

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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The purpose of the study was to investigate cultural differences in leadership perceptions for effective management in the U.S. and Japan. Hofstede's framework of cultural dimensions was utilized to find out the differences in the Leadership Perception Questionnaires. 128 American participants from 17 industries in the U.S. were compared with 203 Japanese participants from 34 industries in Japan. Results indicated that American scores were more homogeneous than Japanese scores, and the American participants scored higher on most of the items of the Leadership Perception Questionnaire, regardless of the cultural dimensions. Exploratory studies revealed that American participants perceived personality characteristics as more important for leadership, whereas Japanese participants felt skills and behaviors were more important for leadership. Some of the implications for research and application of cross-cultural leadership were discussed.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Japanese industries have dramatically changed over the past decade because of the economic downturn after the collapse of the bubble economy, technological advancement, and international competition (Dedoussis & Czerkowski, 2000). Japanese markets have been forced into deregulation by economic pressures from other nations. This has resulted in foreign industries entering into the Japanese market. Additionally, technological developments have accelerated globalization and international competition. These factors have increased the number of foreign-affiliated companies in Japan as well as in other countries, producing many international assignees. Also, since Japanese industries mostly trade with the U.S., American managers could have more Japanese subordinates in Japan and the U.S. It could also be that Japanese managers have American subordinates as well. Interestingly, cultural differences are more remarkable in multinational organizations than in native organizations, namely the organizational cultures could enhance the national cultural differences (Adler, 1997). That is to say, the multinational organizations have more various employees based on their cultural values than native organizations have. This means that American managers or subordinates have more American characteristics in the multinational companies than they have in the native

companies, and their Japanese counterparts have more Japanese characteristics. Obviously, this could cause more conflicts in multinational organizations than in the native organizations. Therefore, clarifying cultural differences is crucial for a diverse workforce.

The current study attempts to investigate the differences between American and Japanese perceptions of leadership. The cultural differences across these two countries have been demonstrated by a series of Hofstede's studies about work-related values (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). His studies indicated that work-related values are different in five dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity vs. Femininity, and Long vs. Short-term Orientation (Hofstede, 2001). Power distance refers to "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p. 419). Uncertainty Avoidance refers to "the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations, and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these" (Hofstede & Bond, p. 419). Individualism is defined as "a situation in which people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate family only" (Hofstede & Bond, p. 419). On the other hand, Collectivism refers to "a situation in which people belong to in-groups or collectivities which are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty" (Hofstede & Bond, p. 419). Masculinity is defined as "a situation in which the dominant values in

society are success, money, and things” (Hofstead & Bond, p. 419). Femininity refers to “a situation in which the dominant values in society are caring for others and the quality of life” (Hofstead & Bond, p. 419). Long-term Orientation is defined as “the extent to which a culture programs its members to accept delayed gratification of their material, social, and emotional needs” (Hofstead & Bond, p. 419). Short-term orientation, on the other hand, is “a culture that focuses more on meeting immediate goals and needs” (Hofstead & Bond, p. 419).

These different values also make leadership characteristics differ (Hofstede, 2001). For example, in individualist countries, leaders are expected to carry responsibility for their own tasks. Also, cultural differences affect individuals’ perceptions of leadership (Shaw, 1990). According to this, foreign leaders or subordinates might think of and expect certain characteristics of leaders differently, because of their different values. Actually, incongruencies in perceptions between foreign leaders and subordinates are common reasons why many expatriate leaders, as well as leaders in general, fail to find success in their assignments (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Martinko & Douglas, 1999). Also, managerial conflicts tend to exist at unequal levels, such as between leaders and subordinates, compared to more equal levels, like coworkers (Yu, 1995).

The present study will help employees, who have leaders from the U.S. or Japan,

to understand that there are differences between what subordinates think of their leaders and how leaders think of them themselves. Moreover, leaders can also understand what their subordinates consider and expect, and how different their perceptions of leadership is from the other. This study would help to avoid cultural conflicts between American and Japanese workers. Further, the cultural aspects in the perception of leadership can also be applied to other countries beyond the U.S. and Japan.

The present study attempts to show the differences of leadership perceptions between the U.S. and Japan. Because of the cross-cultural study, it is inevitable to contrast the cultural differences between these countries. The research demonstrated some of the potential factors that could influence the individual perceptions of leadership by showing how the cultural differences affect social systems, individual values, and communication styles. Also, it discovered the relation between individual perceptions and leadership styles to know how important the individual perceptions of leaders would affect the leaders and leadership styles. Finally, it discussed how the cultural values affect the individual perception about leaders.

Literature Review

Cultures and Values

Adler (1997) defined culture as something that is shared among majority

members of some social group, something that others try to pass on to the younger members, and something that is regarded as a standard to choose appropriate behaviors or to structure one's perception of the world, such as morals, laws and customs. Culture determines a standard of individual perceptions to make all decisions within the group (Ballard & Kleiner, 1988). The standard is a value. The value always affects individual attitudes (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996) about forming appropriate and effective behavior in societies to which members belong (Adler, 1997). In short, when decisions meet the values within a society, they are regarded as right, and accepted by members. That is why the values affect corporate strategies, and managerial values affect all forms of organizational behavior, including selection and reward systems; supervisors/subordinate relationships; and group behavior, communication, leadership, and conflict management styles (Adler, 1997).

Therefore, it is critical to investigate cultural values when comparing individual perceptions. Hofstede (2001) is well known among cross-cultural researchers. His broad studies highlighted the cultural differences across numerous countries in the world. His study forms a basis to compare Japanese and American cultures in this study. As mentioned earlier, his study categorized cultural values into five dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity vs. Femininity, and Long

vs. Short-term Orientation (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Bond, 1984). Exploring and contrasting these dimensions would help to generate knowledge and gain an understanding of characteristics of each dimension.

Power Distance. Hofstede (1983) argues that no society has ever reached complete equality. Nevertheless, some cultures are more unequal than others. He found a global relationship between the power distance and collectivism. Collectivist countries always show large power distances, while individualist countries always show small power distances.

Uncertainty Avoidance. Adler (1997) points out some characteristics of uncertainty avoidance countries. Lifetime employment is more common in countries high in uncertainty avoidance, such as Japan, Portugal, and Greece. On the other hand, high job mobility occurs more commonly in the low uncertainty avoidance countries, such as Singapore, Hong Kong, and Denmark. The U.S has high job mobility, and ranks relatively low on uncertainty avoidance (Adler, 1997; Hall & Hall, 1989). Countries that rank low on both power distance and uncertainty avoidance tend to show that their organizations have little hierarchy, that is, everybody talks with everyone else, and they expect and encourage risk taking. High power distance and low uncertainty avoidance countries, such as Singapore and Philippines, tend to regard their organizations as traditional families. For

instance, employers protect their employees like the father of their family would. And, the employers, in turn, expect their employees' loyalty. However, employees in countries such as the former Yugoslavia and Mexico, which are in the high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance categories, tend to consider their organizations as a hierarchy instead of viewing them as a family. For instance, the communication lines are clear so that everyone knows who they should contact. This communication structure allows them to avoid uncertainty by emphasizing who has authority over whom. In high uncertainty avoidance and low power distance countries, such as Israel and Austria, organizations are likely to be highly predictable without needing a strong hierarchy.

Individualism/Collectivism. According to Hofstede (1983), in individualism societies, everybody is supposed to look after his or her own self interest and the interest of his or her immediate family. On the other hand, people in collectivism societies tend to extend their family or in-group to include grandparents, uncles and aunts, their tribe, and/or their village. Also, collectivism societies show that everyone is supposed to look after the interest of his or her in-group and to have no other opinions and beliefs than the opinions and beliefs of their in-group (Hofstede, 1983).

Chen, Chen, and Meindl (1998) clearly state that the major differences between individualists and collectivists are that they follow different rationalities: the individual

and the collective. That is to say, individual rationality dictates doing what is in one's own best interest. On the other hand, collective rationality dictates the pursuit of group goals and values. In addition, the expressive motives of individualists center around actualizing the true or potential self. Therefore, concepts such as individuality, autonomy, independence, self-direction, self-reliance, self-fulfillment, and self-actualization are valued (Chen et al., 1998; Hofstede, 1983). The collectivist's expressive motives center around dedication of self to the collective. Therefore, concepts such as self-discipline, self-restraint, loyalty, solidarity, and sociality are valued (Chen et al., 1998; Hofstede, 1983). Finally, they propose five sets of contrasting cooperation mechanisms for individualists and collectivists: (a) goal interdependence versus goal sharing, (b) personal identity versus affect-based trust, (c) individual accountability and social pressure control, (d) partial versus full-channel communication, and (e) equity-based versus equality-based reward distribution. In addition, many collectivistic cultures use the equality norm more than members of individualistic cultures with in-group, and even with out-group members (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1987).

Triandis (1995) developed a contingent theory of individualism and collectivism. He added the idea of self, which can be grouped into independent or interdependent, and same or different, to the concept of individualism and collectivism. He broke down

individualism and collectivism into horizontal individualism (HI), horizontal collectivism (HC), vertical individualism (VI), and vertical collectivism (VC). The HI means that individuals are independent and equal, because they have a sense of social cohesion and of oneness with members of the in-group. The HC means that individuals are interdependent, unlike HI, similar as HI. The VI means that individuals are independent and unequal because of a sense of serving the in-group and sacrificing for the benefit of the in-group and doing one's duty. And, the VC means that individuals are interdependent, unlike VI and unequal, similar to VI. Triandis further argued that every human has all traits, and they arise depending on the situation.

Triandis, Chen, and Chan (1998) measured these four conditions with undergraduate students from collectivism countries in the U.S. and undergraduate students in Hong Kong. As a result, international students from collectivism countries were very high in HI and somewhat high in HC; the Hong Kong students were very high in HC and somewhat high in HI. One implication of this study is that individual cultural values may be influenced by environmental factors. That is to say, people who have collectivism traits could be altered when they are exposed to individual cultures, or vice versa.

Masculinity vs. Femininity. Hofstede (1983) states that in masculine societies, traditional masculine social values permeate the whole society, even in the thinking of the

women. These values include the importance of showing off, of performing, of achieving something visible, of making money, and of perceiving that big is good. In more feminine societies, the dominant values for both men and women are those which are more traditionally associated with the feminine role: not showing off, putting relationships with people before money, minding the quality of life and the preservation of the environment, helping others (particularly the weak) and small is good (Hofstede, 1983). Gudykunst and Nishida (1987) state that cultures high in masculinity differentiate sex roles clearly; whereas, cultures low in masculinity or high in femininity tend to have fluid sex roles. This is also related to intimacy with the opposite sex. That is to say, it is rarer for members in a high masculinity culture to have close relationships with the opposite sex than for members in a low masculinity culture (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1987).

Long vs. Short-term Orientation. There is little research about this dimension.

Hall and Hall (1989) argue that Americans' time and consciousness are fixed in the present, namely, they do not want to wait, and they want results now. However, Japanese take more time to reach decisions (Hall & Hall, 1989).

In this way, individual values reflect each culture, affect individual behaviors and attitudes, and these cultural differences could be seen over and above the professional culture (Merritt, 2000). Of course, cultural values could be influenced by occupational

contexts. In short, occupations that are in high-risk and high-technology environment, such as pilots, surgical teams, and nuclear power plant personnel, tend to have hierarchical structures in nature and involve teams of individuals interacting (Merritt, 2000).

Cultural Differences between the U.S. and Japan

The present study compares the leadership perceptions between the U.S. and Japan. Consequently, it is important to overview the cultural differences between both countries to understand their cultural values and how they might affect individual perceptions.

Japanese culture. Japanese culture has been deeply influenced by Chinese culture, like adapting Chinese systems of political and economical administrations, Chinese letters, and religions for Japanese styles. Since the 10th century, Japanese culture has independently developed its own culture based upon what Japanese previously learned from China (Inoue et al., 1986). Japan is a small and isolated island that has little privacy among people, therefore, living and working in harmony has been very important for them to survive in their communities. This has encouraged the Japanese to respect Confucianism, in the same way as respecting parents, ancestors, educators, and superiors. For Japanese leaders, Confucianism is convenient for organizing and managing people, families, and groups, because individuals devote themselves to their authorities under this philosophy.

Therefore, most leaders have used Confucianism to control subordinates as a political tool. After World War II, American Allied Forces introduced democracy into politics, economics, religion, philosophy, and education (Inoue et al., 1986). However, Confucianism is still a cultural standard in most organizations and communities, because of the historical reasons mentioned earlier. Thus far, Japan is now a democracy premised on Confucianism. In addition, because Japan is geographically isolated and experienced national isolation twice, the Japanese became highly homogeneous with respect to race, history, language, religion, and culture (Lincoln, Hanada, & McBride, 1986; Ouchi, 1981). These characteristics of the social system lead to unionism and employment practices such as a seniority system and life time employment (Lincoln et al., 1986).

Japanese organizational systems. Ouchi (1981) describes Japanese organizations as offering lifetime employment, slow evaluation and promotion, non-specialized career paths, implicit control mechanisms, collective decision-making and responsibility, and holistic concern. These characteristics of the employment system are from historical and geographical factors, such as Confucianism and homogeneity (Lincoln et al., 1986).

Regarding employment systems, most large organizations operate with this system (Ouchi, 1981). However, since the early 1990s, some major large organizations have encountered bankruptcy, or have been merged, acquired and downsized. And, many organizations have

started using contingent workers as well as full-time, and part-time workers. In addition, they have reduced the number of new recruits, adopted a voluntary retirement system, and transferred people from corporate headquarters to sales and subsidiaries in order to create effective investments (Ishikura & Yip, 1998). These measures lead to breaking the lifetime employment system and affect employees' commitment to organizations. Regarding evaluation and promotion, most Japanese organizations use seniority systems. The order of entering organizations usually determines the order of promotion, even though a worker might exhibit distinguished performance. This also includes other reward systems. Salaries and incentives tend to be based on seniority. Under these systems, no one's pride (face) is hurt by competition, and everyone can relieve himself or herself from the anxiety of being laid off or surpassed by a less-experienced employee. As long as employees show their loyalty to the organization, which means following organizational rules and expectations, they will continue their career path. And they expect to be treated equally to keep their harmony rather than to compete with each other (Chen et al., 1998). This management system is a typical reflection of Confucianism, as mentioned earlier. However, this system has the drawback of excessive costs because organizations equally invest personnel costs to employees regardless their productivity. Recently, many Japanese organizations have changed to the performance-based wage system, and have ceased from overstaffing at the

middle management level (Ishikura & Yip, 1998). In operating seniority systems, new employees commonly start working right after getting a college or university degree. Many large organizations use job rotation systems. In this system, every worker starts with an entry-level job, then he or she experiences several different jobs until promotion, because higher positions require broader ideas and experiences about their own fields (Ouchi, 1981). Japanese workers have networks of collective units, such as departments (*bu*), sections (*ka*), subsection (*kakari*), and work teams (*han*) (Lincoln et al., 1986), instead of having specific positions and roles. These systems have recently turned to the specialized career paths to keep up with rapid social change. Regarding collective decision-making and responsibility, when establishing a new project, all of the project members, their supervisors, and managers have to examine the formal proposals about the project (*ringi*). And the proposals have to have their signatures to prove that everybody has agreement over and responsibility for the project (Lincoln et al., 1986; Ouchi, 1981). This system is notorious for a lot of paper work and being time consuming.

Gordon and Kikuchi (1970) measured a Japanese bureaucratic orientation. They found that Japanese participants showed conformity, recognition in interpersonal values, and practical mindedness and orderliness in personal values. Finally, they discuss that bureaucratic systems depends on organizational characteristics. Moreover, they point out

that Western influences would also affect bureaucratic systems. For example, more Westernized organizations and industries are likely to show less bureaucratic traits.

In this way, Japanese organizational systems basically have characteristics that Ouchi (1981) described; yet they have been somewhat changed by the influence of technological development and globalization (Iwata, 1991).

American cultures. The U.S. is a multiethnic nation, as the name stands for. Since the American continent was discovered, many races and ethnicities have immigrated from various foreign countries. Hall and Hall (1989) mentioned that the population of over 250,000,000 people has ancestors who came from virtually every country in the world. The U.S. was created by these immigrants through a long battle. In this way, American culture is a rich mix of Anglo-Saxon, French, German, Scandinavian, Spanish, Italian, Latin American, Native American, African, Polish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Filipino, Vietnamese, and Arab influences (Hall & Hall, 1989).

According to description of American culture by Hall and Hall (1989), in its early days, the American culture was strongly influenced by the British and other people from northern Europe, such as language, regulations, and business. Even today, around 70% of all business executives in the U.S. are of Northern Europe heritage and the cultural majority of American business is occupied by people in this category. The observable traits

are openness, friendliness, informality, optimism, creativity, loudness, and vitality. In addition, because of the great size and economic power of the country, Americans are likely to be more ethnocentric than other countries. Geographically, the U.S. does not have close foreign neighbors with whom they interact constantly. These natures cause American culture to be a monochronic (concentrating on one thing at a time) and low-context culture.

American organizational systems. As contrasted with Japanese organizations, American organizations have short-term employment, rapid evaluation and promotion, specialized career paths, explicit control mechanisms, individual decision-making, individual responsibility, and segmented concern (Ouchi, 1981). The slowness of formal evaluation and promotion seems wholly unacceptable in the U.S. because Americans feel they deserve rapid feedback and advancement (Hall & Hall, 1989; Ouchi, 1981). These traits come from extreme cultural heterogeneity, political decentralization, and geographic dispersion (Lincoln et al., 1986).

According to Hall and Hall (1989), many Americans find their identity in business or professions and in the civic organizations to which they belong, such as the Rotary, Kiwanis, and P.T.A, because of ethnic diversity and high mobility. Most employees are primarily concerned about their own careers and expect to change jobs and companies if it enhances their opportunities for greater pay, greater recognition, or promotion. It is

common for American employees to change their occupations and to be fired, because employment is always influenced by economic recessions, business failures, and employees' life plans. The management of many American organizations used to be top-down, highly compartmentalized, and linear. However, this feature has given way to a trend toward information-based organizations which emphasize shared information and decentralized control.

The organizational characteristics of both countries are consistent with Hofstede's study in terms of five dimensions. Lincoln and Kallenger (1990) described one example of differences between the two countries, the U.S. and Japan. American employees tend to get together only a few times a year when they are off the work, and subordinates really do not socialize with their superiors (Lincoln & Kallenger). On the other hand, Japanese employees commonly have more social gatherings than Americans, reflecting the Japanese value that develops strong social bonds horizontally and vertically (Lincoln & Kallenger).

Comparison of Japanese and American organizations and management systems.

Lincoln et al. (1986) investigated the differences of organizational structure between Japanese and American manufacturing. They mention that automated and continuous-process American plants tend to show systems similar to Japanese plans, such as tall, finely-graded hierarchies; tasks and responsibilities assigned to groups rather than

individuals; small spans of control, with supervisors functioning as group leaders than bosses; a high ratio of management and staff to production workers; and management by committee and participatory decision making with a high degree of free-flowing communication (Lincoln et al., 1986). Moreover, Theory Z organizations, American organizations resemble Japanese styles, are likely to be successful (Lincoln et al.; Ouchi, 1981). Finally, consistent with other research (Ouchi, 1981), results indicate that Japanese manufacturing organizations have taller hierarchies, less functional specialization, less formal delegation of authority but more de facto participation in decisions at lower levels in the management hierarchy than American organizations (Lincoln et al., 1986).

Hofstede (1983) regards Japan and Germany as Masculine countries with stronger uncertainty avoidance. He interprets that in these countries there is less willingness to take risks, namely, security is a powerful motivator; whereas in the U.S. and Great Britain, which are categorized into the Masculine culture with weak uncertainty avoidance, the management theories appreciate risk taking (Hofstede, 1983).

The present study attempted to identify how these cultural differences affect individual perceptions of leadership. Perceptions should be reflected by images that individuals have through their experiences, observations, and philosophies. Therefore, it is important to compare leadership styles between the U.S. and Japan.

Work related values. Hofstede (2001) conducted paper- and-pencil surveys within subsidiaries of one large multinational business organization (IBM) in 72 countries around 1968 and also around 1972. He used and categorized data of 50 countries and three regions for four dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity vs. Femininity. Referring to Hofstede's study would help to identify the cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan. The results of the Power Distance Index values (PDI) demonstrate that Japanese scores (PDI = 54) were slightly higher than American (PDI = 40); however, compared to other countries ($M = 57$), the differences were not significant. The results of the Uncertainty Avoidance Index Values (UAI) showed high on the Japanese score (UAI = 92), whereas the American score (UAI = 46) was significantly lower than the Japanese score. In total, the Japanese score was also higher than other countries ($M = 65$). The Individualism Index Values (IDV) indicated that the American score (IDV = 91) was higher than Japanese one (IDV = 46). Compared to other scores ($M = 43$), Americans got the highest score. Hofstede (2001) investigates IDV for different organizational cultures and occupations, such as consumer market, pilots across the countries. The result also showed that the U.S. was highest on IDV. The Masculinity Index Values (MAS) indicated that the Japanese (MAS = 95) got a higher score than the Americans (MAS = 62). Compared to others ($M = 49$), the Japanese score was particularly

high. Later, he added one dimension, Short vs. Long-Term Orientation, to the original four dimensions. The Long-Term Orientation Index Values (LTO) for 23 countries showed that Japan (LTO = 80) is higher than the U.S. (LTO = 29). The summary can be seen in Table 1.

To summarize, there are obviously differences of work-related values between the U.S. and Japan in these five dimensions. According to this study, Japanese workers tend to accept the inequity of power, to avoid the uncertainty, to have emotional roles between genders, and to have tolerance for the delayed fulfilling of their material, social, and emotional needs more than American workers. On the other hand, American workers are likely to be more individualistic than the Japanese. Yet these characteristics should not be generalized to every individual within both nations (Hofstede, 1983).

Table 1

Work Value Index for U.S. and Japan

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism/ Collectivism	Masculinity vs. Femininity	Short vs. Long-term Orientation 23 Countries
U.S.	40	46	91	62	23
Japan	54	92	46	95	80
Overall	57 (22)	65 (24)	43 (25)	49 (18)	46 (29)

Note. Data were from Hofstede (2001). Standard deviations are in parentheses.

Fernandez, Carlson, Stepina, and Nicholson (1997) reexamined Hofstede's study (1980). They attempted to expand the cross-cultural research knowledge available on work-related values by considering shifts that have occurred in terms of relative country ranking. They collected the data of the four work-related value dimensions from nine countries in 1989 and 1990. As a result, they found many shifts in country rankings between the time of Hofstede's data collection and their study. In power distance, the U.S. and Japan scored below the mean. In short, both countries have small power distances. Moreover, Americans scored slightly higher than the Japanese, which is inconsistent with Hofstede's study. In uncertainty avoidance, Japan also scored below the mean. Surprisingly, the U.S. scored higher than Japan in this study. They mentioned that the U.S. shifted from being a weak uncertainty avoidance country to being a strong uncertainty avoidance country, because of political, economic, and social changes. Regarding individualism and collectivism, the result was consistent with Hofstede's study and Japan was ranked as collectivist. The mean scores of masculinity vs. femininity also indicated that Japan was more masculine than the U.S. The authors point out that the lower masculine scores for Americans may reflect the current situation of more women in the workplace. Because this study had diverse participants compared to Hofstede's study that chose one single multinational organization, it could draw a more realistic picture of the workforce.

As Fernandez et al. (1997) mentioned, various factors such as technological advancement, globalization, and diversity, could cause cultural characteristics to change, which in turn, could possibly cause greater ambiguity of cultural differences. Many managers believe that organizational culture moderates or erases the influence of national culture (Adler, 1997). However, Hofstede's study (2001) has shown that national culture explained more of the differences than did professional role, age, gender, or race. Also, research showed no statistical evidence that technology, size, and other task contingencies explained the differences between Japan and the U.S. (Lincoln et al., 1986). Moreover, researchers have shown that cultural differences are more remarkable in multinational organizations than in native organizations, namely organizational cultures could enhance national cultural differences (Adler, 1997). This implies that national cultures are stronger on their influence on individual behaviors than organizational cultures.

Gudykunst and Nishida (1987) examined differences between the U.S. and Japan, regarding perceived intimacy of relationship terms (coworker, colleague, and classmate for indicating in-group or out-group culture; lover, fiancé, mate, and spouse for masculinity or femininity culture) and perception of communication behavior associated with relationship terms, based on Hofstede's framework (2001). The results demonstrated that Japanese participants perceived more intimacy with relationship terms related to in-group. On the

other hand, they perceived less intimacy with relationship terms related to sex roles. And the U.S. participants were shown to be more intimate with terms related to family relationships than Japanese participants. Also the data indicated that Japanese participants perceive more personalized communication occurring across relationship terms than the U.S. participants (Gudykunst & Nishida). In an explanation, Gudykunst and Nishida discussed that the uncertainty avoidance dimension influences the expression of emotion in relationships, with more emotion being expressed in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Anonymous (1992) indicated that Japanese office workers reported the least satisfaction with their jobs (17%), whereas American workers reported the highest level of satisfaction (43%) followed by Canadian workers (39%), and EC workers (28%). Also, the study showed that Japanese office workers reported the widest aspiration gaps in the areas of teamwork, the ability to make a significant contribution at work, and job challenge. On the other hand, American office workers reported having the most control over their work. In short, Japanese workers have less initiative than American workers, reflecting high power distance and collectivism characteristics, which is consistent with Hofstede's study.

Communication style. Leaders have to communicate with their subordinates and people that they negotiate with. That is why interpersonal communication skill is one of the

important competencies for managerial positions. If there were any differences in communication styles, leadership behaviors must also be different because receivers would expect their behaviors in a different way. Therefore, comparing communication styles of both countries could help to reveal their leadership perceptions.

Hall (1976) and Hall and Hall (1989) categorized cultures into the range from high-context cultures, which establish a context or relationship first, and low-context cultures, which get business done first. According to his study, Japan is categorized as a high context culture, whereas the U.S. (North America) is categorized as a low-context culture. In short, Japanese culture is likely to establish social trust by valuing personal relations and goodwill, and to reach agreement with the mutual trust, then to negotiate business slowly and ritualistically (Hall, 1976). On the other hand, American culture tends to get down to business by valuing expertise and performances, to reach agreement with specific, and legalistic- contract, then to negotiate business as efficiently as possible (Hall, 1976). Thus far, high-context cultures could prefer indirect communications, and low-context cultures could favor directness (Hall & Hall, 1989; Munter, 1993). Similarly, Rao and Hashimoto (1996) found that the need for direct communication and influence decreases with Japanese employees. That is, Japanese managers tend to think that they do not have to say everything because subordinates will understand.

Reeder (1987) mentioned cultural aspects of saving or losing face. He described that Americans pride themselves on their frankness and honesty. On the other hand, Asians' honesty is mediated by the demands of face. These findings are consistent with Hall's study, in which Americans favor directness, whereas Japanese favor indirectness for their communication (Munter, 1993). In addition, he points out that Asian society is a shame culture, and not a guilt culture. That is to say, Asians measure whether their conduct is shamed or not. On the other hand, Westerners measure their conduct by what they think of themselves. He also discusses that Asians' laughing and smiling are often used for defense of their face. That is to say, when something demeans them or their countries, they cover their upset feelings with smiling and laughing to protect their face (Reeder, 1987).

American leadership and Japanese leadership

Japanese leadership connects with meritocracy such that an elite group dominates the management of Japanese business and government based on educational achievement not ordinarily attained by children from working classes, namely an academic background determines a success in business and government (Bass, 1981). That is why it is common that many people compete for entrance into the better universities in Japan. However, meritocracy has recently been mediated, because organizations have cut off redundant investment for elite groups, and have chosen the skill-based wage.

Rao and Hashimoto (1996) researched Japanese and North American managers regarding leadership, communication, negotiation, and decision-making processes. American negotiators tend to be more direct, specific, explicit, and less formal than Japanese negotiators. Additionally, their negotiating style is a subtle and low-pressure bargaining style, which is very different from that of other Asians. Americans use more punishment-based strategies, reason and explicit rewards. On the other hand, a Japanese manager uses more altruistic strategies than Americans. American managers tend to be more democratic and participative, and Japanese managers are generally more autocratic in managing their subordinates. In terms of communication patterns, Japanese managers had more face-to-face meetings. Although Japanese managers use formal consultative decision-making processes such as *ringi*, Americans often consult others in making decisions.

Valikangas and Okumura (1997) studied two CEO-led change programs in both American and Japanese companies. The authors attempted to describe and contrast the motivational bases of the CEO's change efforts. They also focused on the leader approaches in the two national and organizational contexts. The U.S. study showed that leadership was measured by whether the leadership satisfied enough consequences. In the Japanese study, it was more important whether or not the leadership was based on their

cooperative identity, because Japanese people tended to believe that the cooperative leadership induced particular behavior on the part of the followers. The results indicated that American and Japanese have different expectations of leadership. This leads to the different leadership styles.

Jung and Avolio (1999) studied the effects of two leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and follower's cultural orientation on performing a brainstorming task in group and individual task conditions. The transformational leadership emphasizes the process of building and strengthening followers' commitment to organizational goals and encourages them to achieve those goals, whereas the transactional leadership style enlightens the self-interests of followers and promotes their motivations to achieve the organizational goals by using incentives. Three hundred and forty seven college students (153 Asians and 194 Caucasians) participated in this study. In order to assess transformational and transactional leadership styles, the authors used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X developed by Bass and Avolio in 1997. Also, the participants were divided into two groups to do their tasks. One group was given the group tasks, and the other did the same tasks individually. The results showed that collectivists (which Asian people got higher scores for than Caucasian) generated more ideas with a transformational leader. On the other hand,

individualists (whose data Caucasian demonstrated high) generated more ideas with a transactional leader. Additionally, group performance was generally higher than that of individuals working alone. Moreover, collectivists generated more ideas that required fundamental organizational changes when working alone.

This study shows the importance of congruity between cultural values and leadership styles. In other words, workers in collectivism countries prefer transformational leadership, and they are more involved with decision-making under these leaderships than under transactional leaderships, because collectivists integrate into their groups, and work together with their commitment to the organizations.

These studies show that leadership expectations are likely to be determined by cultural values. People tend to expect leadership behaviors that match with their cultural values. Therefore, differences of cultural values should influence individual perceptions of the leadership.

Leadership strategies. Schmidt and Yeh (1992) examined the structure of leader influence among Australian, English, Japanese and Taiwanese managers. They found that the structure of Taiwanese and Japanese leader influence is more similar to each other than to the Anglo-Saxon cluster of the English and Australians. The results showed that both the Taiwanese and Japanese leader influence structures reflect the association of hard

(assertiveness) and soft (reason) tactics. They point out that the Australians were most similar to the U.S. regarding their emphasis on reasoning and bargaining with subordinates. There are seven predominant tactics American managers tend to use: assertiveness, sanctions, coalitions, upward appeal, reason, exchange, and friendliness (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980). However, Yeh (1995) found that Japanese managers used more bargaining, assertiveness, and upward appeal than Americans, when examining the influence strategies of American and Japanese managers with Taiwanese subordinates.

As they mentioned, this consequence reflects the individualistic culture that Hofstede (2001) demonstrated. However, there are no clear differences between American and Japanese workers in self-reported styles of organizational decision-making, although the Japanese management process has been characterized as consensus-oriented, and the Americans were more autocratic (Wright, 1985).

Richard and Robert (1995) discussed leadership style from a different angle. They found that a Japanese educated CEO tends to promote a corporate/autocratic leadership style. On the other hand, the U.S. educated CEO tends to promote a professional leadership style. Their interpretation indicates corporate style of leadership reflects group orientation. In short, becoming a good group member is achieved through loyalty, conformity and depersonalization. This implies that the elements of autocracy coexist with the corporate

leadership because the depersonalization come from the consequence of compromise involved in consensus decision-making. They also argue that the preference of the U.S. educated CEOs for a professional leadership style clearly reflects their cultural connection, as business schools, company training programs and management texts are heavily weighted towards this approach (Richard & Robert, 1995).

Smith and Whitehead (1984) found that Americans attributed outcomes more to the internal factors of ability and efforts than Indians, and that Indians attributed outcomes more to external power factors (matrimony, corruption, influence of friends/ relative) and the external factors of task difficulty than Americans. Actually, Hofstede (1980) also mentions that participative management approaches, including Theory Y, which were strongly encouraged by American theorists and managers (Adler, 1997), were not suitable for all cultures. Employees in high power distance cultures expect managers to act as strong leaders. They become uncomfortable with leaders delegating discretionary decisions.

To summarize, an academic background is important for Japanese leaders to succeed in business and government, because they are attributed by external factors. Yet American leaders are attributed by internal factors because each person is strongly individual. Thus, they are expected to engage in participative, democratic, and professional

leadership styles. On the other hand, Japanese leaders tended to show a corporate/autocratic leadership style by reflecting the consensus oriented in decision-making. From this view, the American leaders may be more autocratic than the Japanese. Employees in high power distance cultures, such as Japan, expect managers to act as strong leaders because the subordinates feel uncomfortable with discretion.

American leaders could be more direct, specific, explicit, and informal. But they might also be more subtle and low-pressure in their negotiations than Japanese. American leaders also tend to use more punishment-based strategies, reason and explicit rewards. On the other hand, Japanese leaders use more altruistic strategies than Americans. In terms of communication patterns, Japanese leaders use more face-to-face meetings. They could perform more formal consultative decision-making processes, whereas American leaders often consult others in making decisions. An American leadership is measured by consequences. However, Japanese leaders are basically evaluated by how much leaders can show cooperative characteristics to induce particular behavior on the part of the followers. In terms of leadership strategies, American leaders could take tactics of reasoning and bargaining with subordinates. Their main tactics are assertiveness, sanctions, coalitions, upward appeal, reason, exchange, and friendliness. Yet Japanese leaders might use more bargaining, assertiveness and upward appeal than Americans toward subordinates from the

different culture. In this way, there are differences between Japanese and American leadership, regarding strategies, communication, and decision-making (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996).

Relation between Perception and Leadership

Adler (1997) defined that perception as the process by which individuals select, organize, and evaluate stimuli from the external environment to provide meaningful experiences for themselves. And he stated that perception is determined by individual experiences and cultural background. The perceptions influence individual behaviors. For instance, a manager that has good prototypes underlying traits such as leadership or intelligence may be able to project an image that will connote effective leadership or intelligence to most perceivers (Lord & Smith, 1983).

Attribution theory. Attribution theory has been applied to several topics of concern to organizational researches: (a) supervisors' reactions to subordinates' performance, (b) the effects of performance feedback on a variety of perceptions, (c) the influence of performance on perceptions, (d) the influence of performance feedback on leadership ascription or perceptions of leadership behavior, and (e) the relationship between attributions internal factors and intrinsic motivation (Lord & Smith, 1983)

Pfeffer (1977) argued that leadership is attributed by observers. In short, a society

identifies certain roles as leadership positions, and this guides the construction of meaning in the direction of attributing effects to the actions of those positions. In other words, individual perceptions may reflect leadership.

Lord and Smith (1983) mentioned that attribution theory has been used to understand causality for a specific event, to assess responsibility for a particular outcome, or to assess the personal qualities of persons involved in the event being considered. Individuals always tend to consider the reasons for somebody's behavior in order to understand him or her. These reasons should be reflected by the cultural norm and standard, namely values. Therefore, if there were cultural differences in individual values, the leadership attributions could be different from each other.

Individuals use three primary sources of information for developing causal attributions: consensus, consistency and distinctiveness (Kelley, 1973). Consensus information is comparing the individual behaviors to others in the same situation and addresses the issue of whether or not his or her behaviors are typical or unique compared to others in the same situation (Martinko & Douglas, 1999). Consistency information is used when comparing the individual behaviors over time within the same situational context (Martinko & Douglas). Distinctiveness information is used to compare the individual behaviors across contexts (Martinko & Douglas). McArthur (1976) compared the effect of

consensus and distinctiveness information on causal attribution. He found that

- (a) distinctiveness information carries more weight than consensus information;
- (b) distinctiveness information tends to be strongest when it pertains to things;
- (c) consensus information is strongest when it pertains to persons; and (d) agents are more often seen as causes than targets. This implies that people tend to use consensus information to explain and understand events around persons. Additionally, as Cynthia (1999) mentioned, people's implicit theories of leadership represent their preconceptions about what leaders are like (traits), what leaders do (behaviors), and what happens as a result of leadership (causality). Many researchers have assumed that people rely on observed behaviors and inferred traits to evaluate their leaders (Cynthia).

Cynthia (1999) attempted to demonstrate the effect of context on perceptions of potential leaders. She found that perceptions of potential leaders, not only incumbent leaders, reflect the present performance of groups in what group members think about their leaders, and in what they expect of their leaders, based on their beliefs, philosophies, and so on. According to Cynthia, leadership perception is a type of person perception, and it is complex because it involves attention, processing and interpretation, encoding, retrieval, and judgement. She also argued that the most basic person perception operates completely unconsciously-from attention through judgment. For example, it is like stereotyping based

on age, sex, and race-categories whose members can be identified by physical features that are unambiguous compared with the behavioral and trait-based features needed to identify a leader. In short, most person perception, including leadership perception, operates through some combination of conscious and unconscious processes (Cynthia).

Applying attribution theory, leaders should evaluate themselves by comparing themselves to other leaders as well as to how members evaluate their leaders. That is to say, perceptions that leaders and subordinates have reflect the images that they hold about leaders from comparing themselves or their leaders with other leaders. However, there has been relatively little discussion or analysis of the impact of culture on the attributional process from the perspective of leader-member relations when the leader and members are from differing cultures (Martinko & Douglas, 1999).

Cronshaw and Lord (1987) examined the impact of categorization and attribution on the formation of leadership perceptions. They found that categorization is the primary process determining leadership perceptions rather than attribution. That is to say, certain remarkable features or behaviors of the leader limit searching for the category prototype, which is a set of characteristics possessed by most category members, and matches those features or behaviors. This study implies that the leadership perceptions are formed by categories of leaders' characteristics.

In summary, the individual perceptions are determined based on a person's experiences and cultural background. And, observer's perception could affect leadership because the society creates leadership positions and roles. This in turn leads observers to have certain beliefs of leadership by categorizing their leadership perceptions. Actually, categorizing and stereotyping commonly cause cross-cultural misinterpretations during the process of making sense out of perception (Adler, 1997).

According to Martinko and Douglas (1999), many studies have documented differences in attributions among cultures, and differences in self-serving and actor-observer attributional biases between leaders and subordinates. They argue that the expatriate assignment is likely to fail when the problems become serious in terms of making adjustments to different cultures and of accepting a new managerial position. In order to resolve these problems, it is important to improve perceptions and to be aware of self-behavior as well as the others' behavior. This is the reason why attribution training is often used to develop the perceptual skills necessary to be successful in an expatriate position (Martinko & Douglas). An attributional perspective can help explain the incongruencies in perceptions that sometimes occur when leaders and members from different cultures interact.

Singer (1989) studied individual differences in leadership aspirations within the

theoretical frameworks of the valence model, the self-efficacy model, and attribution theory. He found that individuals with high leadership aspirations and self-efficacy expectations could be effective leaders, especially when they believe in their leadership competence. Also, the result indicated that there are no differences in individual perceptions of the importance of external leadership attributions. This means that individual internal characteristics, such as leadership aspirations and self-efficacy expectations, could affect effective leadership more than individual perceptions of the importance of external leadership attributions. In short, their aspiration and self-efficacy could lead individuals to desirable leadership more than their awareness of effective leadership. If the aspiration and self-efficacy of leadership affects effective leaders, individuals who become leaders should have some reasons why they want to become leaders, and should have some visions of how they perceive leadership. That is to say, higher levels of self-efficacy lead individuals to persist at imitating modeled behavior longer and to be more willing to try to imitate novel behavior (Bandura, 1977).

Black and Mendenhall (1990) utilized the social learning theory to build a theoretical framework of the effectiveness of cross-cultural training. According to their empirical studies, individual differences, namely internal locus of control, might impact the effectiveness of training. This would lead to having higher efficacy and outcome

expectations. When these factors and motivations created by an internal locus of control encourage trainees to labor harder during training, the training becomes more effective. In short, the efficacy, outcome expectations, and motivations lead trainees to go through the process of the social learning theory (attention, retention, and reproduction) to learn the modeled behavior. The incentives are also important to urge trainees to attempt these states. Their study clearly discusses that how people can be motivated to model on someone and someone's behaviors by internal locus of control, self-efficacy and outcome expectations. If incumbent and potential leaders model someone or someone's leadership style to become effective leaders, this theory could be adopted to explain the process of their observational learning and how leadership perceptions could be created and related to the process.

The social learning theory and leadership perceptions. The social learning theory would be related to forming leadership perceptions because when people become leaders, they are likely to refer and imitate someone's style that they prefer or that has already been successful. Actually, the data showed that, in the average case, about 85% of potential leader behavior is learned through a modeling approach (Decker, 1986). The imitation that should occur within organizations could create individual perceptions of leadership. That is, the leadership perceptions should be influenced by the cultural values that they belong to.

Then how will the cultural values affect leadership perceptions? As mentioned earlier, the social learning theory may help to understand the process how cultural values affect leadership perceptions. From the perspective of social learning theory, incumbent and potential leaders would produce higher self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and motivations developed by an internal locus of control. In other words, when incumbent or potential leaders can think that they manage and handle the situations and people because they have a leadership skill, their internal locus of control should be high. This would create the motivations to become effective leaders. And, the motives lead current and potential leaders to learning the desired leadership behaviors by attention, retention, and reproduction of the modeled behavior. If a person that has preferred models of leaders and leadership styles, or know the effective and successful leadership styles that someone already shows, he or she might pay attention to the targets, and keep them in his or her mind. These processes could produce individual leadership perceptions because he or she has already paid attention of the specific leaders and leadership style and played with the images in their mind. These individual leadership perceptions would create the framework of leadership to reproduce because the reproduction process occurs by cognitive and behavioral rehearsal in preparation for leading people. Each process should be influenced by the cultural values and social and organizational expectations. That is to say, the cultural

values, which were discussed earlier, determine how to interact with people, such as people from the collectivism culture expect or are expected to consider group and families.

Societies and organizations tend to have their own policy, rule, and expectations. This also affects the social learning process of leadership, such as one company may want persons who can show initiative, energy, and creativity for its leaders. In this way, social learning theory could be useful to understand the relation among individuals, cultural values and leadership perceptions (Figure 1).

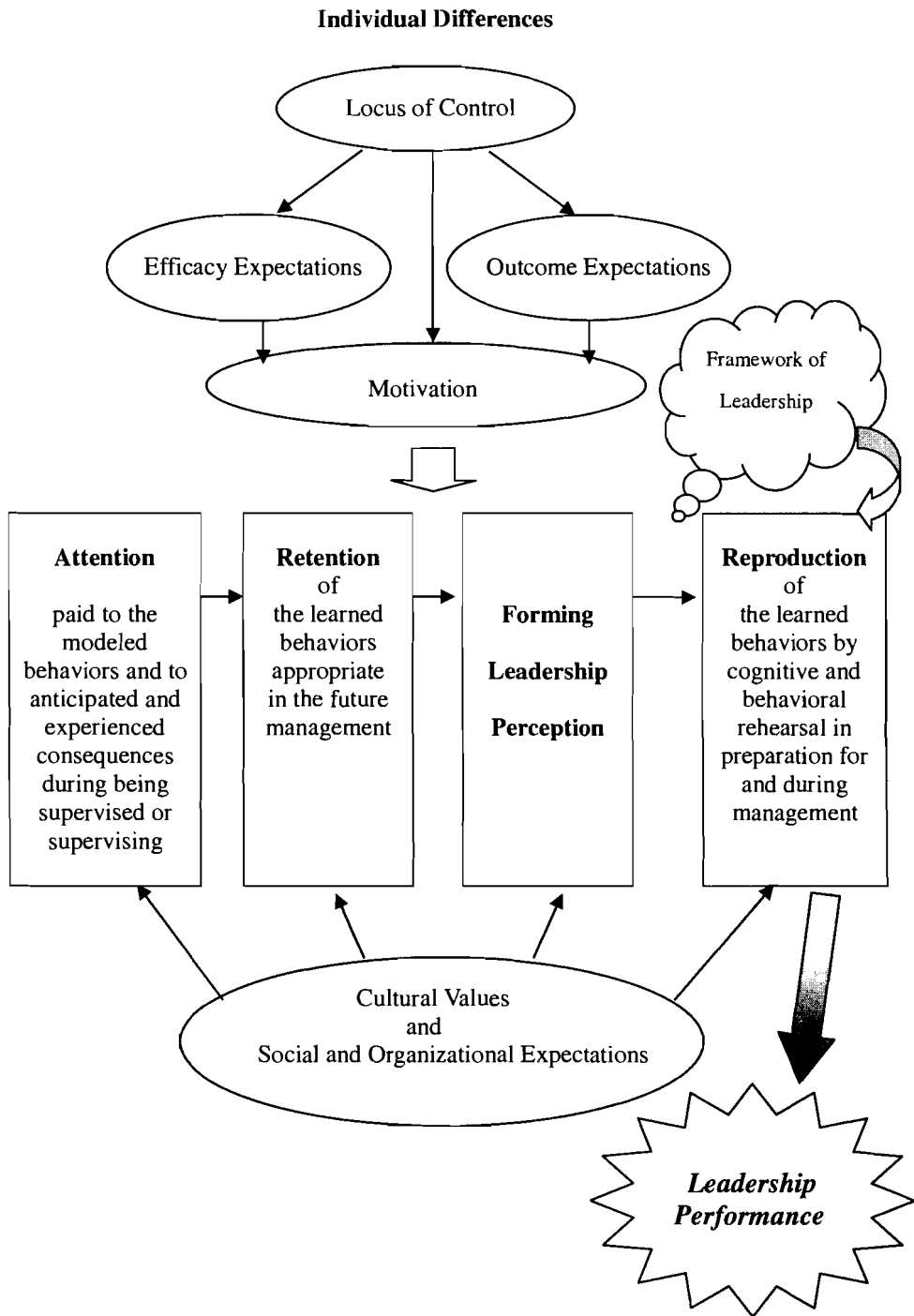


Figure 1. Model of Leadership Perception and Social Learning Theory

Adapted from the "model of cross-cultural training and social learning theory" by Black and Mendenhall (1990)

Cultural impact of manager-subordinate interactions. According to Hofstede (1983), the most relevant of Hofstede's dimensions for leaderships are individualism and power distance. He mentioned, "U.S. leadership theories are about leading individuals based on the presumed needs of individuals who seek their ultimate self-interest. For example, the word (duty), which implies obligations towards others or towards society, does not appear at all in the U.S. leadership theories" (Hofstede, 1983, p. 85). On the other hand, leadership in a collectivism society is a group phenomenon. In short, the collectivists are likely to create a working group that is not the natural in-group, and they can bring considerable loyalty to their job, "providing they feel that the employer returns the loyalty in the form of protection, just like their natural in-group does" (Hofstede, 1983, p. 85).

Hofstede (1983) discussed participative leadership considering power distance.

Subordinates in the lower power distance cultures tend to be allowed to participate in the leader's decisions, while the leader keeps the initiative. And subordinates in the high power distance cultures do not want to participate, and they expect that leaders will lead them autocratically (Hofstede, 1983).

Few researchers studied cross-cultural differences in how people categorize manager/employee interaction situations (Shaw, 1990). Shaw (1990) states that the impact of culture occurs through three basic mechanisms: (a) differences in the content of

employee/manager schemas and behavioral scripts, (b) differences in the structure of schemas, and (c) differences in the extent to which individuals process information in an automatic or controlled manner. That is to say, the cultural impact influences forming individual schemas, and organizational members categorize people into certain kinds of leaders by using their own schemas, such as he is a democratic or less initiative leader. Sometimes, the members also evaluate whether or not their leaders show appropriate performances by the same schemas. Moreover, Shaw argues that differences in prototypes would affect the manager-employee interactions in the following ways. First, the subordinate's leader prototypes will determine whether the foreign manager is labeled as a leader, as well as the foreign manager's prototype of the good/bad worker will influence the categorization of the subordinate. Second, the manager's own leader prototypes may influence the probability that certain behaviors will be emitted in reaction to the employee's behavior. Third, there will be the constraint values associated with particular schemas, namely ranges for categories of schemas differ depending on countries, such as Trukese adults had narrower category widths than American undergraduates (Shaw, 1990).

Racial Differences in the Leadership Perception

Chatman (2001) studied the racial differences between White, Black, and Hispanic people in relation to perceptions of leadership. She developed the instrument, the

Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) (see Appendix A) to assess the perceptions of leadership behaviors. This instrument was designed based on the information from the pilot study and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII developed by Stogdill in 1963. She used the LPQ to assess the perception differences of leadership in terms of five dimensions: physical, demographic, personality, skills/behaviors, and situations, because the empirical studies show that these factors have been regarded as important factors for leadership. The results indicated that there are similarities in perceptions of leadership among race in America. Each race showed that the five characteristics of a leader are important. As a conclusion, she argued that organizational cultures would determine their perceptions of their effective leadership based on majority group values, despite racial differences. According to Bass (1981), the studies of leadership in the U.S. may not capture the diversity of relationships that is found in other countries because of individualism that the U.S. culturally holds, such as contemplation, pragmatism, and equalitarianism, or because of their own histories and institutional features. This also could be a reason of ambiguity of the racial differences in the leadership perception.

This study suggests that there are relationships between cultural values and leadership perceptions. As Chatman (2001) mentioned, Japan could be an interesting

sample for comparing leadership perceptions with the U.S. because Japanese business and economy are closely linked with American counterparts. However, it is possible to detect some differences in leadership perceptions between the U.S. and Japan, if the cultural values affect individual perceptions of leadership.

Cultural Differences in the Leadership Perception between Japanese and American

Martinko and Douglas (1999) reviewed theories and research about the perceptual incongruencies between leaders and subordinates. Their study suggested that leaders and members in the high collectivism and high context cultures tend to attribute member successes to external factors. On the other hand, leaders and members in the high individualism and low context culture are likely to take personal credit for their successes attributing them to internal characteristics. In fact, there are some disputation between American workers and expatriate Japanese managers. In short, Japanese managers, whose management style is high collectivistic and high context, will see workers as relatively less directly responsible for organizational successes than highly individualistic and low context workers (Martinko & Douglas).

As empirical cross-cultural studies showed, there are differences between the U.S. and Japan. Also, their management styles are fundamentally different from each other. These cultural values and practices should reflect individuals' perceptions. The

individuals' perceptions of leaders should be related to leadership styles. In short, if there were any cultural differences in leadership perceptions, these differences should also make leadership styles different. Unfortunately, there are few cultural studies about perceptions of leadership.

This study attempts to examine the cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan in leadership perceptions by extending the work of Chatman (2001), while considering Hofstede's cultural values.

Hypotheses

Shaw (1990) hypothesized that the magnitude of differences in schema prototypes would be positively correlated with the extent to which the cultures represent different levels along cultural dimensions. In short, he speculated that differences between schema prototypes of individuals from two different but highly collective cultures would be much smaller than differences between individuals from highly collective and highly individualistic cultures. In addition, he also anticipates that homogeneous countries, like Japan, would have narrower constraint value ranges than heterogeneous counterparts, like Singapore. According to his perspective, Japan, which has a highly collective culture, would have more homogeneity on items than the U.S., which has a highly individualistic culture. Thus, Japanese scores on the items should be more homogeneous than American

scores because of differences of their cultural values. In other words, the variance will be smaller for Japanese employees when they describe the important characteristics of leadership compared to the responses of the American employees.

Hypothesis 1: Japanese scores of the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) would show more homogeneity than American scores.

Hypothesis 2: Japanese participants will have higher scores on items that reflect the power distance dimension. (See Appendix B)

Hypothesis 3: Japanese participants will have higher scores on items that reflect the uncertainty avoidance dimension. (See Appendix C)

Hypothesis 4: Japanese participants will have higher scores on items that reflect the individualism and collectivism dimension. (See Appendix D)

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

The present study extended Chatman's (2001) study. Chatman's data of American participants ($n = 128$) was used in this study. She collected the data from various states throughout the United States, such as Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, Texas, California, and New Jersey. All American participants had work experience and they were from 17 different industries. On the other hand, most of the Japanese participants in this study came from an airline company ($n = 78$). The airline company consists of various types of jobs: skill-based jobs (pilots), knowledge-based jobs (clerical workers), and physical jobs (mechanics; flight attendants; ground staffs). These participants were chosen because the researcher used to work for the airline company. She asked several people that she already knew to distributed the surveys in their department. Also, she asked persons who belong to other industries, like computer, publishing, newspaper, etc., to fill out the survey. Including the airplane company, the participants were from around 34 industries. Most of the Japanese participants were selected from major Japanese cities, Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya.

In the present study, 128 American participants gathered by Chatman (2001) were

compared with 203 Japanese participants. For Japanese participants, 500 surveys were distributed by the researcher. The response rate was 41%.

Table 2 provides a breakdown of the Japanese and American participants. Among both groups, there were slightly more women than men. The average age for American sample was 41. For the Japanese sample, the average age was 39. The Japanese sample had a higher percentage of college graduates. Table 3 lists the industries that were examined in the American and Japanese samples.

Table 4 depicts the type of positions. The American sample had a higher percentage of professionals and the Japanese sample had a higher percentage of non-supervisory employees.

Research Design

This study took a research design to “attempt to determine the cause or consequence of differences that already exist between or among group or individuals” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000, p. 393). The independent variable was the nationality, American or Japanese, of the participants. The dependent variables were the participants’ responses to the items on the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ).

Table 2

Profiles of American and Japanese Participants

	American Participants		Japanese Participants	
Number of Participants	128		203	
Sex				
Men	57	(45%)	96	(47%)
Women	69	(54%)	103	(51%)
Mean Age	40.68	[12.49]	38.67	[10.83]
Number of Industries	17		34	
Education				
High school or less than high school	23		18	
College or Associate's degree	49		37	
Bachelor's degree	22		137	
Master's degree or above	32		9	

Note. American participants were collected by Chatman (2001). Percentages are in parentheses.

Standard deviations are in brackets.

Table 3

Sample Industry Demographic Results

	U.S.	Japan
Automotive/Machine	5	2
Travel/Transportation	3	81
Broadcasting and Newspaper	2	16
Banking/Finance	2	6
Communications	9	4
Informative/Technology	4	21
Education	21	1
Government Civil Service	14	4
Grocery	1	0
Homemaker	5	0
Manufacturing	13	0
Medical Health	3	5
Military	7	0
Retail	2	3
Restaurant/Foodservice	4	1
Hotel	0	2
Construction	0	8
Electricity	0	5

Table 3 (continued)

	U.S.	Japan
Consultant	0	2
Real Estate	0	3
Trading	0	5
Ad and publish	0	2
Insurance	0	2
Plant engineering	0	2
Other	23	12

Note. American participants were collected by Chatman (2001).

Table 4

Sample Position Demographic Results

	U.S.	Japan
Non-supervisory	40	89
1 st line supervisor	13	20
Middle management	10	23
Professional	30	16
Senior management	4	14
Owner	4	6
Other	19	24

Note. American participants were collected by Chatman (2001).

Testing Instruments

The current study used the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) developed by Chatman (2001) to assess the perceptions of leadership behavior (see Appendix A). This instrument was designed based on the information from Chatman's pilot study and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) Form XII developed by Stogdill in 1963. The LPQ consists of a 67-item questionnaire to assess five dimensions of leadership: physical (5 items), demographic (7 items), personality (20 items), skill/behaviors (28 items), and situations (7 items). The LPQ has a 5-point Likert-type scale that indicates the importance of the characteristics for leadership perceived by the respondents. The range was from 1 (not important) to 5 (very important).

Cultural scales. For comparison of two cultures, the 67 items in the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) were recategorized to fit into three of Hofstede's dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism and collectivism. Because masculinity vs. femininity and short vs. long-term orientations have no equivalent items on the LPQ, they were not included. The following three paragraphs describe how the LPQ was divided into three dimensions.

The cultural scale of power distance contains the items of life experience, enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing, approachable, dominant/intimidating, assertive,

respectable, ambitious, manipulation of others, insistence of rules and regulations, authority to hire/fire/rewards, recognition of power by others, and recognition of leader by majority. Appendix B shows which items reflect high power distance and which items reflect low power distance. For example, an item, a leader should have life experience, is related to the high power distance. On the other hand, an item, a leader should be enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing, is related to the low power distance.

The cultural scale of uncertainty avoidance contains the items of criminal history, financial stability, honesty/ethic, optimistic, acceptance of change, tolerance of delay/uncertainty/stress, and risk taking. Appendix C shows which items reflect high uncertainty avoidance and which items reflect low uncertainty avoidance. For example, an item, a leader should have no criminal history, is related to the high uncertainty avoidance. On the other hand, an item, a leader should be optimistic, is related to the low power distance.

The cultural scale of individualism and collectivism contains the items of similarity in political/religion with others, having a college degree, intelligence, cares for others, creativity, flexibility/open-mind, example, goal-oriented, articulateness, cooperativeness, humor, team player, confidence, persuader, communicator, motivate/inspire others, accurate decision-makings, organizer, conflict management, lead

others to common goals, equal treatment of group members, expectations of knowing what leaders want, cares of result/accomplish goals, discretion of problem solving, adaptability, delegation of responsibility, listening, consulting the group, dealing/managing people, involvement of members in operation, responsibility for emergencies, having supports of followers, and having supports of peers, and having supports of persons. Appendix D shows which items reflect a collective culture and which items reflect and individualistic culture. For example, an item, a leader should be intelligent, is related to individualism culture. On the other hand, an item, a leader should be similar to others (political/religious), is related to collectivism culture.

Cover letters and demographics. The test instrument provided with a cover letter and demographic information sheet that asked for participants' age, gender, occupation, and individual perceptions for successful leadership (see Appendixes E, F, G, and H).

Reliability. Using Chatman's (2001) data, the internal consistencies of the cultural scales were also examined with Cronbach's alpha. The reliability coefficients (alpha) of three cultural scales were as follows: power distance scale, .00; uncertainty avoidance scale, .15; and individualism and collectivism, .16. The researcher believed that these cultural scales had low internal consistency because the data came from within a single culture. With the addition of Japanese data, it was hoped that the cultural scores

would demonstrate greater internal consistency. As predicted, a reexamination of internal consistency with the Japanese and American data combined yield cultural scales with greater internal consistency. For example, coefficient alpha was .55, .14, and .91 for the power distance scale, the uncertainty avoidance scale, and the individualism and collectivism scale, respectively.

Translation. Using the equivalent instrument is crucial to conducting effective testing in cross-cultural studies. Berry, Poortinga, Segall, and Dasen (1992) indicated the necessity of back-translation and centering to avoid the translation gap. This method creates a team and allows the team members to translate instruments from the target language to the original language and translate it the back and forth. This procedure is repeated for a round or two. If the item of the context does not match, the item should be eliminated, because the discrepancy of the translation means that the concept is not fit for translation (see Appendix I).

In this study, four people, including the researcher, formed the translation team. All of the members were born and raised in Japan, and have lived in the U.S. for more than three years. First, the researcher carefully translated the instrument from English to Japanese. Although some of the items sounded awkward for colloquial Japanese, she translated a sentence literally to minimize the translation gap. The second person translated

from Japanese to English with the same instrument that the researcher did. And, the third and fourth persons repeated the same process. The team members found that there were several items that did not match well between English and Japanese, and they were caused by misunderstandings. Finally, they discussed and had a consensus of the best translations for each items.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Analyses

To examine the first hypothesis that the Japanese participants would have lower variances in their responses than the American participants, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare variances of means.

For Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4, a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used.

If any of the three MANOVAs were statistically significant, then independent *t* tests were employed to uncover which items were significantly different.

The first hypothesis predicted that Japanese scores would show more homogeneity than American scores. The second hypothesis predicted that Japanese participants would have higher scores on items that reflect the power distance dimension (Cultural Scale 1). The third hypothesis predicted that Japanese participants would have higher scores on items that reflect the uncertainty avoidance dimension (Cultural Scale 2). Finally, the fourth hypothesis predicted that Japanese participants would have higher scores on collectivism items that reflect the individualism and collectivism dimension (Cultural Scale 3).

Hypothesis 1 was that Japanese scores would show more homogeneity than

American scores do. On most items, the opposite was found. Overall, American participants answered with less variability than Japanese participants. The Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that there are significant differences between both groups on 26 of the items. Japanese participants indicated more homogeneity on seven out of the 26 significant items, and Americans indicated more homogeneity on 19 of the 26 significant items. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Results can be seen in the Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Comparison between U.S. and Japan

	U.S.		Japan		Levene's test
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Physically fit	2.66	1.10	2.40	1.17	n.s.
Well groomed	3.92	1.02	3.14	1.08	n.s.
Healthy	3.36	1.03	3.95	.96	n.s.
Attractive	1.76	.88	3.83	1.16	10.55*
Overall importance phys	2.96	.92	2.92	1.05	5.70*
No criminal history	3.50	1.33	3.31	1.42	n.s.
Financially stable	2.91	1.12	2.88	1.07	n.s.
Leadership experience	3.24	1.21	2.70	1.20	n.s.
Life experience	3.45	1.06	3.17	1.07	n.s.
Similar	1.86	1.04	1.57	.78	5.73*
College degree	2.22	1.25	1.44	.73	42.32**
Overall importance demo	2.90	.92	2.36	.96	n.s.
Intelligent	4.11	.88	3.49	1.04	6.71*
Enthusiastic	3.83	1.05	3.77	1.07	n.s.
Care about others	4.52	.70	3.87	1.01	11.48*
Creative	3.90	.83	3.92	1.00	n.s.
Flexible	4.41	.68	4.28	.87	8.21*
Honest	4.71	.62	3.88	1.02	37.00**
Example	4.60	.63	3.64	.97	24.21**
Approachable	4.48	.74	3.31	1.11	17.87**
Dominant	2.45	1.05	1.40	.65	38.29**
Goal-oriented	3.95	.86	2.18	.94	n.s.
Articulate	3.88	.91	4.16	.86	n.s.
Assertive	3.83	.89	1.72	.85	n.s.
Respectable	4.46	.72	2.45	1.00	11.93*
Ambitious	3.65	1.13	2.73	1.09	n.s.
Cooperative	4.21	.85	3.49	.99	4.06*
Optimistic	4.17	.91	2.81	1.06	n.s.
Value humor	3.82	.90	3.34	1.17	10.14*
Team player	4.28	.88	3.30	1.14	7.89*
Confident	4.39	.72	3.98	.87	n.s.
Overall importance perso	4.35	.70	4.12	.86	n.s.

Table 5 (continued)

	U.S.		Japan		Levene's test
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Persuade	3.52	.95	4.13	.88	n.s.
Communicate	4.59	.62	4.43	.72	6.03*
Motivate	4.31	.79	4.42	.71	n.s.
Accurate decisions	4.22	.73	4.18	.86	5.71*
Organize	4.22	.82	4.30	.79	n.s.
Make changes	4.17	.76	3.86	.98	7.02*
Manage conflict	4.30	.83	3.81	.92	n.s.
Direct efforts	4.24	.82	4.10	.89	n.s.
Spokesperson	3.85	.99	3.60	1.10	n.s.
Treats equally	3.82	1.16	3.31	1.24	n.s.
Manipulate	2.47	1.36	3.45	1.11	9.94*
Voices expectations	4.21	.79	3.80	1.02	6.90*
Gets results	4.32	.74	3.83	.94	n.s.
Tolerate delays	4.03	.98	2.82	1.13	n.s.
Make pleasant	3.75	1.07	2.55	1.12	n.s.
Performance standards	3.97	.90	3.48	1.00	5.25*
Member judgement	4.15	.84	3.82	.95	n.s.
Adapt	4.37	.71	4.28	.81	n.s.
Delegates responsibility	4.09	.95	3.18	1.14	4.53*
Complex problems	4.27	.74	3.95	.92	n.s.
Listens	4.64	.56	4.38	.81	23.77**
Consults	3.54	.98	3.00	1.07	n.s.
Insists	3.55	1.11	2.62	.97	n.s.
Deal with people	4.33	.81	3.51	.98	7.13*
Use suggestions	3.73	1.03	3.63	.85	n.s.
Takes charge	4.17	.95	4.19	1.03	n.s.
Takes risks	3.55	1.07	4.08	.95	n.s.
Over importance skills	4.26	.71	4.42	.71	n.s.
Hire, fire, reward	3.66	1.10	2.84	1.19	n.s.
Appointed by power	3.01	1.19	1.87	.92	5.30*
Elected by majority	3.03	1.29	2.53	1.23	n.s.
Support of followers	4.13	.96	3.54	1.09	n.s.
Support of peers	3.95	.97	3.51	1.06	5.42*
Support of power	3.92	1.00	2.11	.98	n.s.
Overall importance of situ	3.78	.91	3.05	1.00	n.s.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

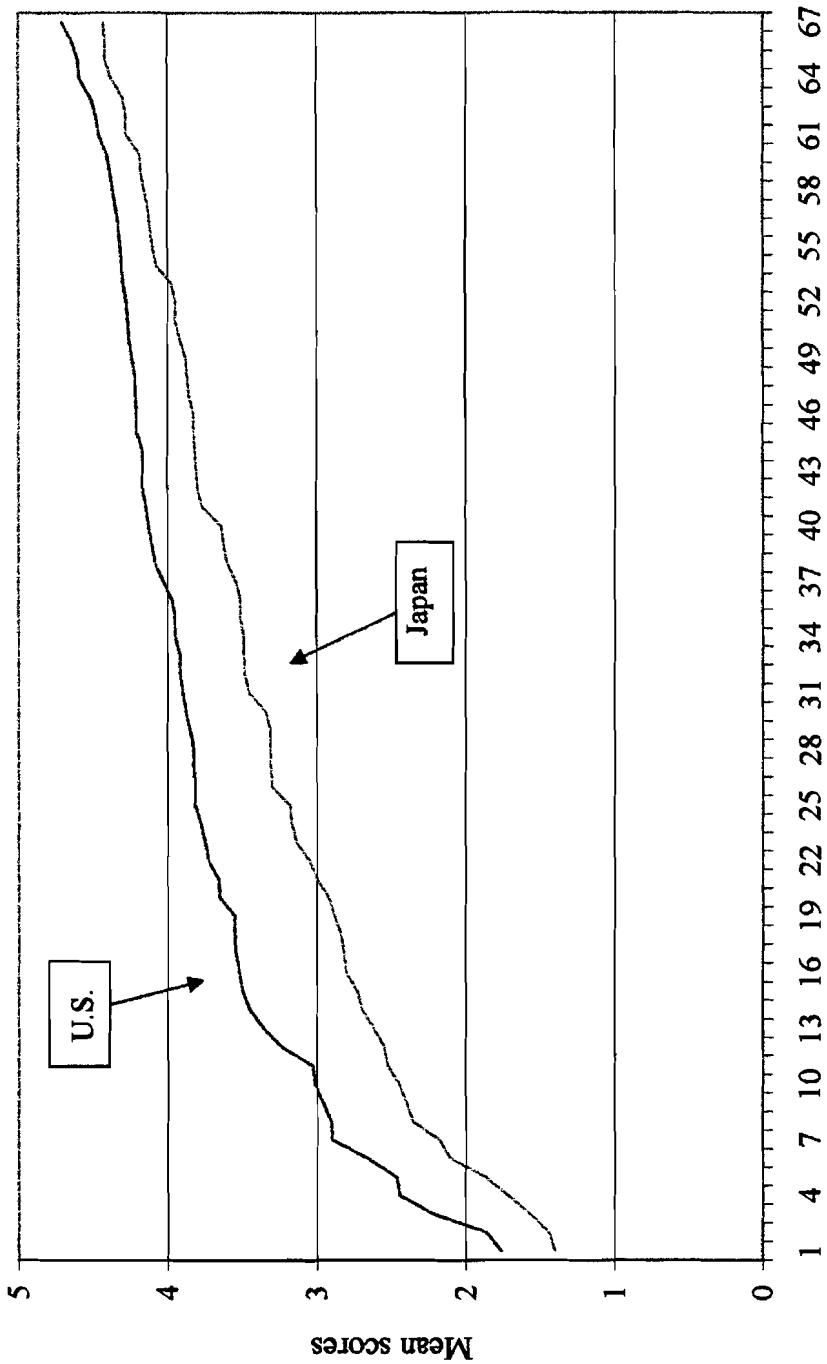


Figure 2. Mean scores of Leadership Perception Questionnaire between U.S. and Japan

A multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed for Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. Each MANOVA showed statistically significant differences between American and Japanese participants. However, on most of the items of the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ), American participants scored higher than Japanese participants regardless of predicted cultural dimensions (see Figure 2). Therefore, the results did not tell whether these hypotheses were supported or not.

MANOVAs for Hypothesis 2 were statistically significant for high power distance items, $F(1, 316) = 1051.48, p < .001$, and for low power distance items, $F(1, 316) = 2167.20, p < .001$. Because the MANOVAs were statistically significant, independent t tests were used to examine the individual items. Results can be seen in Table 6. The Japanese were expected to get higher scores on the high power distance items and lower scores on the low power distance items. What happened is that the Americans scored higher on every item except ability to manipulate others to accomplish results. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

MANOVAs for Hypothesis 3 were statistically significant for high uncertainty avoidance items, $F(1, 326) = 29.27, p < .001$, and for low uncertainty avoidance items, $F(1, 324) = 62.77, p < .001$. Because the MANOVAs were statistically significant, independent t tests were used to examine the individual items. Results can be seen in Table 7. The

Japanese were expected to get higher scores on the high uncertainty avoidance items and lower scores on the low uncertainty avoidance items. The result was that the Americans scored higher on every item except takes risks. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

MANOVAs for Hypothesis 4 were statistically significant for items related to individualism culture, $F(1, 309) = 8.06, p < .001$, and for items related to collectivism culture, $F(1, 306) = 31.72, p < .001$. Because the MANOVAs were statistically significant, independent t tests were used to examine the individual items. Results can be seen in Tables 8a and 8b. The Japanese were expected to get higher scores on items related to collectivism culture and lower scores on the items related to individualism culture.

The result indicated that Americans scored higher on nine items and Japanese scored higher on two items (a leader should be creative and takes full charge when there are emergencies) related to individualism culture. And, it demonstrated that Americans scored higher on all items except three items related to collectivism culture (ability to persuade others, ability to motivate/inspire others, and ability to organize). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Table 6

Comparisons of Mean, SD, and t Value in the Cultural Scale 1

	U.S.		Japan		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
High Power Distance					
A leader should have life experience	3.52	1.06	3.16	1.14	2.67*
A leader should be dominant/intimidating	2.49	1.09	1.42	.68	9.98**
A leader should be assertive	3.87	.86	1.73	.87	21.31**
A leader should be respectable	4.46	.77	2.47	1.00	19.56**
A leader should be ambitious	3.73	1.08	2.70	1.11	8.34**
Insists followers follow rules and regulations	3.56	1.07	2.59	1.01	8.12**
Being in a position to hire, fire, and/or reward	3.68	1.11	2.81	1.20	6.46**
Being appointed by persons in power	3.09	1.20	1.84	.92	10.07**
Low Power Distance					
A leader should be enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing	3.80	1.01	3.71	1.10	n.s.
A leader should be approachable	4.44	.75	3.30	1.13	11.02**
Ability to manipulate others to accomplish results	2.44	1.33	3.42	1.07	-6.96**
Being elected by a majority	3.12	1.28	2.54	1.21	4.05**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Table 7

Comparisons of Mean, SD, and t Value in the Cultural Scale 2

	U.S.		Japan		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
High Uncertainty Avoidance					
A leader should have no criminal history	3.52	1.33	3.32	1.44	n.s.
A leader should be financially stable	2.92	1.17	2.82	1.06	n.s.
A leader should be honest/ethical	4.68	.70	3.82	1.04	8.95**
A leader should have a college degree	2.22	1.25	1.45	.75	6.41**
Low Uncertainty Avoidance					
A leader should be optimistic	4.17	.89	2.81	1.08	12.45**
Willingness to make changes	4.22	.76	3.81	1.02	4.07**
Ability to tolerate delays/uncertainty/stress	4.02	.99	2.84	1.14	9.86**
Takes risks	3.59	1.07	4.11	.98	-4.56**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Table 8a

Comparisons of Mean, SD, and t Value in the Cultural Scale 3 (Individualism)

	U.S.		Japan		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Individualism Culture					
A leader should be intelligent	4.09	.86	3.43	1.04	6.56**
A leader should be creative	3.89	.85	3.91	.96	n.s.
A leader should be flexible/open-minded	4.42	.66	4.24	.87	n.s.
A leader should value humor	3.76	.92	3.30	1.16	4.38**
A leader should be confident	4.41	.69	3.99	.88	5.09**
Ability to make accurate decisions	4.26	.72	4.24	.85	n.s.
Ability to get results/accomplish goals	4.32	.75	3.86	.91	4.25**
Maintains definite performance standards	4.01	.88	3.50	1.00	4.54**
Allows members to use their judgment in solving problems	4.16	.82	3.81	.97	3.59**
Ability to adapt to new situations	4.37	.71	4.28	.80	n.s.
Takes full charge when emergencies	4.19	.94	4.20	1.01	n.s.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Table 8b

Comparisons of Mean, SD, and t Value in the Cultural Scale 3 (Collectivism)

	U.S.		Japan		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Collectivism					
A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	1.94	1.12	1.56	.76	3.55**
A leader should care about others in the organization	4.55	.67	3.82	1.03	7.97**
A leader should lead by example	4.51	.79	3.64	.95	9.67**
A leader should be goal-oriented	3.92	.90	2.15	.98	16.72**
A leader should be cooperative	4.22	.84	3.41	1.00	8.00**
A leader should be a team player	4.28	.88	3.28	1.12	9.37**
Ability to persuade others	3.51	1.01	4.14	.86	-6.06**
Ability to communicate	4.53	.65	4.38	.77	n.s
Ability to motivate/inspire others	4.30	.81	4.34	.79	n.s
Ability to organize	4.16	.86	4.29	.78	n.s
Ability to manage conflict	4.30	.82	3.77	.94	5.50**
Ability to direct efforts of others towards a common goal	4.23	.87	4.07	.90	n.s
Treats all group members as his/her equals	3.87	1.13	3.28	1.26	4.25**
Lets others know what is expected of them	4.24	.77	3.80	.98	4.80**

Table 8b (continued)

	U.S.		Japan		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Listens	4.61	.59	4.33	.87	3.71*
Consults the group before acting	3.55	.95	2.96	1.06	4.70*
Ability to deal with and manage people	4.33	.79	3.54	.96	8.19**
Puts suggestions made by members into operation	3.74	1.03	3.58	.87	n.s.
Having the support of followers	4.16	.92	3.42	1.12	6.60**
Having the support of peers	3.96	.98	3.43	1.08	4.60**
Having the support of persons in power	3.96	1.00	2.15	.97	16.59**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Unexpectedly, Japanese participants answered with more heterogeneity than American participants. American participants got more homogeneous and higher scores than the Japanese participants. The results indicate a possibility that American participants could have clearer images of leadership than Japanese participants have. Nisbett (2003) argued that negotiation styles are different between Westerners and Easterners. According to Nisbett, proposals and decisions of Westerners tend to be of the either/or variety because they know what they want and have a clear image what they negotiate. On the other hand, Easterners in the high-context culture take a longer time to negotiate because they avoid either/or choices. Also, in his research, Nisbett found that Westerners tend to attribute events to internal factors, whereas Asians tend to attribute events to external factors. That is to say, the results could be due to the American participants' tendency to attribute leadership to internal factors, thus, they might have had more clear images about who they want for their leader. Because Japanese participants might attribute leadership to external factors, they might think about leadership in more complex ways than Americans. For example, the perceptions of the participants could be distorted by the circumstances around them. Laurent (1983) studied individual differences of the proper management style among

10 Western countries. When he examined Japanese managers, he found that the Japanese managers got both high and low scores on questionnaire items. Also, Nisbett (2003) pointed out that Asians takes more time to make judgments of categorizations than Westerners. Moreover, he mentioned that Asians made more classification errors than Westerners made. He also discussed that Asians tend to use topic-prominent languages, whereas Westerners tend to use subject-prominent languages. In short, when describing something, Asians think of the context rather than the subject. However, Westerners think of the subject rather than the context. These factors could be explanations for the greater variability of the Japanese data.

Twisted Results

As mentioned earlier, the American scores were consistently higher than the Japanese scores. Overall, Japanese participants scored higher than Americans on only 10 items out of the 67 Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) items. Why did the American score higher than the Japanese on most of the items? First, a cultural bias should be considered. Research indicates that Americans think of themselves more positively than Japanese, especially when thinking of highly valued traits (Brown & Kobayashi, 2002). Thus, American leaders (supervisors and managers) might perceive themselves in their leadership more positively than Japanese counterparts.

Moreover, Brown and Kobayashi (2002) mentioned that a cultural bias is produced by the tendency that people appraise themselves in more positive term than one appraises others. In short, this infers that people tend not to choose what they think is unimportant. For example, if the participants personally thought that taking risks is not important, they could not have chosen the item, regardless of important traits for leadership.

Secondly, the possible explanation is the instrument. There might have been a translation gap. For example, on the five-point important scale, does the English word for importance mean the same thing as the Japanese word? There may not be a direct one-to-one correspondence between the words. This instrument was not initially created for a cross-cultural study. Thus, the cultural scales could not really discriminate between both countries.

Another possible problem with the instrument is that people differ in the ways they perceive social relationships such as leadership. For example, Venhemert, Baerveldt, and Vermande (2001) discussed that the dimensions of individualism and collectivism are reflected in the individual ways that people view personal relations and networks. In their view, individualism and collectivism are not opposites. Wei, Yuen, and Zhu (2001) studied differences in conflict resolution styles of managers among Americans, Japanese, and

Chinese Singaporeans in Singapore based on a dimension of individualism and collectivism. They also found the twisted results. That is, Americans showed collectivism characteristics, and Japanese and Chinese Singaporeans showed individualism characteristics. They said that “the dichotomatic classification of cultural orientation is often misleading; because it implicitly leads people to believe that the two cultural values are in polar opposition to one another” (p. 18). Thus, a simple scale without any context may be insufficient to capture people’s perceptions of leadership, as Wei, Yuen, and Zhu mentioned.

Exploratory Study

Heine and Lehman (1995) pointed out that culture makes it difficult to see true differences between cultural groups. The present study also had difficulty making comparisons between the two groups because of the high American response bias, or low Japanese response bias. Therefore, an examination within groups was undertaken.

A top and bottom 10 descriptive comparison between the U.S. and Japan (see Table 9a and 9b) demonstrated some interesting results. Table 9a lists the 10 most important items for each country. Table 9b lists the 10 least important items for each country.

As can be seen in Table 9a, American and Japanese participants were in

agreement on four items among the top 10: being flexible, communicating, being adaptive, and listening well. As can be seen in Table 9b, there was even more agreement on what is not important. Here the Japanese and American agreed on six of the bottom items: being physically fit, being similar to others, having a college degree, overall importance of demographic characteristics, being dominant, and being appointed by persons in power. This indicated that American and Japanese participants could have some similar ideas about leadership in terms of important or less important characteristics. This may be explained by the increasing individualism in Japan, although Japanese society successfully integrated its traditional practice with modern technology (Dedoussis & Czerkowski, 2000; Hofstede, 2001).

Regarding different ideas about leadership between two countries, American participants believed that the following items are important: caring about others, being ethical, being an example, being approachable, being respectable, and being confident. On the other hand, Japanese participants believe the following items are important: being articulate, being able to motivate, making accurate decisions, being able to organize, taking full charge, and the overall importance skills. The two countries also differed on aspects less important for leadership. For example, the Americans put the following items in their bottom ten: being attractive, the overall importance physical characteristics, being

financially stable, and being able to manipulate others to accomplish results. The Japanese put these items in their bottom 10: being goal-oriented, being assertive, being respectable, and having support from those in power.

This exploratory study is not statistically valid; however, the demographic data demonstrates some pictures of leadership perception for each country. American participants scored high from the items of personality characteristics, and most of the items that Japanese participants scored high were from skills/behaviors characteristics. Also, Japanese participants scored low on the item of goal-oriented items and being assertive. This is consistent with the Japanese management style that does not emphasize results-oriented performance (Dedoussis & Czerkawski, 2000), and that Japanese preferred tactics to avoid social disorganization or disagreements, whereas Americans used of assertive tactics in conflict situations with a concern for attaining justice for themselves (Wei, Yuen & Thu, 2001).

Implications for Organizations and Institutions

Although there may be a cultural bias in the instrument, the results indicated that Americans perceive leadership somewhat differently from Japanese (Table 9a and 9b). This could have some implications in leadership for organizations and institutions, which have American and Japanese workers.

Table 9a

Top 10 Descriptive Comparisons between U.S. and Japan

U.S.		Japan	
Items	Mean	Items	Mean
A leader should be honest/ethical	4.71	+Ability to communicate	4.43
+Listens	4.64	Ability to motivate/inspire others	4.42
A leader should lead by example	4.60	Overall importance of skills/behaviors	4.42
+Ability to communicate	4.59	+Listens	4.38
A leader should care about others in the organization	4.52	Ability to organize	4.30
A leader should be approachable	4.48	+Ability to adapt to new situations	4.28
A leader should be respectable	4.46	+A leader should be flexible/open-minded	4.28
+A leader should be flexible/open-minded	4.41	Takes full charge when emergencies arise	4.19
A leader should be confident	4.39	Ability to make accurate decisions	4.18
+Ability to adapt to new situations	4.37	A leader should be articulate	4.16

Note. + = common items for both nations

Table 9b

Bottom 10 Descriptive Comparisons between U.S. and Japan

U.S.		Japan	
Items	Mean	Items	Mean
A leader should be attractive	1.76	+A leader should be dominant/intimidating	1.40
+A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	1.86	+A leader should have a college degree	1.44
+A leader should have a college degree	2.22	+A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	1.57
+A leader should be dominant/intimidating	2.45	A leader should be assertive	1.72
Ability to manipulate others to accomplish results	2.47	+Being appointed by persons in power	1.87
+A leader should be physically fit	2.66	Having the support of persons in power	2.11
+Overall importance of demographic characteristics	2.90	A leader should be goal oriented	2.18
A leader should be financially stable	2.91	+Overall importance of demographic characteristics	2.36
Overall importance of physical appearance	2.96	+A leader should be physically fit	2.40
Being appointed by persons in power	3.01	A leader should be respectable	2.45

Note. + = common items for both nations

When perceiving leadership differently, individual expectations could also differ.

The exploratory studies indicated that American leaders may be expected by Japanese subordinates to be articulate, be able to motivate, make accurate decisions, be able to organize, take full charge when emergencies arise, and have high level skills and behaviors. On the other hand, Japanese leaders may be expected by American subordinates to care about others, be an example, be approachable, be respectable, and be confident. Therefore, leaders could keep in mind that these could cause incongruencies between American and Japanese when they work together.

In terms of management approaches across American and Japanese cultures, it could be effective for leaders to emphasize being flexible to command people, having good communication skills, being adaptive to the new situations, and listening to others well. American leaders, who have Japanese subordinates, might need to be more goal-oriented and assertive than they are accustomed to. This might help the Japanese workers follow their American leaders more easily. However, Japanese leaders might have to emphasize goals with clear explanations when they have American subordinates.

Concerning selection and evaluation, the following items might be less important factors to select leaders for both countries: being physically fit, being similar to others, having a college degree, have high level of demographic characteristics, being dominant,

and being appointed by those in power. The exploratory study demonstrated that American workers stress the importance of personality characteristics, and Japanese workers stress the importance of skills and behaviors. This could be understood that Americans might take more of a selection approach because they are attributed internally. On the other hand, Japanese workers might take more of a training approach because they are attributed externally.

Downs (1992) found that management communication style is significantly related to a subordinate's satisfaction with communication during performance appraisal interviews. In this way, it should be beneficial to learn how the sociopolitical environment affects personnel appraisal methods in other cultures for the growth of multinational organizations (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

Schmitt and Chan (1998) argued for the importance of the manner in which organizations select candidates for international assignments. They found that organizations tend to select people based on only technical competence, although there is consistent evidence about the importance of personal and interpersonal characteristics for the effective expatriates. If organizations can select people, who have closer characteristics to the host culture or more abilities to fit into the host culture, selections would be successful. For adjustment training and selection for international assignors to be

successful, they must consider cultural values. Also, Cascio (1998) discussed that successful managerial selections is based on multiple factors. He stated that it is possible to discover what factors produce managerial success by developing psychological meaningful dimensions of managerial effectiveness. Therefore, with the increasing globalization of the economy, the cross-cultural studies of individual values will be demanded to know what makes effective leadership more than before.

Study Limitations and Future Research

Obviously, a cultural bias made it difficult to compare the results from the two versions of the survey. Venhemert, Baerveldt, and Vermande (2001) argued that it is almost impossible to have no cross-cultural bias of the instrument; however, this problem can be overcome by pilot studies, which are intentionally designed to reduce cross-cultural biases. The pilot studies also could reduce translation bias.

Chatman (2001) pointed out that participants would choose all items that they feel are important for successful leaders in the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ), regardless of what they specifically expect about leadership within their organizations. Moreover, there are some possibilities of bias in the individual perceptions of leadership. Cynthia (1999) pointed out the possibility that poor performance of current leaders may make followers discover in potential leaders what they want and notice the necessity to

find new leaders. In short, in case participants are not satisfied with their incumbent leaders, they may choose the items on which their current leaders are not qualified. The issues outlined by Chatman (2001) and Cynthia (1999) need to be addressed on future studies.

More research is needed to find factors that can affect testing results in order to create effective instruments that reduce cultural bias, such as response bias and terminology that instruments use. In order to control a cultural bias, this research needs to take into account attributional differences between high and low context cultures, and differences of classification between Westerners and Easterners.

Also, the reexamination of the reliability coefficients (alpha) of two cultural scales indicated low internal consistencies: .55 for the power distance scale and .14 for the uncertainty avoidance scale. Future studies will need to examine the factor structure of these two scales more closely.

Finally, as Wei et al. (2001) pointed out, future research is expected to be beyond Hofstede's theoretical framework to explain other factors related to philosophical roots and religious foundations.

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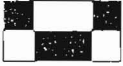
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Appendix A
(Leadership Perception Questionnaire)

Leadership Perception Questionnaire

Think of leaders (*supervisors, managers, etc*) within your organization/industry and their characteristics (*physical, demographic, personality, skills/behaviors, situational*) Mark the appropriate circle to indicate your perception of the importance each characteristic as it relates to successful leadership

		Very Important	Quite important	important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Physical Characteristics	A leader should be physically fit	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be well-groomed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be healthy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be attractive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Overall importance of physical appearance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Demographic Characteristics	A leader should have no criminal history	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be financially stable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should have experience in a leadership position	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should have life experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should have a college degree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall importance of demographic characteristics	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Personality Characteristics	A leader should be intelligent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should care about others in the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be creative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be flexible/open-minded	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be honest/ethical	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should lead by example	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be approachable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be dominant/intimidating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be goal oriented	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be articulate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be assertive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be respectable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be ambitious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should be cooperative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should optimistic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	A leader should value humor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A leader should be a team player	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
A leader should be confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Overall importance of personality/traits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	



Leadership Perception Questionnaire

		Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not important
Skills/Behaviors	Ability to persuade others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to communicate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to motivate/inspire others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to make accurate decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to organize	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Willingness to make changes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to manage conflict	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to direct efforts of others towards a common goal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Acts as spokesperson for the organization/group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Treats all group members as his/her equals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to manipulate others to accomplish results	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Lets others know what is expected of them	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to get results/accomplish goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to tolerate delays/uncertainty/stress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Does things to make it pleasant for organization members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Maintains definite performance standards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Allows members to use their judgment in solving problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to adapt to new situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Delegates responsibility	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Ability to handle complex problems efficiently/effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Listens	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Consults the group before acting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Insists followers follow rules and regulations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to deal with and manage people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Puts suggestions made by members into operation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Takes full charge when emergencies arise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Takes risks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Overall importance of skills/behaviors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Situation	Being in a position to hire, fire, and/or reward	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Being appointed by persons in power	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Being elected by a majority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Having the support of followers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Having the support of peers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Having the support of persons in power	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Overall importance of the leader's situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix B
(Cultural Scale 1)

Related to High Power Distance	Related to Low Power Distance
A leader should have life experience	A leader should be enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing
A leader should be dominant/intimidating	A leader should be approachable
A leader should be assertive	Ability to manipulate others to accomplish results
A leader should be respectable	Being elected by a majority
A leader should be ambitious	
Insists followers follow rules and regulations	
Being in a position to hire, fire, and/or reward	
Being appointed by persons in power	12 hypotheses

Note. Low score stands for high power distance, whereas high score stands for low power distance.

High power distance culture is likely to have a seniority system in organizations.

This also reflects the attitude of leaders. Also, it regulates people by rules, orders, rewards, and punishments. On the other hand, low power distance culture is likely to respect discretion. This requires leaders to have remarkable characteristics to be recognized as a leader by followers.

Appendix C
(Cultural Scale 2)

Related to High Uncertainty Avoidance	Related to Low Uncertainty Avoidance
A leader should have no criminal history	A leader should be optimistic
A leader should be financially stable	Willingness to make changes
A leader should be honest/ethical	Ability to tolerate delays/uncertainty/stress
A leader should have a college degree	Takes risks
	8 hypotheses

Note. Low score stands for high uncertainty avoidance, whereas high score stands for low uncertainty avoidance.

High uncertainty avoidance culture tends to prefer the stable environment. In this way, organizations do care about the individual background to select leaders. On the other hand, low uncertainty avoidance culture does care about individual characteristics and outcomes rather than its background.

Appendix D
(Cultural Scale 3)

Related to Individualism Culture	Related to Collectivism Culture	
A leader should be intelligent	A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	Ability to direct efforts of others towards a common goal
A leader should be creative	A leader should care about others in the organization	Treats all group members as his/her equals
A leader should be flexible/open-minded	A leader should lead by example	Lets others know what is expected of them
A leader should value humor	A leader should be goal oriented	Listens
A leader should be confident	A leader should be cooperative	Consults the group before acting
Ability to make accurate decisions	A leader should be a team player	Ability to deal with and manage people
Ability to get results/accomplish goals	Ability to persuade others	Puts suggestions made by members into operation
Maintains definite performance standards	Ability to communicate	Having the support of followers
Allows members to use their judgment in solving problems	Ability to motivate/inspire others	Having the support of peers
Ability to adapt to new situations	Ability to organize	Having the support of persons in power
Takes full charge when emergencies	Ability to manage conflict	32 hypotheses

Note. Low scores on this scale means the characteristic are important for a leader.

Individualism culture is likely to respect individual traits, competencies, and outcomes rather than its status and standard. On the other hand, collectivism culture is likely to care about team coordination to achieve common goals.

Appendix E
(Cover Letter)

Dear Employee:

You have been selected to take part in an important study about leadership perceptions. This study will examine differences in perceptions of effective leadership styles between American and Japanese employees. Your participation in this cross-cultural study will be much appreciated.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. All the information provided will remain confidential and anonymous. Please do not put your name on your survey. Moreover, information gathered from this research will be published only in the form of group averages. No one from your organization will ever see your survey responses.

If these conditions are acceptable, please answer each question on the enclosed survey openly and honestly about your perceptions of leadership. A return envelope has been enclosed. Please complete the survey and the demographic information sheet, place them in the return envelope, and mail it back to the researchers by February 1, 2003.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study you may contact me, Noriko Watanabe, at 620-343-7622 or watanabe_noriko@stunmail.emporia.edu. You may also contact George Yancey, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Emporia State University, at 620-341-5806 or yanceyge@emporia.edu.

Again, thank you for participating in this research study.

Sincerely,

Noriko Watanabe

George Yancey

Appendix F
(Demographic Information Sheet)

Demographic Information Sheet

Please answer the following questions. Darken the appropriate circle.

Age: _____

Sex:

Male

Female

Education: _____

- Less than high-school
- High school diploma
- Some college
- Associates Degree

- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Beyond Master's Degree
- Doctorate Degree or equivalent

*In which department are you currently employed? Check all that apply.
(e.g. sales, trading, accounting, marketing, etc.)*

- Sales
- Publicity
- General affairs
- Accounting section
- Administration
- Human resource
- Customer
- Secretary

- Maintenance
- Pilot
- Flight attendant
- Ground staff
- Engineer
- Training
- Other

Please Specify

In which type of position are you currently employed?

3

- Non-supervisory
- 1st line supervisor
- Middle management
- Professional (e.g. teacher, accountant, lawyer, therapist, etc.)
- Senior management
- Owner
- Not Applicable/Other

Please Specify

Please list 5 characteristics (in order of importance) you feel are most important for successful leadership.

Most important

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Appendix G
(Japanese Cover Letter)

社員の方へ

この度は、リーダーシップのイメージにおける日米の比較研究に御参加頂き、有難うございます。

ご周知の通り、テクノロジーの発展によりボーダーレス社会が進んでいるなかで、海外赴任のリーダーも含め、職場内における外国人の増加の傾向をみております。そのような環境では、異文化間の差をいかに克服するかが業務遂行において、重要となります。また、文化の相違は大きくリーダーの統率に影響を与えます。この研究はリーダーのイメージを日米間で比較することにより、その相違を確認し、日本人とアメリカ人が有意義に協働するための考察を目的とします。どうぞご理解のうえ、ご協力頂きますようお願い申し上げます。

調査方法は67問のリーダーシップにおけるイメージを五段階の重要度で図ります。例えば、‘リーダーは人生経験があるべきである’ という質問に対し、非常に重要であると思われる場合は1を、かなり重要であると思われる場合は2、重要であると思う場合は3、ほどほどに重要である場合は4、重要ではない場合は5、というように回答して頂きます。回答者の名前の記入欄は一切無く、回答も回収後は平均値という形で公表されますので、個人のプライバシーは完全に守られます。また、調査に際する参加は任意と致します。

以上の条件に同意頂けましたら、統計情報と調査票にお答えのうえ、同封の返信用封筒にて、平成15年4月1までにご返送下さいますようお願い申し上げます。

何かご質問等ございましたら、渡辺紀子 0422-52-2262、watanabe_noriko@stumail.emporia.edu、1-620-343-7622 (USA)、又はエンポリア州立大学心理学部、心理学博士ジョージ・ヤンシー 1-620-341-5806 (USA)、yanceyge@emporia.edu、までご連絡下さいますようお願い申し上げます。

この度は調査に御参加頂き、誠に有難うございます。

草々

渡辺紀子

George Yancey

Appendix H

(Japanese Demographic Information Sheet)

統計情報

下記の質問で、該当する項目の印しを黒く塗りつぶして下さい。

- 年齢: _____ 性別: 男性 女性
- 学歴: 中卒 四年制大学卒
- 高、専門卒 航空大学卒
- 短卒 大学院修士、博士過程卒
- 四年制大学中退 その他

どの部署に携わっていますか？

(販売、貿易、財務、販売、広報等)

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> 販売
<input type="radio"/> 広報
<input type="radio"/> 業務
<input type="radio"/> 財務
<input type="radio"/> 管理
<input type="radio"/> 人事
<input type="radio"/> 顧客
<input type="radio"/> 秘書 | <input type="radio"/> 整備
<input type="radio"/> 乗務員
<input type="radio"/> 客室乗務員
<input type="radio"/> 地上係員
<input type="radio"/> エンジニア
<input type="radio"/> 教育訓練
<input type="radio"/> その他
<hr style="border: 0.5px solid black;"/> <input type="radio"/> _____ <small style="font-size: 8px;">詳細</small> |
|--|--|

下記の中でどのポジションに携わっていますか？

- 管理職以外
- 係長、スーパーバイザー
- 部長、中間管理職
- 専門職 (例 教職員、税理士、弁護士等)
- 管理職トップ
- 社長、代表
- その他

_____ 詳細

リーダーシップを成功させる上で、最も重要だと思われる特性を順番に五つあげて下さい (思いつく範囲内で結構です)。

- 最も重要
1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
 4. _____
 5. _____

Appendix I
(Japanese Leadership Perception Questionnaire)

リーダーシップのイメージにおける調査票



あなたの所属する会社、団体、組織における、リーダー（スーパーバイザー、係長、部長等）の特性に関して、その重要度をうかがいます。リーダーの特性は五つに分かれています（身体的特性、外的特性、性格特性、能力と行動力の特性、環境的特性）。個人のイメージをもとに、それぞれの項目の重要度をはかり、それに該当する丸を塗りつぶして下さい。

	非常に重要 である	かなり重要 である	重要である	ほどほどに 重要である	重要 ではない
身体的特性	リーダーは身体的にふさわしくあるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは身なりが整っているべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは健康であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは魅力的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	総合して、リーダーにとって外見（身体的）は重要である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
外的特性	リーダーは犯罪歴があるべきではない。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは経済的に安定しているべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーはリーダーシップの地位において経験があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは人生経験があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは他の社員と政治感や宗教面で似ているべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは大学卒であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	総合して、リーダーにとって経歴は重要である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
性格的特性	リーダーは知的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは熱心さ/カリスマ性/社交性に富んでいるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは、組織内で他の社員に対して気配りをするべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは創造的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは順応性/柔軟性があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは正直で道徳感があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは模範として指揮をとるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは付き合いやすくあるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは権力をふるい威圧するべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは事例をもとに指揮をとるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは言動を明確に表現するべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは支配的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは立派であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは野心があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは協力的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは楽観的であるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーはユーモア性があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーはチームプレーヤーであるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	リーダーは自信があるべきである。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	総合して、リーダーにとって性格や性質は重要である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



リーダーシップのイメージにおける調査票

能力・行動力の特性

	非常に重要 である	かなり重要 である	重要である	ほどほどに 重要である	重要 ではない
リーダーは他人を説得する能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーはコミュニケーション能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは他人のやる気を起こさせる能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは正しい決断をする能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーはまとめる能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは修正をいとわない。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは（グループの）不調和をまとめる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは周囲の努力を共通のゴールに向ける事ができる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは組織・グループの代弁者である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは全てのグループメンバーを同等に扱う。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは成果を達成するために他人を操作する能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは他人に何が彼らに期待されているかを知らせる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは成果を得る、またはゴールを達成する能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは仕事の遅れ/不明確さ/ストレスに寛容であることができる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは組織のメンバーにとって快いことをする。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは明確な仕事の基準（水準）を維持する。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは問題解決において部下の意見を取り入れる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは新しい状況に適応する能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは責任を委譲する。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは難しい問題を効果/効率的に解決する能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは聞く。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは行動を起こす前にグループに相談をする。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは部下にルールや規則を要求する。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは人を扱いや監督をする能力がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーはメンバーによってなされた提案を運営に生かす。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは緊急事態が発生したときに全責任をとる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーはリスクを負う。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
総合して、リーダーにとって能力や行動は重要である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは採用、解雇、そして/又は、報酬を与える立場にいる。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは外部の権力のある人から任命される。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは大多数によって選出される。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは部下の援護がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは仲間の援護がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
リーダーは権力で人の援助がある。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
総合して、リーダーにとって環境的特性は重要である。	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

環境的特性

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Noriko Watanabe

Signature of Author

July 21, 2003

Date

Cultural Differences in Perception of Leadership
between the U.S. and Japan

Title of Thesis

Ray Cooper

Signature of Graduate Office Staff

July 21, 2003

Date Received

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