates defined an efficient leader as someone who handles maintenance-related matters well, such as trust of and support for subordinates, fair treatment, and being accessible. Like Japanese managers, subordinates also felt difficulties in dealing with performance-related behaviors. They thought their boss's maintenance-related behaviors would motivate them to work, consistent with the definition of an efficient leader.

Interestingly, Japanese managers believed that maintenance-related behaviors on their part would motivate their subordinates, but this is not consistent with their own definitions of an efficient leader. It seems to Japanese managers that an efficient leader is the one who can handle difficult performance-related matters, but not one who motivates subordinates for better work.

In short, there was a substantial difference of view between Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos about leadership; such a difference between managers and subordinates may not be obvious within organizations where only Japanese work. However, this difference appears when people with different cultural backgrounds work together. The concept of leadership between Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos differs in meaning, and this gap may be a product of their work or organizational culture. Leaders in any organizations do need to attend both to the task at hand and also to the maintenance of good relationships with subordinates. But how this is to be accomplished in each setting will be dependent on the meanings given to particular leadership behavior in different cultural settings (Smith & Tayeb, 1988). A manager who frequently checks on which work is done properly as seen an appropriate leader behavior in Japan, as maybe too demanding in Malaysian and Filipino settings.

Peterson, Smith, and Tayeb (1993) found the significant difference in the leadership meaning between the western countries like the U.S. and the U.K. and Japan. They state that a managers who is “considerate yet who pushes very strongly for excellent output can easily be viewed as exercising legitimate authority in Japan” and “the same combination may be viewed as schizoid or unacceptably paternalistic” in the U.S. and the U.K. (p. 265). Comparing Malaysia and the Philippines with Japan, as Filipino values:

personalism, authoritarianism, and familism (Andres, 1988; Jocano, 1990) suggest, Malaysian and Filipinos need a manager who is more considerate.

Concerning communication styles, it was found that Japanese managers think they communicate more explicitly than their subordinates think they do. Managers notice the need to communicate explicitly when working with host country employees, but then they don't enact explicit communication behaviors, according to their subordinates. Both Malaysian and Filipino subordinates want their Japanese managers to be more explicit about maintenance behaviors such as showing trust and supporting them.

Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos in this study chose similar strategies when messages were unclear. Malaysians and Filipinos chose almost the same strategies. Concerning communication problems they think exist in their organization, the pattern was similar. Malaysian and Filipino subordinates picked exactly the same items such as "Management does not know what the employees think" and "Information is not readily available." The pattern was different from Japanese. It may be important to ask why Malaysians and Filipinos reveal the same pattern even though they are working in two different countries.

There could be several explanations provided. Three prominent ones would be: (1) Subordinates are similar across countries; (2) Malaysians and Filipinos are culturally similar; and (3) Japanese companies have similar environment in other countries. These points will be discussed later in this chapter.

With regard to the degree to which Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos think information is shared among leaders and subordinates, there was no ethnic difference.

Leadership style was related to information sharing as previously explained for leadership style differences.

A similar pattern was found concerning satisfaction with one's boss/subordinate and satisfaction with the organization. There was no ethnic difference among Japanese, Malaysians, and Filipinos. Leadership styles differentiate the degree of satisfaction (Misumi, 1984). However, there was a significant sex difference about satisfaction with organization. Male employees were more satisfied with organization than were female employees. Male employees also perceived that Japanese managers exercise leadership more so than was perceived by female employees. These results together may suggest that Japanese companies are a better place to work for male employees.

Suggestions for Japanese Managers

Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos differed in their perceptions about efficient leaders. While Japanese think efficient leaders are those who can handle difficult performance-related behaviors well, Malaysians and Filipinos think those who can take care of subordinates well. Subordinates perceived that information was shared better under the managers who focus on maintenance behaviors and they were more satisfied with those managers. Of course, the status difference (the Japanese were managers and Malaysians and Filipinos worked for Japanese managers) may have caused this difference. However, as Chemers (1998) says, this result suggests that culture determines the quality of desirable leaders and changes the degree of satisfaction of subordinates towards the leaders accordingly.

Based on results of the current research, a boss's maintenance-related behaviors are more important to subordinates as a determinant of satisfaction than are performance-

related behaviors. Andres (1988) mentions genuine friendliness and an outgoing concern for others as qualities Filipinos look for in a leader. Chemers (1997) argues that performance-related behaviors may be important and effective at the early stage of group and organizational development and task achievement, but may then generate negative outcomes over a long period of time.

This possibility is important for Japanese managers who are performance-oriented and who work with maintenance-oriented subordinates. Maintenance behaviors create trustful relationship between leaders and subordinates. Once a trustful relationship is established, leaders' performance behaviors are more likely to be accepted and supported by subordinates. Previous research is consistent with this result (Ayman & Chemers, 1983; Misumi, 1984).

Communicating explicitly is also an important key to better information sharing and satisfaction. When messages are not explicitly communicated, performance behaviors don not contribute to information sharing and satisfaction. Japanese managers need to be more concerned with communicating performance behaviors more explicitly, that will enhance information sharing and satisfaction.

When people with different cultural backgrounds work together, extra sensitivity to relational issues is required. I assume that Japanese managers' maintenance behaviors can work properly when they work with Japanese subordinates. However, when working with subordinates from different cultures, messages meaning should be manifest. Though Japanese managers answered that they cared about maintenance behaviors in the present study, their subordinates claimed this was not the case. Yet, according to the result of

open-ended questions, many subordinates expressed their requests that Japanese managers would consider more about maintenance-related issues.

There is also a racial issue to which Japanese managers should give careful consideration. Some employees expressed their feeling about unfair treatment among different racial groups. Both Malaysia and the Philippines are multi-ethnic countries. In Malaysia, especially, people are very sensitive about ethnic issues. One of the major challenges for Japanese managers in Malaysia is dealing with the unusual balance of Malays and Chinese. Management faces problems in organizing supervision of the workforce and in deciding on promotion in an atmosphere of ethnic rivalry and suspicions of favoritism (Smith, 1996). As discussed in Chapter 1, Japanese companies tend to give managerial positions to Chinese. This tendency was predominant in trading companies in this study. When interviewed, Japanese managers said that it was easier to get along with Chinese employees thanks to their cultural similarity with Japanese. They said they had sometimes dinner together with Chinese employees. This is one of the most basic ways of developing social cohesion among employees. Due to religious reasons, Malaysians of different ethnic groups cannot eat together. Drinking alcohol is a usual way of corporate socialization for both Japanese and Chinese and this is also the place where some business negotiations are held. Yet, Malays cannot drink. Malays cannot eat pork and Indians cannot eat beef. Thus, Japanese managers tend to gather with Chinese. These behaviors may make some employees feel treated unfairly.

Japanese managers are required to develop cultural and relational sensitivity in their short period of postings of three to five years. Being sensitive to cultural and relational issues is one of the most important intercultural communication skills. If one

manager becomes aware of these issues and able to handle them, that will improve the relationship between the manager and his/her subordinates, but this won't change other managers. Not only about being sensitive, but also about other intercultural communication issues, it is difficult for each manager to be aware of them and change himself/herself accordingly within a short period stay in a host country. Moreover, even if one manager acquires intercultural communication skills through his/her host country experiences, the next manager from Japan should go through the process in the host country again. Companies have to establish a system in which all employees will be aware of communication as one of the essential strategies in intercultural business settings.

Suggestions for Management

As discussed previously, the managers I interviewed in the current study understand the importance of localization for the future competition in a global market. They know that having Japanese managers at an overseas subsidiary costs much higher than employing host country managers. Despite that, advancing localization was considered difficult for various reasons. What makes localization so difficult? As shown in Chapter 5, there are two most prominent factors that may hinder management from localization. They are the difficulty of training host local employees and the Japanese style of business. These are somewhat interrelated.

There are several reasons why companies feel difficulties of training host country employees: (1) They don't have enough time and people who train host country employees; (2) Capable employees leave for other companies even if they are trained; and (3) Both Japanese and host country employees have cultural and communication gaps toward each other.

First, Japanese managers' posting usually lasts 4 to 5 years in a host country. Within a limited time period, devoting a lot of time and money on training host country employees is not an easy task without a systematic support from management. Because they don't train the host country employees, they cannot have the host country employees who meet their expectation.

Second, even though they spend time and money on training host country employees, the employees don't stay long in the company. For example, the employees find out that they cannot be promoted to a director position because the position is for Japanese. Therefore, they are disappointed. In another case, since management does not provide a clear career path with host country employees, the employees are worried about their future career, thus quit the company. When interviewed, several companies told me jokingly that older ones stay in the company, but young, capable employees tend to quit the company. Young employees are motivated and full of dreams, but they soon find out that their future is unclear and they have little chance to become a director in the Japanese company, then leave there. Those who are not capable enough to leave for other companies will remain there.

Third, Japanese and Malaysian/Filipino employees have different expectations about each other. Malaysian and Filipino employees look for more care and sensitivity in their Japanese leader, but this is not what Japanese managers try to achieve. In addition, Japanese managers expect too much from their host country employees. They expect the host country employees to work like their Japanese subordinates. Many managers may not be satisfied with the subordinates who don't work more than they are told to do. This

is related to the concept of job. The managers are discontented with the lack of autonomy and responsibility of the host country employees.

In addition, trading companies' clients are mainly Japanese companies. They have business in Japan and keep the business partnership in the host country. Therefore, the Japanese managers think that they need to do business in a Japanese way, thus cannot fully leave responsibilities to host country employees. Because host country employees are not familiar with Japanese business practices, Japanese managers cannot depend on them. Because the managers don't leave responsibilities to host country employees, the employees cannot be brought up to the level for meeting the managers' expectation. This is a vicious circle. In this sense, the difficulty of training host local employees and Japanese style of business are interrelated. If management would insist Japanese style business and capable host local employees would resign the company owing to this, the company will lose its international competitiveness.

From interviews, turnover rate appeared to be low due to Asian economic recession at the moment when this study took place. However, this does not guarantee to stop future job-hopping. When economic becomes stable again, and if a company is not an attractive workplace, host country employees may start leaving the company again. As explained above, 30% of the companies answered that the job-hopping rate was high at certain group such as young employees and engineers. If the employees are young and capable, or experts on a field, they still can find a better job even under economic recession. Unless companies do something, they cannot keep capable host local employees for other companies, especially western companies.

However, we should consider what localization is once again. If localization is just to give a position to host local employees, it is not too much trouble. Localization does not simply mean transferring positions from Japanese to host country employees. Subsidiaries need to organize management and system in which host country employees can accomplish business goals that Japanese headquarter sets up without Japanese expatriates assistance (Sakuma, 1993).

In addition to localization, there may be other issues that Japanese overseas subsidiaries should take into consideration, such as how to manage female employees. According to the result of this study, female employees were less satisfied than men with their companies. Why did they feel less satisfied comparing to male employees? One possible reason may be promotion. Table 6.1 illustrates the number of employees of the Japanese subsidiaries that joined this study. They are sorted by job type, country, and sex. In both Malaysia and the Philippines, male employees are more likely found at higher positions, while female employees tend to have language-related jobs and secretary positions. This tendency may be related to less satisfaction of female employees toward companies, too. Smith (1996) reports that female employees are more likely assigned to finance, marketing and sales, and administration departments rather than research and production operation functions. She also reports a case about a female Chinese science graduate in a Japanese subsidiary in Malaysia, who was placed in a terminal category as section head in charge of the laboratory, and was not considered for promotion, even though the males recruited with her went on to become engineering and production managers. Japanese overseas subsidiaries have similar organizational structure as the

headquarters in Japan. The problems in the headquarter are in common with those of the subsidiaries.

Moreover, as pointed out at the earlier page in this chapter, communication problems the participants think exist in organization were similar between Malaysians and Filipinos. They picked exactly the same items such as “Management does not know what the employees think” and “Information is not readily available.” The pattern was different from Japanese. Why did Malaysians and Filipinos think that they were not well informed by management or others? It is more natural to think that Japanese companies have similar environment across host countries than that Malaysians and Filipinos are culturally similar or subordinates are similar across countries, in which information does not flow well among employees.

Table 6.1 – Number of Employees by Job Type, Country, and Sex

Position	Malaysians		Filipinos	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Manager of other managers	0 (0%)	2 (10%)	2 (4%)	6 (13%)
Manager	3 (19%)	4 (20%)	18 (39%)	22 (49%)
Non-managerial executives	14 (47%)	12 (60%)	6 (13%)	14 (31%)
General staff	9 (30%)	2 (10%)	2 (4%)	3 (6%)
Language related	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	7 (15%)	0 (0%)
Secretary	3 (10%)	0 (0%)	11 (24%)	0 (0%)
Total	30	20	46	45

Management needs to encourage managers and subordinates to exchange information through vital communication. Management should diffuse information across sections and departments and draw up from there, too. When people from different cultures work together, it is essential that management creates a framework or a structure in which management actively communicates management goals and administration operations with employees at an organizational level. At an individual level, each manager needs to be concerned about cultural and relational matters with subordinates.

Suggestions for Malaysian/Filipino Subordinates

Intercultural communication issues at a workplace is not only Japanese managers' responsibilities, but also host local employees' accountability as well. Because intercultural communication is a two-way process, it is not enough for one to acquire intercultural communication skills. There are three main points that host country employees might want to consider.

First, to some extent, they need to be conscious that they are working for a Japanese company or with Japanese bosses and colleagues. Working for a Japanese company is their choice. They need to be prepared that Japanese managers will be different from Malaysian and Filipino managers. Keeping the idea that they are working together with people from different cultures in their mind is the first step.

Second, when they find something wrong or they don't understand with Japanese managers, they have to actively ask for information and explanation from Japanese managers. For example, scolding a subordinate in front of others is not unusual at Japanese companies. This used to be a serious problem in overseas subsidiaries and it still is. There were many host country employees who left Japanese companies due to these

Japanese managers' behavior and there are still some. Scolding someone in front of others is severely damaging one's face in many Asian cultures such as Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. There was a case like this reported at a company when I was interviewing for the current research. A manager yelled at a subordinate and the subordinate quit the company. Managers have to know the cultural norm that they cannot shout at subordinates in public. If some managers are insensible, subordinates need to appeal to the managers.

Third, as stated above, being culturally and relationally sensitive is also required for subordinates, too. Listening to bosses, as they want the bosses to listen to them is important. However, this is not a one-way communication. As previously discussed, even if one subordinate becomes a culturally competent communicator, this won't change the whole organization. Organization system needs to change as well as both managers and subordinates individually change.

Implications for Future Research

Among the Japanese overseas subsidiaries investigated in the present study, Japanese were mostly superiors and Malaysians and Filipinos were mostly subordinates. The current study only focused on the ongoing communication issues between Japanese managers and Malaysian/Filipino subordinates in Malaysia and the Philippines. Hence, it was the out of focus to look at the relationship between Japanese managers and Japanese subordinates. However, focusing only on Japanese managers and host national employees could not clearly conclude that the perception differences were caused simply by cultural difference or possibly by status difference. Looking at Japanese manager-subordinate relationships will be helpful to clear out this problem. This will be the next research

project. In addition, the present study only looked at Japanese-Malaysians and Japanese-Filipinos relationships. Thus, it cannot generalize about other countries.

Concerning methodological issues, due to time and financial constraints, the present study only examined participants based on questionnaires and a small number of interviews. The questionnaire was administered both to Japanese and Malaysians/Filipinos and it was written in English. Thus, it could exclude the translation problems and provide the same quality with both managers and subordinates. Looking at communication issues and leadership styles at points of both managers and subordinates was worthwhile. However, interviews were conducted only with Japanese managers. Talking with them gave me insights for the real workplace scene. Interviewing the subordinates could strengthen this study.

Concluding Remarks

Japanese multinational corporations have relocated Japanese managers to overseas subsidiaries. Overseas subsidiaries belong to a parent company in Japan, but don't have a strong tie to host country employees. Japanese managers come and go between a parent company and overseas subsidiaries. They are expected to achieve a goal. From the perspective of host country employees, overseas subsidiaries are not considered a part of the parent company because they as employees have no chance to actively take part in the mainstream business of a parent company.

Japanese companies, however, have globalized. Leading companies like Toyota have finally begun "global human resource management." Host country subordinates will be given opportunities to be a part of entire corporation, not just a member of a subsidiary. This will allow Japanese and host country managers to pursue the same career

paths, have the same levels of job security, and receive the same types of training and fringe benefits. When this system starts working, managers can show clear, alternative career paths to subordinates.

Global resource management will be a driving force for managers and subordinates to change their communication and work relationships. At the same time, it will inevitably plunge corporations into intercultural communication issues. Managers have avoided these issues, but will now have to face them. They need to make efforts to communicate more efficiently when working with subordinates from different cultures. The real stimuli for change in organizations are people – the managers and subordinates who, together, determine the fate of the organization and, hence, of themselves.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Leader-Subordinate Communication Survey (For Leaders)

The purpose of this survey is to examine communication styles of Filipinos/Malaysians and Japanese at work. The data obtained in this survey will be statistically processed. Your name and responses will be kept strictly confidential. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Your cooperation in completing the survey will be appreciated greatly. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Nebashi, Reiko
Rikkyo University

A. Please answer the followings questions about your behaviors as a superior.

1. What extent do you do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (to a very little extent) to 5 (to a very large extent).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. You are strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. You generally support your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. You trust your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. You treat your subordinates fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

3. In what manner do you do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very implicitly) to 5 (very explicitly).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. You are strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. You generally support your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. You trust your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. You treat your subordinates fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

4. In what manner do you want to do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very implicitly) to 5 (very explicitly).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. You are strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. You generally support your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. You trust your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. You treat your subordinates fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

5. Do you feel any problem or difficulty to practice the following behaviors to your subordinates? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. You are strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. You generally support your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. You trust your subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. You treat your subordinates fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

6. Do you think the following behaviors motivate your subordinates to work? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. You are strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality.					
7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work.	1	2	3	4	5
8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month.	1	2	3	4	5
9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. You generally support your subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5
12. You trust your subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well.	1	2	3	4	5
14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it.	1	2	3	4	5
15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises.	1	2	3	4	5
16. You treat your subordinates fairly.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Do you think the following behaviors are important for an efficient leader? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

1. You are strict about observing regulations.	1	2	3	4	5
2. You give your subordinates proper instructions and orders.	1	2	3	4	5
3. You are strict about the amount of work that your subordinates do.	1	2	3	4	5
4. You urge your subordinates to complete their work by the time s/he has specified.	1	2	3	4	5
5. You try to make your subordinates' work to their maximum capacity.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When your subordinate does an inadequate job, you focus on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on his/her personality.	1	2	3	4	5
7. You ask your subordinates for reports about the progress of their work.	1	2	3	4	5
8. You precisely work out plans for goal achievement each month.	1	2	3	4	5
9. You talk freely with your subordinates about their work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. You generally support your subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
11. You are concerned about your subordinates' personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5
12. You trust your subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
13. You give your subordinates recognition when they do their job well.	1	2	3	4	5
14. When a problem arises in your workplace, you ask your subordinates' opinion about how to solve it.	1	2	3	4	5
15. You are concerned about your subordinates' future benefits like promotions and pay raises.	1	2	3	4	5
16. You treat your subordinates fairly.	1	2	3	4	5

B. Please select from the following list three items about things that most concern you when communicating with your subordinates. Please write the number 1, 2, and 3.

- _____ 1. Making sure of what my subordinate means
- _____ 2. Defining words what my subordinate uses
- _____ 3. Asking for more explanation from my subordinate
- _____ 4. Using metaphors and examples to state my ideas and opinions
- _____ 5. Using visual aids to tell my idea and opinion
- _____ 6. Reading my subordinate's ideas and opinions by his/her facial expression
- _____ 7. Reading my subordinate's ideas and opinions by his/her gestures
- _____ 8. Reading my subordinate's ideas and opinions by his/her mood
- _____ 9. Judging what my subordinate means by context
- _____ 10. Asking for more information from someone else, not my subordinate
- _____ 12. Other (specify: _____)

C. In this series of questions we would like you to describe how your subordinate communicates. Think about his/her behavior in general rather than about specific situations. Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My subordinate has a good command of English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My subordinate is sensitive to others' needs of the moment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My subordinate typically gets right to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My subordinate pays attention to what other people say to him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My subordinate can deal with others effectively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. My subordinate is a good listener. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. My subordinate's writing is difficult to understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. My subordinate expresses his or her ideas clearly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My subordinate is difficult to understand when he or she speaks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. My subordinate generally says the right things at the right time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. My subordinate is easy to talk to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. My subordinate usually responds to message
(memos, phone calls, reports, etc.) quickly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

D. Please answer the followings questions about information in your company.

1. How much information about your work and organization do you get now from your immediate subordinate?

Very little 1 2 3 4 5 Very much

2. When receiving information from your immediate subordinate, how accurate would you estimate it usually is?

Completely inaccurate 1 2 3 4 5 Completely accurate

3. Of the total amount of information you receive at work, how much do you pass on to your immediate subordinate

None 1 2 3 4 5 All

4. I get enough information to understand the big picture here.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

5. When changes are made the reasons why are made clear.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

6. I get the information I need to do my job well.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

7. Please select from the following list **three items** about things that worst defects in communication of your organization. Please write the number **1, 2, and 3.**

- _____ 1. Information is not readily available.
- _____ 2. Information reaches me too late.
- _____ 3. Information does not reach me.
- _____ 4. Information is not accurate.
- _____ 5. Information is useless.
- _____ 6. Information is not important.
- _____ 7. The language in information material is difficult.
- _____ 8. I get too much information.
- _____ 9. Management conceals important information.
- _____ 10. Management does not know what the employees think and feel.
- _____ 11. I cannot express my opinion freely in my organization.
- _____ 12. My opinions do not count and nobody listens to what I say.
- _____ 13. Other (specify: _____)

E. Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following. Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Extent to which my subordinates are responsive to downward directive communication | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Extent to which I do not have a communication overload | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to evaluation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to suggestions, and criticisms | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to criticisms | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Extent to which my subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate upward communication | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Extent to which my subordinates trust me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My own leadership | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

10. If the communication associated with your subordinates could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how:

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Extent to which this company's communication motivates and stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting its goals | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Extent to which the people in my company have great ability as communicators | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Extent to which the company's communication makes me feel a vital part of it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Extent to which the company's communications are interesting | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Extent to which the company's communications are helpful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Extent to which informal communication is active | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Extent to which the amount of communication in the company is about right | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

18. If the communication in your organization could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how:

F. Please answer the following questions about you and your company.

1. Sex: Female Male

2. Age: _____

3. Nationality: _____

4. Type of industry of your company: Please circle an appropriate number.

Manufacturing Industry

1. Electrical & Electronic Products
2. Steel & Nonferrous Metal Products
3. Petroleum & Chemical Products
4. Transportation Machinery & Parts
9. Other

(Please specify _____)

Non-Manufacturing Industry

11. Trading
12. Construction
13. Commerce/Retail
14. Transportation
15. Bank & Security
99. Other

(Please specify _____)

5. The number of employees in your company: Please circle an appropriate number.

- | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. Less than 50 | 2. 50 to 99 | 3. 100 to 299 |
| 4. 300 to 999 | 5. More than 1000 | 9. I don't know. |

6. How long have you been working with this company? _____years _____months

7. How long have you been working with the current subordinates?
_____years _____months

8. What is your type of work? Please circle an appropriate number.

I am a manager (that is, I have at least one hierarchical subordinate),

1. a manager of people who are not managers themselves.
2. a manager of other managers.

I am not a manager and I work most of the time in an office,

3. teaching language and/or translating documents in an office.
4. as an executive who supervises workers in an office.

I am not a manager and I do not work most of the time in an office;

5. I am an executive who supervises workers in a place other than an office.

9. Other (Please specify _____)

9. How many years of formal school education did you complete in your country?

Please circle one and write the number of years. If you were educated in another country, please circle 9 and specify.

1. _____ years in my country

9. _____ years in my country and _____ years in the foreign
country (name _____)

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Leader-Subordinate Communication Survey (For Subordinates)

The purpose of this survey is to examine communication styles of Filipinos and Japanese at work. The data obtained in this survey will be statistically processed. Your name and responses will be kept strictly confidential. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Your cooperation in completing the survey will be appreciated greatly. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Nebashi, Reiko
Rikkyo University

A. Please answer the following questions about your leader's behaviors.

1 What extent does your superior do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (to a very little extent) to 5 (to a very large extent).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2. Are you positive/neutral/negative towards the following behaviors of your superior? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very negative) to 5 (very positive).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

3. In what manner does your superior do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very implicitly) to 5 (very explicitly).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

4. In what manner do you want your superior to do the following behaviors? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very implicitly) to 5 (very explicitly).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

5. Do you feel any problem or difficulty with the following behaviors of your superior? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

6. Does each of the following behaviors generally motivate you to work? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement each month. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

7. Do you think the following behaviors are important for an efficient leader? Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much).

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Your superior is strict about observing regulations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Your superior gives you proper instructions and orders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Your superior is strict about the amount of work that you do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Your superior urges you to complete your work by the time he has specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Your superior tries to make you work to your maximum capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. When you do an Inadequate job, your superior focuses on the inadequate way the job is done instead of on your personality. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Your superior asks you for reports about the progress of your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Your superior precisely works out plans for goal achievement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

each month.

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. You can talk freely with your superior about your work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Your superior generally supports you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Your superior is concerned about your personal problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Your superior trusts you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Your superior gives you recognition when you do your job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. When a problem arises in your workplace, your superior asks your opinion about how to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Your superior is concerned about your future benefits like promotions and pay raises. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Your superior treats you fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

B. Please select from the following list three items about things that most concern you when communicating with your superior. Please write the number 1, 2, and 3.

- _____ 1. Making sure of what my superior means
- _____ 2. Defining words what my superior uses
- _____ 3. Asking for more explanation from my superior
- _____ 4. Using metaphors and examples to state my ideas and opinions
- _____ 5. Using visual aids to tell my idea and opinion
- _____ 6. Reading my superior's ideas and opinions by his/her facial expression
- _____ 7. Reading my superior's ideas and opinions by his/her gestures
- _____ 8. Reading my superior's ideas and opinions by his/her mood
- _____ 9. Judging what my superior means by context
- _____ 10. Asking for more information from someone else, not my superior
- _____ 12. Other (specify: _____)

C. In this series of questions we would like you to describe how your superior communicates. Think about his/her behavior in general rather than about specific situations. Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My superior has a good command of English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My superior is sensitive to others' needs of the moment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My superior typically gets right to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My superior pays attention to what other people say to him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My superior can deal with others effectively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. My superior is a good listener. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. My superior's writing is difficult to understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. My superior expresses his or her ideas clearly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My superior is difficult to understand when he or she speaks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. My superior generally says the right things at the right time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. My superior is easy to talk to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. My superior usually responds to message (memos, phone calls, reports, etc.) quickly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

D. Please answer the followings questions about information in your company.

1. How much information about your work and organization do you get now from your immediate superior?

Very little 1 2 3 4 5 Very much

2. When receiving information from your immediate superior, how accurate would you estimate it usually is?

Completely inaccurate 1 2 3 4 5 Completely accurate

3. Of the total amount of information you receive at work, how much do you pass on to your immediate superior

None 1 2 3 4 5 All

4. I get enough information to understand the big picture here.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

5. When changes are made the reasons why are made clear.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

6. I get the information I need to do my job well.

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Very much so

7. Please select from the following list **three items** about things that worst defects in communication of your organization. Please **write the number 1, 2, and 3.**

- _____ 1. Information is not readily available.
- _____ 2. Information reaches me too late.
- _____ 3. Information does not reach me.
- _____ 4. Information is not accurate.
- _____ 5. Information is useless.
- _____ 6. Information is not important.
- _____ 7. The language in information material is difficult.
- _____ 8. I get too much information.
- _____ 9. Management conceals important information.
- _____ 10. Management does not know what the employees think and feel.
- _____ 11. I cannot express my opinion freely in my organization.
- _____ 12. My opinions do not count and nobody listens to what I say.
- _____ 13. Other (specify: _____)

E. Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following. Please circle an appropriate number ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Extent to which my superior knows the problems faced by subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Extent to which my superior understands the problems faced by subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Extent to which my superior listens and pays attention to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Extent to which my superior offers guidance for solving job related problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Extent to which my superior trusts me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Extent to which my superior is open to ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Extent to which my superior supervises our work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. My superior as a leader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

10. If the communication associated with your superior could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how:

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Extent to which this company's communication motivates and stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting its goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Extent to which the people in my company have great ability as communicators. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Extent to which the company's communication makes me feel a vital part of it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Extent to which the company's communications are interesting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Extent to which the company's communications are helpful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Extent to which informal communication is active. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Extent to which the amount of communication in the company is about right. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

18. If the communication in your organization could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how:

F. Please answer the following questions about you and your company.

1. Sex: Female Male
2. Age: _____
3. Ethnicity: _____

4. Type of industry of your company: Please circle an appropriate number.

Manufacturing Industry

- 1. Electrical & Electronic Products
- 2. Steel & Nonferrous Metal Products
- 3. Petroleum & Chemical Products
- 4. Transportation Machinery & Parts
- 9. Other

(Please specify)

Non-Manufacturing Industry

- 11. Trading
- 12. Construction
- 13. Commerce/Retail
- 14. Transportation
- 15. Bank & Security
- 99. Other

(Please specify)

5. The number of employees in your company: Please circle an appropriate number.

- 1. Less than 50
- 2. 50 to 99
- 3. 100 to 299
- 4. 300 to 999
- 5. More than 1000
- 9. I don't know.

6. How long have you been working with this company? _____ years _____ months

7. How long have you been working with the current superior? _____ years _____ months

8. What is your type of work? Please circle an appropriate number.

I am a manager (that is, I have at least one hierarchical subordinate),

- 1. a manager of people who are not managers themselves.
- 2. a manager of other managers.

I am not a manager and I work most of the time in an office,

- 3. teaching language and/or translating documents in an office.
- 4. as an executive who supervises workers in an office.

I am not a manager and I do not work most of the time in an office;

- 5. I am an executive who supervises workers in a place other than an office.

9. Other (Please specify)

9. How many years of formal school education did you complete in your country?

Please circle one and write the number of years. If you were educated in another country, please circle 9 and specify.

1. _____ years in my country

9. _____ years in my country and _____ years in the foreign country (name)

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