

AN EMPIRICAL TEST OF THE SITUATIONAL
LEADERSHIP® MODEL IN JAPAN

by

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ABSTRACT

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Since the collapse of the “bubble economy” in the early 1990s, Japanese companies have been struggling with financial difficulty, and have been forced to change their structure, strategies, and management systems. The trend of learning and importing successful American management theories and systems expanded to Japanese society. The Situational Leadership® model, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, is an example of this phenomenon. However, many cross-cultural studies propose that Japanese society has a different culture and values from American society. Therefore, by focusing on Situational Leadership®, this study examined whether models developed in the United States are suitable for Japanese companies. The results partially

support the basic principles of the model. However, findings indicated that the Japanese have a preference for stronger relationships between leaders and members than American workers. These findings suggest that it is necessary to interpret the principles of management differently when Japanese companies use American management models.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Changing Trends of Management Style

1.1.1.1 Growth of the Japanese Economy

Management trends in the world have changed with changing of economic and social situations. After World War II, the Japanese economy enjoyed historical and rapid development for forty years. One indicator of economic growth, the percent change of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) from the previous year, averaged 9.1% between 1957 and 1973, before the first oil shock (Government of Japan 2006a). After the first oil shock, the rate of GDP growth kept steady at an average of 4% (ibid.). By the 1980s, the automobile and electronic industries had achieved remarkable success. The World Competitiveness Report, published annually by the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) in Switzerland, ranked Japan in first place in 1989 (Yoshikawa 2002; Jitsumori 2005). Numerous researchers and scholars in Western countries, including the United States, made efforts to understand Japanese organizational structure and management strategies, and tried to import Japanese features into their companies (Abegglen 2004). A number of articles and papers focusing on attitude, values, quality management, leadership, and human-resource management in Japan had been published by the late 1980s (Godkin, Endoh, and Cahill,

1995; Godkin, Doughty, and Hoosier, 2003). Most articles pointed out that group oriented and socially organized Japanese management styles contributed to this rapid economic success (Lim 1981). For instance, western managers soon adopted quality control circles, or “Kaizen,” the Japanese system that all workers in a factory participated repeatedly in controlling the quality of the product, and improved their own ability and skill for higher quality and productivity (Ouchi 1981). It was characterized as being a feature of the production process and management system that caused Japanese industries to show remarkable productivity, make high-quality products that met customers’ needs, and gain workers’ high morale (Abegglen 1958, 1984; Lim 1981; Ouchi 1981).

According to Abegglen (1958), three traits were emphasized in Japanese industry that also affected productivity: lifetime commitment (employment), the seniority wage and promotion system, and a labor union within a company. Most Japanese companies recruited new employees only once a year in April when the Japanese Fiscal Year begins. All new employees were new graduates from junior high, high school, or university. They kept working until retirement age, when they were approximately fifty-five years old. Abegglen (1958) referred to this trait as lifetime commitment or employment. Once new employees started working, their peers were promoted within the hierarchy of the company and their salary increased all together, regardless of their job performance. This was what Abegglen (1958) called the seniority wage and promotion system. Also, large companies in Japan each had a labor union. All employees except administrative people participated in this union, and the

representatives of the union negotiated with their company about wage, welfare, and working environment. This system of a labor union within one company rather than across a whole industry was considered a feature of the Japanese company that tied employees to their company. Like Abegglen, Ouchi (1981) summarized the features of Japanese organizations into “lifetime employment, slow evaluation and promotion, non-specialized career paths, implicit control mechanisms, collective decision making, collective responsibility, wholistic concern (58),” and he named the organization with these features the “Type Z organization.” Ouchi (1981) claimed that what American companies should learn from the Type Z organization was the importance of trust, subtlety, and intimacy among employees and managers if they sought to increase effectiveness and productivity.

1.1.1.2 Declining of Japanese Economic Power

However, the economic situation in Japan turned after the collapse of the “bubble economy” of the early 1990s, and deteriorated quickly. The GDP rate of change decreased from 4% to 1%, at its lowest point descending to -1.3% (Government of Japan, Cabinet Office, Economic and Social Research Institute 2006a, b), and many companies faced serious financial difficulties. The World Competitive Report of IMD ranked Japan second and the United States 1st in 1994 (Yoshikawa 2002; Garelli 2004; Jitsumori 2005), but by 2005 the ranking of Japan had dropped to 21st (IMD 2006). With the economy hovering terribly low, Japanese industrial structure, accounting structure, and corporate strategies were forced to change, and the much praised and much studied Japanese management styles went out of vogue even in Japan.

Meanwhile, the economic power of the United States increased during the same period. As a result, the United States' management styles become popular worldwide. Since then, Japanese companies and scholars have analyzed successful American companies and business persons and attempted to use their business administration models, strategies, and human-management systems in Japanese organizations.

One clear indicator of this importing of American models is found in the language. For instance, in terms of administration, "corporate governance," "global standard," "business model," and "supply chain" are the phrases used, and in terms of human resources, "leadership," "motivation," and "coaching" are used. Furthermore, they are all used as they are pronounced in English. They are written in katakana (the special Japanese set of syllabic characters used to spell foreign words phonetically) rather than translated into Japanese words (Abegglen 2004). Another indicator can be found in the changing of traditional employment systems, especially the system of lifetime employment and wage and promotion by seniority, to the American style of management (ibid.). For instance, many companies recruit people with experience all year rather than recruiting new graduates only once a year. Some companies allow employees different wages and positions in a company according to their job performance rather than the seniority system.

A further indicator of the trend is that as the Japanese business world absorbed knowledge and learned skills of the American business styles, the number of training programs developed in the United States but used in Japan has increased. A number of Japanese branches and agencies of consultant companies hold various training seminars

created by American scholars and consultants, such as Peter F. Drucker, a pioneer of the study of organization management, David C. McClelland, a developer of competency theory, Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, proponents of the Situational Leadership® model, and Steven R. Covey, author of *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*.

1.1.2 The Need for Further Examination of Suitability of American Models in Japanese Organizations

1.1.2.1 A Company Using the Situational Leadership® Model

A utility company headquartered in Tokyo is no exception to the trend discussed above. In addition to an unhealthy Japanese economy, liberalization originating from the Electricity Utility Industry Law in Japan forced the company to reorganize and change its management system to survive in a more competitive business environment. Electricity in Japan has been traditionally supplied by ten dominant electric power companies in ten governmental regions. However, since 1997's liberalization under the Electricity Utility Industry Law, the law has phased in the opening of the electricity market to new companies. As a result, new domestic and international companies can join this market, and the market is more competitive (Federation of Electric Power Companies of Japan 2006).

The company stands at a most important point. It is attempting to survive in this new competitive situation. Thus, the company is attempting to train employees in various ways to develop their skills and knowledge for managing the new situation and producing desired outcomes more effectively. These attempts include new leadership-training programs that use American management and leadership theories. The

Situational Leadership® model, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, is used in one leadership training program in my company. In this leadership-development training, employees learn not only task-management skills but also methods of communication among employees. The purposes of the training are to share information and to improve the transparency of that information. By doing so, employees are expected to deal better with the rapid change of the business situation, to increase responsibility for their work and for the meaningfulness of their working experience, and, finally, to achieve higher productivity.

It is time now for the company to examine the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model for the company, and adjust before expanding the program to the rest of the employees. Therefore, in this study I focus on the Situational Leadership® model and examine whether this United States-based model fits smoothly in Japanese companies.

1.1.2.2 Prior Studies of the Situational Leadership® Model in Japan

Two studies provided important information for suitability of the Situational Leadership® model in Japanese organizations. The Situational Leadership® model defined a leader's leadership style as the combination of strengths of a leader's "relationship behavior" and "task behavior," and a follower's readiness level as the combination of degrees of "ability" and "willingness" to accomplish a certain task (Hersey and Blanchard 1969; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001). Hayashi and Matsubara (1998) concluded from a study of the staff of local governments that their morale measure was related to a certain combination of leadership style and readiness

level, but the measure of the quality of the relationship between leaders and members was related only to the leadership style, not to the readiness level. Takahara and Yamashita (2004) investigated the Situational Leadership® model among employees in two companies in the manufacturing industry. Their findings suggested that followers perceived the leaders' leadership styles as best when the leaders showed both more task and more relationship behavior, regardless of followers' readiness level.

These results raise doubts about the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model in Japanese organizations. However, since the scales used in this previous research were different from the scales that Hersey and Blanchard developed and used for Situational Leadership® training, there was room for further testing using the scales that consulting companies use. Therefore, my study used the same scales that Situational Leadership® training used to examine whether the Situational Leadership® model suited Japanese organizations, and then discussed effective leadership models for Japan. The findings of this study were meaningful not only to prove theoretical assumptions of the Situational Leadership® model but also to improve leadership-training suitability of Japanese workers.

1.2 Situational Leadership® Model and Japanese Workers: Assumption

The Situational Leadership® model claimed that combinations of the leader's leadership style and the follower's readiness level affect the follower's outcomes. It defined a leader's leadership style as the combination of strengths of a leader's "relationship behavior" and "task behavior," and a follower's readiness level as the combination of degrees of the "ability" and "willingness" to accomplish a certain task.

While the model considered that the leader's effectiveness should include not only job performance but also human interaction (Hersey and Blanchard 1969; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001), it did not precisely define effectiveness, nor did it define components of job performance or human interaction (Goodson, McGee and Cashman 1989; Greaff 1997).

One of the core concepts of the Situational Leadership model was "people who feel good about themselves produce good results (Blanchard and Johnson 1982, 19)," and the people felt good when their needs, or motivations, were satisfied (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001). In addition to this concept, Hersey et al. (2001) believed that peoples' needs and motivation changed according to their growth level, or development of readiness level. Therefore, Hersey et al. (2001) emphasized that leaders should change their leadership styles according to followers' readiness levels if they expected better followers' outcomes. Their Situational Leadership® model suggested that dividing leadership style and readiness level combinations into four pairs was the most predictable way to satisfy followers' needs. This was based on western theories. However, according to Hofstede (1991), the Japanese had a different culture and different values than the Americans, and these differences affected peoples' needs and motivation. For instance, the Japanese preferred dependence on their supervisor and complied to official rules and manners more than Americans (Hofstede 1991). Therefore, this study assumed that the recommended pairs of leadership style that correspond with follower's readiness level, in order for the Japanese to satisfy

followers' needs and motivation, should be different from those recommended for Americans.

1.3 Outline

This study focused on the Situational Leadership® model and examined whether this model fits Japanese organizations.

Chapter 1 explained the background of this study, the reason why this study was needed, and reviewed my research questions and hypotheses.

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature related to this study. First, I presented the history of development of the Situational Leadership® model and clarify the core principles of the model. Second, I discussed how traditional motivation theories influence the main concepts of the Situational Leadership® model. Third, I summarized the cultural differences between Japan and the United States and illustrate how these cultural differences were related to these traditional motivation theories, discussing how their effectiveness might change in the Japanese organizational context.

Chapter 3 explained my research design for examining whether the Situational Leadership® model suited Japanese organizations. The variables and measurement instruments were defined, and the sampling methods and subjects were described.

Chapter 4 analyzed the data collected by my survey of Japanese workers, and then discussed whether the Situational Leadership® model fitted Japanese workers.

Chapter 5 summarized my findings and gave suggestions to Japanese organizations for using this Situational Leadership® model for training programs.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviewed the literature related to the Situational Leadership® model and to cross-cultural studies of management. First, it described the history and development of the Situational Leadership® model in order to understand the core principles of this model. Leadership theories, such as the Ohio leadership study, the Managerial Grid, and the theory of 3-D management style, that encouraged Hersey and Blanchard to develop the Situational Leadership® model were discussed. Second, the Situational Leadership® model was explained along with the terminology that Hersey and Blanchard defined. Third, motivation theories—such as Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s two factors, and McClelland’s needs theory, that influenced the twin concepts of “leadership style” and “follower’s readiness level” that the Situational Leadership® model suggests—were described. Fourth, Hofstede’s fifth dimension of culture and the cultural difference between Japan and the United States were discussed. Fifth and finally, the effects of cultural differences on motivation theories and the Situational Leadership® model, along with my assumptions and research questions, were summarized.

2.1 History of the Situational Leadership® Model

The Situational Leadership® model was introduced by Hersey and Blanchard for the first time as “the Life Cycle theory” in their article in *Management and Training*

in 1969. Their Life Cycle theory claimed that effective leadership styles in organizations were similar to parents' child-raising styles which change corresponding with their children's maturity (Hersey and Blanchard 1969; Blanchard and Hersey 1996; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 1996, 2001). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1969), the Ohio State University's research on successful leadership, Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, and Reddin's 3-D model inspired them to develop this model. At a later time, they revised their Life Cycle theory into the Situational Leadership® model to suit the workplace, and improved it, first with Situational Leadership® and then with Situational Leadership II® (Blanchard and Hersey 1996; Hersey et al. 1996, 2001). This study utilized the Situational Leadership® model which was described in the *Management of Organizational Behavior: Leading Human Resources* (Hersey et al. 2001).

To understand the core principles of the Situational Leadership® model, the following sections presented three leadership theories: the Ohio leadership study, the Managerial Grid, and the theory of 3-D management style, all of which encouraged Hersey and Blanchard to develop the Situational Leadership® model.

2.1.1 Ohio Leadership Studies

Prior to the research on successful leadership style of Ohio State University, most studies on leaders were designed to investigate the common traits that successful leaders had (Stogdill 1948; Stogdill and Coons 1957). Instead of researching personal characteristics of leaders, the Ohio State University study, directed by Stogdill and Coons, focused on their behavior. They examined contributing factors for successful

leadership. (Stogdill and Coons 1957). Stogdill and Coons defined leadership in their study as “the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of group toward a shared goal (ibid., 7).” Their studies were conducted in various organizations, such as the Air Force, Navy, schools, and civil groups. Two major factors related to successful leaders’ behavior were brought into relief: one factor was behavior related to “friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship (ibid., 41),” and the other was behavior related to organizing and defining “the relationship between himself and the members of his crew (ibid., 42).” They named these two factors “consideration” and “initialing structure.” Subsequently, Daft and Steer (1986) redefined that “[c]onsideration is the extent to which leaders emphasize respect for subordinates, listen to their ideas, have regard for their feelings, and establish mutual trust with them (408),” and “[i]nitialing structure is the extent to which leaders define and direct subordinate work activities toward goal attainment (408).” The discovery of these two dimensions greatly influenced later leadership theories to change researchers’ perspectives to reflect the two dimensions, although the previous main stream of the leadership theories had focused on only one dimension, a bipolar one stretching between high relation and high task behavior (Hersey and Blanchard 1969).

2.1.2 Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the “Managerial Grid,” which comprised two dimensions: “concern for people” and “concern for production,” similar to the “consideration” and “initialing structure” of the Ohio State University. Blake and McCauley revised it as the “Leadership Grid” in their *Leadership Dilemmas—Grid*

Solutions in 1991 (Hersey at al. 1996, 2001). Blake and Mouton (1964) focused on “purpose(s),” “people,” and “hierarchy (power)” as the common features of organizations and asked, “[h]ow are organization purposes achieved through people by bosses (Blake and Mouton 1964, 8)?” They developed the grid by setting “concern for people” on the horizontal axis and “concern for production” on the vertical axis in order to express the attitudes of bosses. Each axis ranged on a scale of 1 to 9 from low to high. Then, Blake and Mouton called this grid the “Managerial Grid” and categorized the attitudes of bosses into 5 types on this grid: 1) 9,1: Authority-Obedience; 2) 1,9: Country Club Management; 3) 1,1: Impoverished Management; 4) 5,5: Organization Man Management; 5) 9,9: Team Management (Blake and Mouton 1964, 1985) (Figure 2.1). While they proposed that the ideal attitude was 9,9: Team Management, that stressed “participation as an interaction process based on openness and candor, strong initiative, thorough inquiry, effective advocacy, confrontational approach to conflict solving, appropriation delegation, sound teamwork, and two-way critique (Blake and Mouton 1985, 223),” they also understood it was difficult to actualize because followers did not always have the ability that leaders expected, and followers’ abilities were diverse.

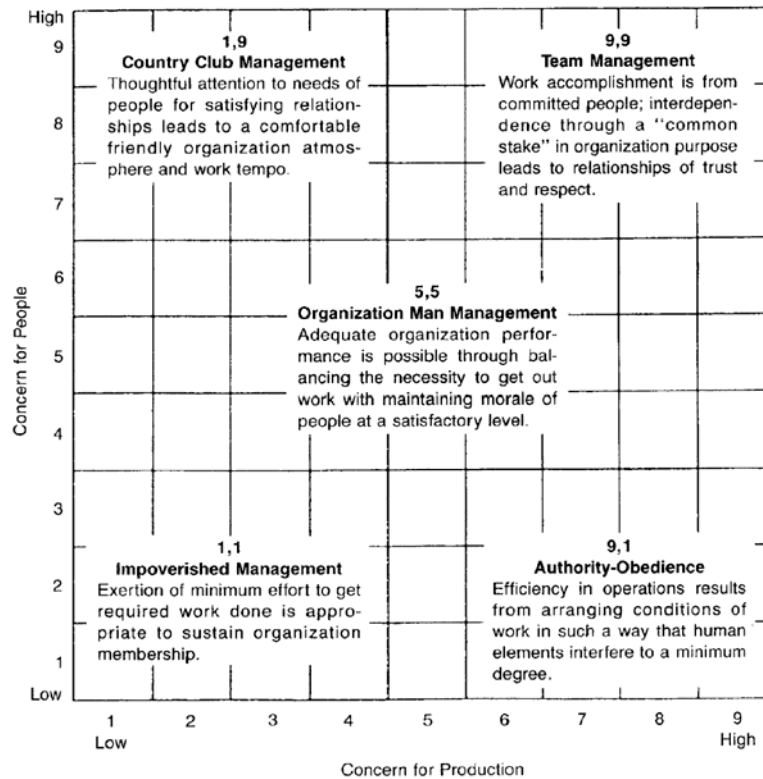


Figure 2.1 The Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton 1985, 12)

2.1.3 Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory

While many scholars argued for leadership models plotted on two dimensions, Reddin (1967) was the first person to describe effective leadership styles from the 3-dimensional perspective. He reviewed numerous previous leadership theories and proposed to add one more dimension "effectiveness" to the two dimensions; "relationship orientation" and "task orientation," which were referred to by most researchers. Reddin named a total of twelve leadership styles, four styles for each aspect on the third dimension. Effectiveness had three aspects: less effective, latent, and more effective (Figure 2.2). For instance, on the more effective level, 1) low-task and low-

relationship style was named “Bureaucrat”; 2) high-task and low-relationship style was named “Benevolent Autocrat”; 3) low-task and high-relationship style was named “Developer”; and 4) high-task and high-relationship style was named “Executive.” He believed that different qualities in managers influenced managerial effectiveness and defined the quality as the ability of managers to adjust their leadership styles, which were categorized into four styles, or four quadrants, which defined the combination of strength of “relationship” and “task” to “the style of demands of the situation (Reddin 1967, 15),” consisting of demands from three aspects: 1) the job, 2) the superior, and 3) subordinates (Reddin, 1967).

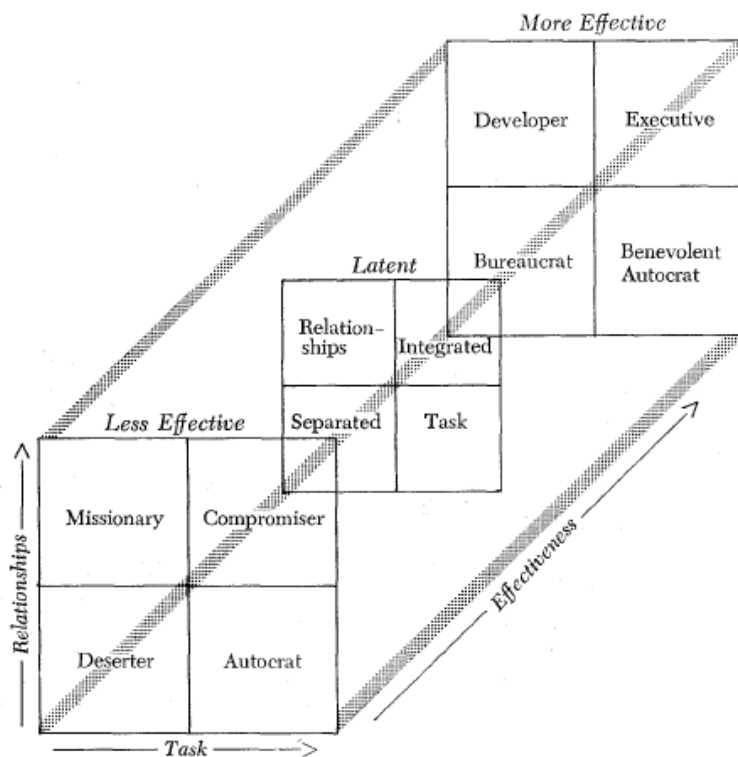


Figure 2.2 The 3-D Management Theory (Reddin 1967, 14)

2.1.4 Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory

Reddin's 3-D theory which added effectiveness and mentioned the demands of the situation encouraged Hersey and Blanchard to develop their Life Cycle Theory (Hersey and Blanchard 1969; Hersey and Blanchard 1996; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 1996, 2001). While Blake and Mouton, and Reddin, focused on managers' attitude, Hersey and Blanchard concentrated on leaders' behavior and added an effectiveness dimension to the two dimensions, namely "relationship behavior" and "task behavior," which were the same concepts as the "consideration" and "initialing structure" of the Ohio State University. They believed that effectiveness of leaders' behavior was related to appropriateness of leaders' leadership styles to followers' maturity.

For instance, leaders should detail working roles, job knowledge, and skills to newly hired employees with low maturity and they should direct them closely (Quadrant One). Next, as followers mature, leaders needed to move from detailed instruction to joint discussion of goals but still direct them closely (Quadrant Two). Later, leaders and followers should not only discuss job practices and goals but also leaders should let followers make some decisions related to the task (Quadrant Three). Finally, leaders should leave all decision making to matured followers (Quadrant Four) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969) (Figure 2.3). Developing this theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) realized that the process of changing appropriate leadership style according to followers' maturity was similar to parenting. They named their model "the Life Cycle Theory."

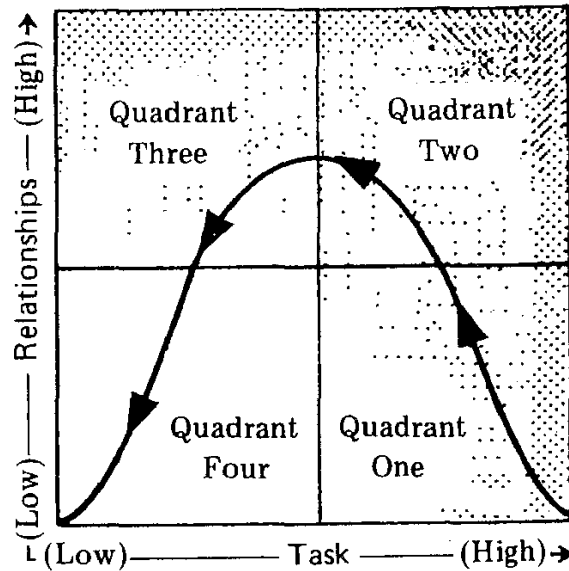


Figure 2.3 The Life Cycle Theory (Hersey and Blanchard 1969, 29)

2.1.5 The Situational Leadership® Model

Hersey and Blanchard revised the Life Cycle Theory as the Situational Leadership® model in their *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources* in 1972. At the same time, they changed “maturity” as the term expressing followers’ developing degree of “readiness” in order to be suitable for the workplace. They have revised the Situational Leadership® model several times since 1973. In the 8th edition of *Management of Organizational Behavior: Leading Human Resources* (2001), Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson defined the leadership style of an individual as “the behavior pattern, as perceived by others, that a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of those others (Hersey et al. 2001, 117).” Then they utilized

four quadrants within the two dimensions “relationship behavior (supportive behavior)” and “task behavior (guidance)” to categorize leadership styles into four groups according to the combination of the strengths of these two dimensions. They defined each dimension as follows:

“Relationship behavior is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multiway communication. The behaviors include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors (Hersey et al. 2001, 173).”

“Task behavior is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviors include telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it (ibid., 173).”

Then, each leadership style was called high-task and low-relationship behavior “Style 1 (S1): Telling”; high-task and high-relationship “Style 2 (S2): Selling”; low-task and high-relationship behavior “Style 3 (S3): Participating”; and low-task and low-relationship behavior “Style 4 (S4): Delegating” (Hersey at el. 2001).

- Telling (S1). Provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.
- Selling (S2). Explain your decisions and provide opportunity for clarification.
- Participating (S3). Share ideas and facilitate in making decisions.
- Delegating (S4). Turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation (Hersey at el. 2001, 196).

Furthermore, Hersey at el. (2001) considered that followers’ readiness consisted in their ability and willingness, and defined “[a]bility is the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity (176)” and

“[w]illingness is the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task (176).” And they ranked four followers’ readiness levels from the lowest according to the combination of the levels of these two factors, 1) Readiness level 1 (R1): Unable and unwilling or insecure, 2) Readiness level 2(R2): Unable but willing or confident, 3) Readiness level 3 (R3): Able but unwilling or insecure, and 4) Readiness level 4 (R4): Able and willing or confident.

Moreover, effective leadership style changed according to the improvement of followers’ readiness level from low to high, because followers’ needs and motivation changed corresponding with their development. The most appropriate combinations of a readiness level and leadership style were suggested as S1 for R1, S2 for R2, S3 for R3, and S4 for R4 (Figure 2.4).

Readiness Level		Appropriate Style
R1, Low Readiness Unable and unwilling or insecure	⇒	S1, Telling High task-low relationship
R2, Low to Moderate Readiness Unable but willing or confident	⇒	S2, Selling High task-high relationship
R3, Moderate to High Readiness Able but unwilling or insecure	⇒	S3, Participating High relationship-low task
R4, High Readiness Able and willing or confident	⇒	S4, Delegating Low relationship-low task

Figure 2.4 Leadership Styles Appropriate for Various Readiness Levels (Source: Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001, 188)

Figure 2.5 on the next page described these combinations of the Situational Leadership® model on the two-dimensional map.

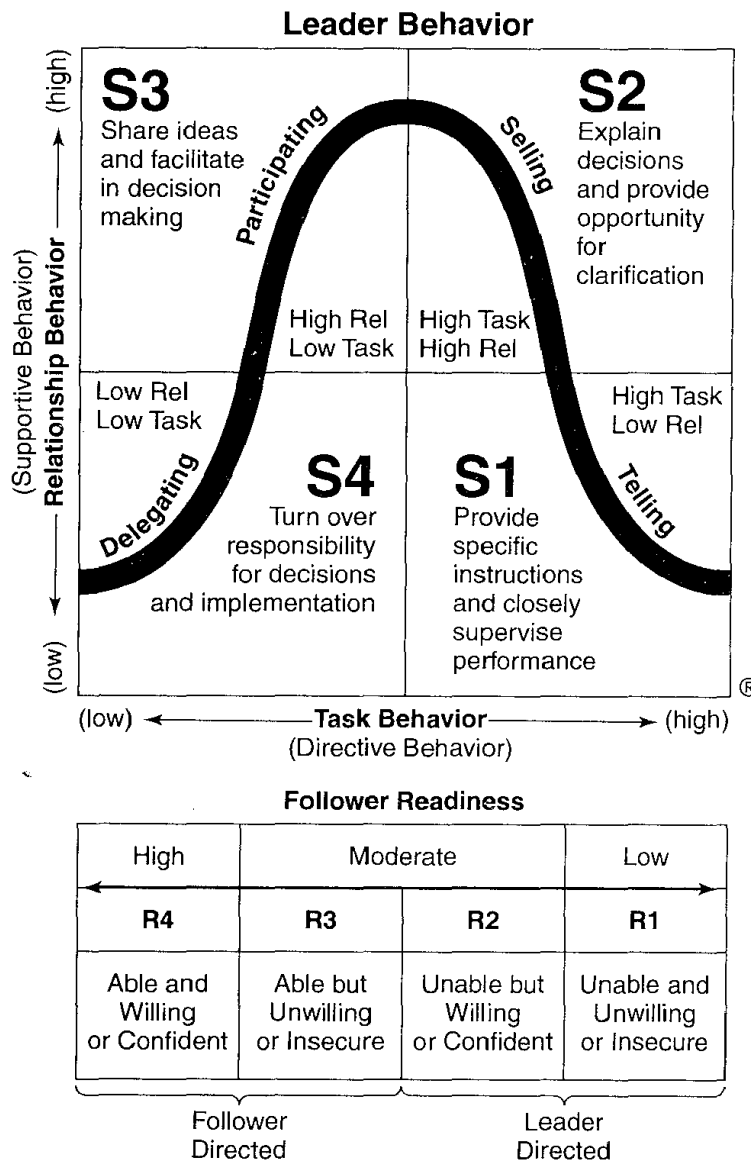


Figure 2.5 The Situational Leadership® Model (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 182)

The Situational Leadership® model emphasized that there was no unique leadership style that was effective for all situations (Hersey et al. 2001). The reasons were as follows. First, because followers produced much better outcomes when they felt

satisfied with their needs related to their work, leaders should meet followers' needs to increase productivity. Second, followers' needs changed according to the development of their experience, knowledge, skills, responsibility, and commitment to accomplish their tasks. Therefore, leaders should change their leadership style according to followers' development level, what Hersey et al. defined as readiness level (Hersey et al. 2001).

2.2 The Situational Leadership® Model and Motivation Theories

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001) used motives and needs as synonyms and defined a need, as “something within an individual that prompts that person to action (25).” Managers who motivated their followers tactfully, in other words, leaders who led followers effectively, gave followers incentives to satisfy their needs. The Situational Leadership® model assumed that there were different needs according to followers' readiness levels and then suggested that an appropriate leadership style directed to followers should meet these different needs. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson's (2001) four combinations of readiness level and leadership style were influenced by Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and McClelland's needs theory. The following sections explained how three motivation theories were developed and how these theories described human motivations.

2.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1970), a humanistic psychologist, suggested that the basic needs of human beings were composed in a hierarchy according to their relative levels of predominance, and the order of the hierarchy was common across all cultures of the

world. He attempted to integrate prior motivation theories and needs theories which dealt mainly with patients of psychotherapists, and named his result “a holistic-dynamic theory.” Maslow argued that these theories had to apply also to normal healthy people and even to successful famous personages. He summarized them as the five basic human needs: physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

According to Maslow (1970), since the first needs, physiological needs, such as hunger and thirst, were necessary factors for human beings to stay alive, these needs were fundamental. For instance, when threatened with a lack of food, a person concentrated on obtaining something to eat and was not attracted by any other factors which might satisfy the other needs that arose in other situations, such as safety, love, and esteem. Once the physiological needs were satisfied to a certain extent, safety and security needs became important. These needs included dependence, freedom from threats, and the presence of rules, laws, and restrictions. Evidence of this type of need was acquired from the observation of children’s behavioral preferences for a ruled society where they could estimate easily what would happen next. When the first two levels of needs were satisfied, the third, belonging and love needs, came up in people’s minds. In this situation, people longed for relationships in both society and community with parents, friends, lovers, spouse, siblings, offspring, colleagues, and so forth. Once these three levels of needs were fulfilled, people began to demand independence, freedom, respect, and honor from other people; that was, they exhibited esteem needs. Finally, the need of self-actualization came to the surface. In this highest stage of the

hierarchy, people sought to be what was innate in them. These five levels of needs, characterized by movement up the hierarchy after each comparatively primitive need was satisfied, were what Maslow proposed as the “Hierarchy of Needs.”

2.2.2 Herzberg's Two Factors

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) showed that there were two strata of factors that led people to be satisfied or dissatisfied with their work. They surveyed a total of 200 engineers and accountants in heavy industry in Pittsburgh, to examine what motivated workers. Since the United States was confronted with serious problems such as increases in unemployment and the crisis of industry at that time, Herzberg et al.(1959) believed that research on workers' attitudes toward the job could help solve these difficulties through understanding factors that adequately motivated workers. Industry could utilize workers more effectively by using these factors, and workers could become happier by realizing what they sought in their work. Doing research that asked workers whether they liked their work or not, how they felt toward various aspects of their work, and what they wanted from their work, Herzberg et al. focused on three questions: 1. what the job attitudes were, 2. what gave rise to these attitudes, and 3. what outcomes these attitudes brought. They used interviews and observation by psychologists, finding sixteen factors that were very frequently used in responses. The factors which led to job satisfaction were different from those which led to job dissatisfaction. While the factors related to task, evaluation of performance, and possibility of professional growth (including recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility, and work itself) made people satisfied and happy with their work, the

factors surrounding the working situation (including unfair treatment, disorganized work, a psychologically unhealthy work environment, fragile job security, and low salary) made people dissatisfied and unhappy with their work. The former were called “motivators,” “the factors that led to positive job attitudes do so because they satisfied the individual’s need for self-actualization in his work (Herzberg et al. 1959, 113),” and the latter “the factors of hygiene” because they were similar to the principles of medical hygiene which “operates to remove health hazards from the environment of man (ibid., 113) (Table 2.1).” Herzberg et al. found that if only the factors of hygiene were fulfilled, workers’ unhappiness and poor job performance could be avoided, but that high happiness and high job performance would never be achieved unless motivators were satisfied too. On the other hand, if people felt satisfied with motivators they could produce high performance and satisfaction with their job even if the needs of hygiene were not gratified.

Table 2.1 Herzberg’s Two Factors (Source: Herzberg et al. 1959)

Satisfiers Motivators	Dissatisfiers Factors of Hygiene
• Achievement	• Company policy and administration
• Recognition	• Supervision-technical
• Work itself	• Salary
• Responsibility	• Interpersonal relations – supervision
• Advancement	• Working conditions

While Maslow and Herzberg et al. stratified common needs of human beings, McClelland et al. proposed three major needs which individuals experience in different strengths.

2.2.3 McClelland's Needs Theory

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953), and McClelland (1961) focused on three types of needs, which they called motives, as important factors that exerted influences on human behavior and performance for given tasks. These were achievement, affiliation, and power. According to McClelland et al. (1953), "A motive is the learned result of pairing cues with affect or the conditions which produced affect (75)." Cues were visible triggers to behave and acted upon something, and conditions, or situations, included invisible contextual factors. For instance, textbook, test, and assignment could be cues, and the direction of test and assignment from instructors could be conditions. McClelland et al. (1953) and McClelland (1961) showed that the results and outcomes of motives were different according to different the combinations of motives and the strength of subject's needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. McClelland (1961) researched the relation between the strength of these three needs and task performance by using the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). TAT asked the subjects to describe and create stories from pictures that represented daily life related to a working situation, and then, researchers judged what needs the stories implied and counted the implied numbers of each need, what McClelland called the "scores" of each need. The research focused on the relationship among the need for achievement, the type of motive, and outcomes. Participants who had different levels of the need for

achievement were allocated the same assignment under the different conditions with one of three instructions which arouse the affiliation need, the achievement need, and the need to avoid tasks. Only under the situation where the need for achievement was aroused, participants with high need of Achievement got significantly higher points than those with low need of achievement. Under the third instruction, need to avoid tasks, people with high achievement need got lower scores than low achievement need people. These results suggest that people with high need of achievement did not necessarily accomplish high points for given assignments. Furthermore, according to McClelland (1961), people who had high need of achievement tended to prefer moderately difficult tasks to those which were easy or hard to deal with, since they felt satisfied with their achievement when they could recognize their success were fruits of their efforts. On the other hand, people with high needs of affiliation got high scores under the situations where they could realize that their results delight the researchers or where they could be appreciated in society. For instance, they were asked to participate in the experiment or survey by the friendly researchers, and the scores of the examination would be open for the public. The need of power was defined as “a concern with the control of the means of influencing a person (McClelland 1961, 167).” Although the need of achievement and the need of power of individuals were influenced by the behavior and upbringing of their parents, the need of affiliation was related to the relationship with the parents.

McClelland et al. (1965) showed that the strengths of needs were different among individuals, and the way to direct them was an important factor for determining whether individuals’ motives were aroused or not. When researchers or directors sought

high performance of their participants or subjects, they needed to use proper instruction, meeting the needs that each individual had.

2.2.4 Motivation Theories in the Situational Leadership® Model

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001) described the relation among these motivation theories in figure 2.6, and then summarized these into three points of basic human needs. First, *“People seek security.* There are certain “insecurity” needs fundamental to people’s existence. If these needs are not addressed, people will put their main focus on job performance. . . . We cannot neglect the security aspect of effective organizations.” Second, *“People seek social systems.* Whether we call this need relatedness, affiliation, interpersonal relations, or belongingness, we cannot neglect the sociability aspect of effective organizations.” Third, *“People seek personal growth.* Whether we call this self-actualization, advancement, growth, or need for achievement, “what is in it for me” is a powerful need. We cannot neglect the development aspect of effective organizations (Hersey et al. 2001, 73).” They proposed that for leadership theories to be effective, they should include these three points.

Maslow	Herzberg	McClelland
Self-Actualization	Motivators	Need for Achievement
Esteem		
Belongingness and Love	Hygiene Factors	Need for Affiliation
Safety and Security		
Physiological		

Figure 2.6 Three Motivation Theories (Source: Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001, 73)

The Situational Leadership® model suggested that effective leadership styles according to followers' readiness levels were based on these traditional motivation theories. In other words, individuals were in different development levels, and individuals also had different needs according to their development levels. In addition, individuals had different strengths of the needs related to their experience. These differences of individuals' needs produced different outcomes even if people were under the same conditions, and working on the same task. These motivation theories were the bases of the principle of the Situational Leadership® model. Figure 2.7 explained the relationship between the Situational Leadership® model and three motivation theories.

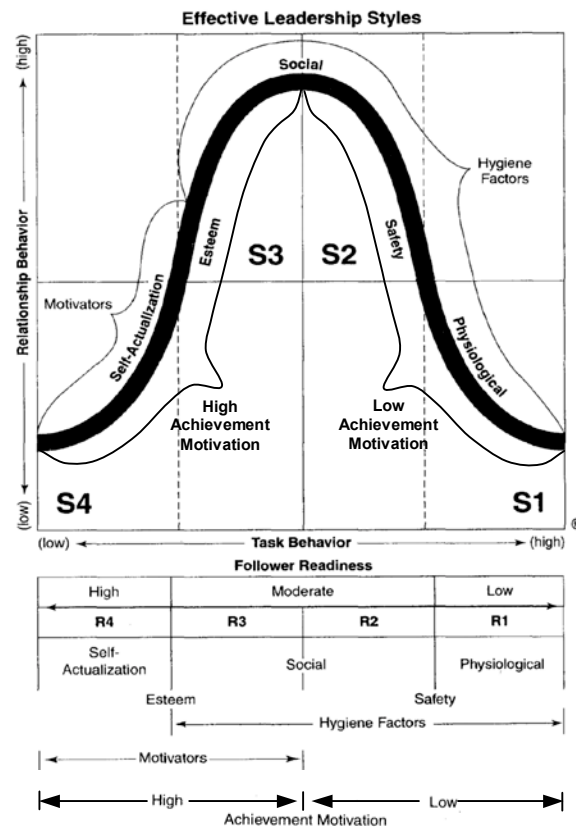


Figure 2.7 Relationship between the Situational Leadership® Model and Three Motivation Theories (Source: Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001, 452; 456)

2.3 Influence of Culture on Organizations

Hofstede, famous for his research on value differences among IBM employees in fifty-three countries and areas, argued that traditional motivation theories, such as Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland, were not always adaptable in all countries. This was because personal motivation and needs were strongly related to home culture and values.

2.3.1 Cultural Differences between Japan and the United States

Hofstede's research on values among workers in IBM branches determined that there were cultural differences on vocational values among countries and areas (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). He found four dimensions affecting how people from different cultures managed the same kind of problems. These four were: power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. Later, Hofstede and Bond (1988) added a fifth dimension based on research about Confucianism in China, long-short term orientation. The differences of values between Japan and the United States were clearly distinct on Hofstede's five dimensions.

A high score on the first dimension, power distance, meant subordinates preferred dependence on their leaders. When this score was low, people liked to discuss with their supervisor from the same power position, and desired a relationship of interdependence. The Japanese score on the power-distance dimension was 54, 33rd out of 53, while the United States was 40, placing 38th.

The second dimension, individualism-collectivism, argued that people who lived in a country that had a low score on individualism were from more collectivist

countries and belonged to a group, or society characterized by strong interdependency within their group. However, people who lived in a country with a high score of individualism had relatively loose ties among individuals, and their “collective” focused only on their family members. In the work situation, societies that centered on individuality focused on priority of tasks, while others focused more on relationships. While Japan scored 46 points, the 22nd position, the United States had 91 points, and it was in the first position—the most individualist. Hofstede claimed that while people in societies with strong individualism like the United States tended to focus on private time, freedom, and the worthwhileness of their jobs, people in societies with weaker individualism like Japan tended to focus on the opportunity of taking training, and the working environment. He summarized these features as self-assertion, a sense of guilt, and self-esteem for the country with high individualism, and harmony, a sense of shame, and saving face for the country with high collectivism (Hofstede 1980, 1991).

The third dimension, masculinity-femininity, described the degree of differences of gender role in the society. The Japanese score of masculinity was 95, in the 1st position among countries, and the United States was 62 points, in 15th. In a strongly masculine society, the roles of men and women were divided clearly. For instance, males had to work outside, and females had to keep house. Also, people, especially men, were expected to respect any big, strong, and fast things. However, in a weakly masculine society, the roles of sexes were not separated.

The fourth dimension was named uncertainty avoidance because it represented the extent to which people felt a threat against uncertain and unknown situations.

Although Japan scored 92, 7th out of 53 countries and areas, the United States by contrast scored 46, the 43rd rank. That meant Japan had very high levels of uncertainty avoidance, while the United States had a low one. Hofstede claimed that organizations and people in a society with high uncertainty avoidance tended to seek laws and rules, to create regulations, and to comply with them in order to reduce uncertain circumstances, even though these rules might have no effectiveness or validity. Meanwhile, people in societies with low uncertainty avoidance disliked formal rules in their working place (Hofstede 1980, 1991).

The last, and fifth, dimension was called long- and short-term orientation. In countries with a high score on long-term orientation, people indicated respect to their employers and managers because of “ordering relationships by status and observing this order (Hofstede 1991, 165)” and other values influenced by Confucianism. On the other hand, in the low-score countries, people desired immediate fulfillment of their needs. Japan had a relatively high score of 80, the 4th position out of 23 countries, and the United States ranked low with a score of 29, the 17th position (Hofstede 1991).

These scores on each dimension suggested there were significant cultural differences between Japan and the United States. In his work, Hofstede went further to connect these findings of cultural differences among countries to motivation theories, and offered the critique that most motivation theories have been developed based on the American culture.

Table 2.2 Summary of Hofstede's Comparison of Japan and the United States
(Source: Hofstede 1991)

Dimension	Japan (Score, Position)	United States(Score, Position)
1.Power Distance*	Moderate (54, 33)	Low (40, 38)
2.Individualism*	Moderate (46, 22)	High (91,1)
3.Masculinity*	High (95,1)	Moderate (62, 15)
4.Uncertainty Avoidance*	High (92,7)	Low (46,43)
5.Long-term Orientation**	High (80,4)	Low (29,17)

* the total of fifty-three countries and areas, ** the total of twenty-three countries

Summarizing a comparison between the Japanese and American culture along Hofstede's five dimensions (Table 2.2), Japanese had a stronger preference for relationships between individuals, greater respect for their supervisor, and stronger demands for rule and manners. The preference for relationship and respect to supervisor could be reworded to describe the need for relationship behavior, and respect toward a supervisor and demands for rule and manners could be reworded to describe the need for task behavior. Therefore, if Hofstede's comparison between Japan and the United States was set into a comparison of the two followership dimensions like the Situational Leadership® model, relationship and task behavior, the two countries would have a relative position like that shown in Figure 2.8.

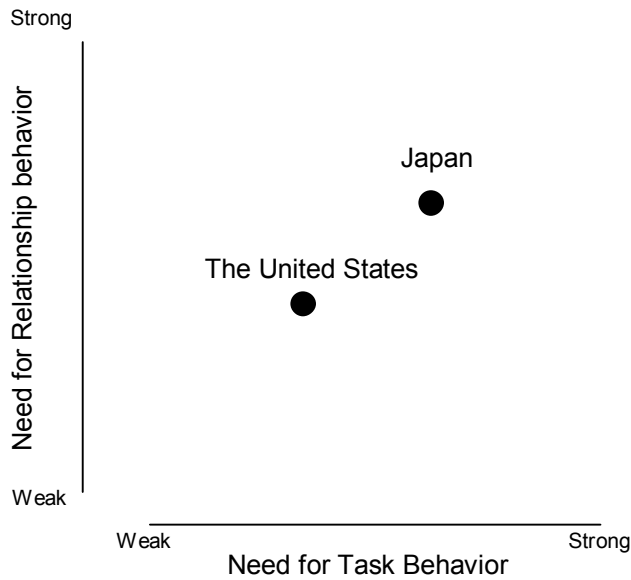


Figure 2.8 Location of Japan and the United States on the Task Behavior and Relationship Needs Map

The locations on Figure 2.8 implied that if the map showing task-relationship behavior was made for each country separately, the needs for relationship behavior and task behavior in Japan were stronger than those in the United States (Figure 2.9).

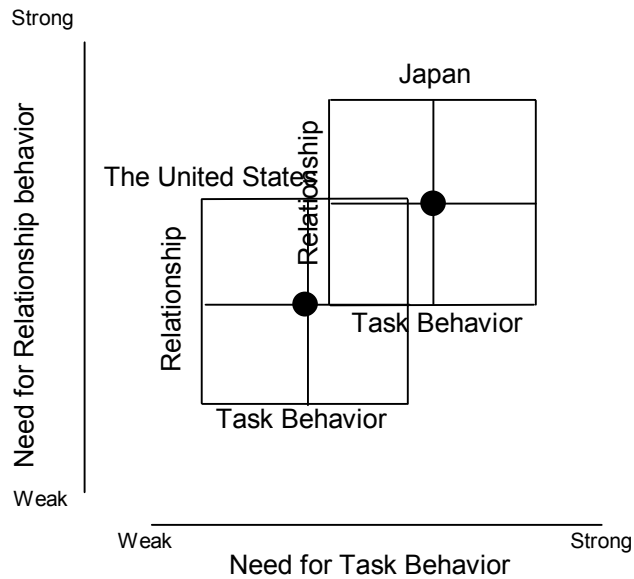


Figure 2.9 Estimated Position of Quadrants between Japan and the United States

2.3.2 Cultural Difference and Motivation Theories

Although Maslow (1970) suggested a universal hierarchy of five needs: 1. physiological, 2. safety and security, 3. belongingness, social and affiliative, 4. esteem and recognition, and 5. self-actualization, Hofstede (1991) pointed out that it was based on western culture and it had resulted from studies of American organizations. For instance, in the United States, characterized as having strong individualism and low uncertainty avoidance, esteem and recognition needs, and self-actualization motivate workers; however, in Japan, with moderate individualism and high uncertainty avoidance, the need for safety and security was a greater motivator for employees than self-actualization (Hofstede, 1991). Hofstede argued instead that the two-factor theory by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), with intrinsic factors or “Motivators,” and extrinsic factors or Hygiene factors, explained the universal features of motivation. Herzberg et al. (1959) claimed that what motivated people to behave and what fulfilled their job satisfaction were “Motivators” which were related to the task itself rather than Hygiene factors related to the working environment. Hofstede’s (1991) findings indicated that the factors categorized as “Hygiene factors” in the United States, low uncertainty avoidance and less power distance, were not always “Hygiene factors” but could be “Motivators” in the other countries. For instance, supervision was one of the “Hygiene factors” according to Herzberg’s theory; however in Japan, high uncertainty avoidance and moderate power distance, with an officially appointed person as “boss,” could be a motivator to encourage people to work because dependence on a powerful person was one of their basic needs.

Hofstede (1991) also determined the relation between McClelland's (1961) three needs; achievement, affiliation, and power, and his cultural dimensions. He found a negative correlation between the strengths of achievement needs and uncertainty avoidance. In other words, the United States, with low uncertainty avoidance, indicated a strong need for achievement, while Japan, with high uncertainty avoidance, had a weak need for achievement. According to Hofstede (1991), "[i]n choosing the achievement motive, the American McClelland has promoted a typical Anglo value complex to a universal recipe for economic success. A Frenchman, Swede, or Japanese would have been unlikely to conceive of a worldwide achievement motive (124)."

Hofstede's criticisms of the universalism of motivation theories suggested that researches of American society did not necessarily suit all societies. The Situational Leadership® model recommended certain leadership styles to meet followers' changing needs, or motivations, corresponding to the growth of followers' readiness level and it estimated followers' needs. However, these were based on American motivation theories and the practice in the United States. Leadership styles that met Japanese followers' needs might be very different from what the Situational Leadership® model suggested.

2.4 Summary

One of the core principles of the Situational Leadership model was "people who feel good about themselves produce good results (Blanchard and Johnson 1982, 19)," and that people felt good when their needs, or motivations, were satisfied (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001). Hersey et al. (2001) also believed that peoples' needs

and motivation changed as their readiness, or developmental level, changed. Therefore, the authors emphasized that leaders should change their styles according to followers' readiness level, if they wanted better follower outcomes. Their Situational Leadership® model divided both leadership style and readiness level into four quadrants, advising leaders to pair up with follower needs. This, however, was based on western theories. According to Hofstede (1991), the Japanese had a different culture and different values than the Americans, and these differences affected peoples' needs and motivation. Therefore, the pairs of leadership style and follower's readiness level should be different in Japan from those recommended for Americans.

Figure 2.10 showed exactly how the original Situational Leadership® model differed from my assumption of what the Japanese version of the situational leadership model should be.

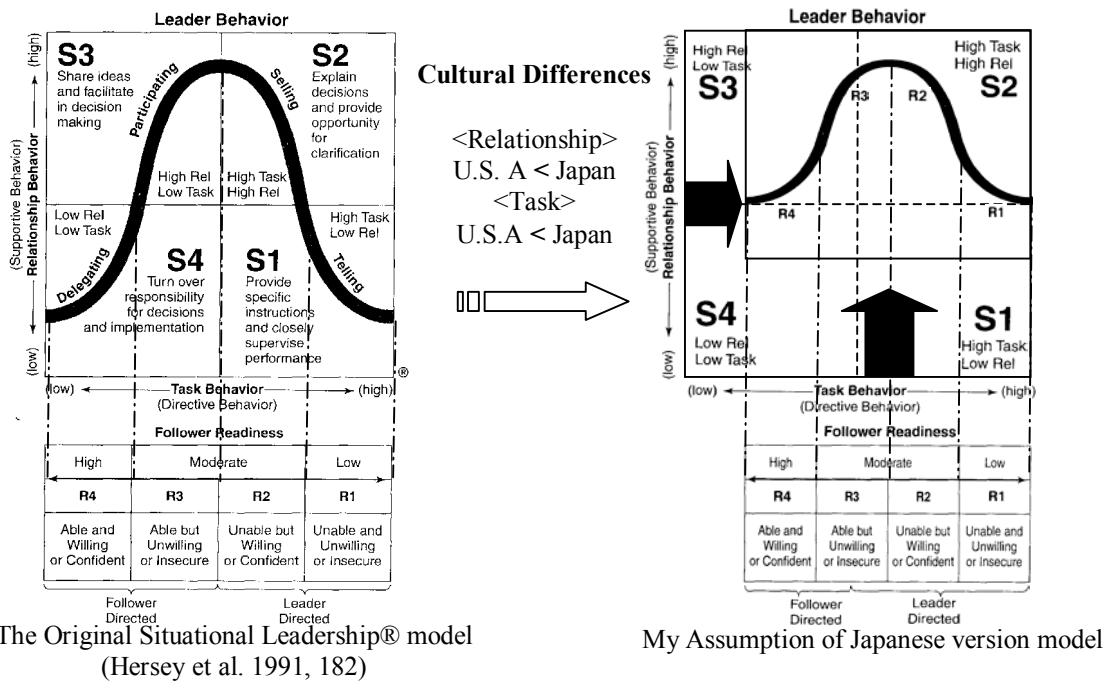


Figure 2.10 Relation between the Situational Leadership® Model and My Assumption

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presented the research design for examining whether the Situational Leadership® model suited the Japanese organization. Then, it defined the variables and measurement instruments. After that, the sampling method and the subject were described. Finally, I discussed the limitations of this research.

3.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

When considering my assumption of the differences between applications of the Situational Leadership® model to Japanese and American organizations, two research questions related to the fundamental principles of the Situational Leadership® model arose.

First, “do leadership styles that are effective in Japan change according to followers’ readiness level, as the Situational Leadership® model argues?”

The hypothesis based on the first research question was the following:

Hypothesis 1: The combination of the leader’s perceived leadership style and a follower’s readiness level affects the follower’s outcomes in Japan.

The second research question was, if the answer to the first research question was yes, “are the particular combinations of leadership style and readiness level that the Situational Leadership® model suggests correct for Japanese organizations?”

The second hypothesis tested the direct applicability of the Situational Leadership® model to Japanese organizations.

Hypothesis 2: The outcomes of the follower whose leader's style matches that recommended by the Situational Leadership model will be higher than the others.

If, as I assumed, Hypothesis 2 was not supported, hypotheses 3 and 4 tested Hofstede's logic as it would apply to the Situational Leadership® model.

Hypothesis 3: A person working with a leader whose style matches one's desired leadership has higher satisfaction than a person who is not.

Hypothesis 4: The leadership style that a follower desires one's leader to have differs according to one's readiness level. And the most preferable leadership style at each readiness level in Japan shifts generally toward more relationship and more task behaviors than the Situational Leadership® model holds.

The terms "match" and "mismatch" in Hypotheses 2 and 3 were defined, respectively, as follows. The term "match" of the leadership style in Hypothesis 2 was that the leadership style perceived by a subject was the same as that suggested by the Situational Leadership® model, and according to one's readiness level. Otherwise, there was a "mismatch." On the other hand, in Hypothesis 3, "match" was defined differently, as the leadership style perceived by a subject being the same as the leadership style which the subject desired. If not, the pair was a "mismatch."

3.2 Variables and Measurements

This study used two dependent variables: job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor, and three independent variables: follower's readiness level, leader's

perceived leadership style, desired leadership style of Japanese workers, to examine the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model in Japan. To decide the measurements of these five variables, prior studies were reviewed.

3.2.1 Prior Studies of the Situational Leadership® Model in Japan

There were two studies on the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model in Japanese organizations: Hayashi and Matsubara (1998), and Takahara and Yamashita (2004). Table 3.1 shows the variables and measurements that they used

Table 3.1 Prior Examinations of the Situational Leadership® Model in Japan

Researchers	Subject	Variables	Scales
Hayashi and Matsubara (1998)	Local government	Leadership Style	PM Leadership Scale
		Readiness Level	Motivator scale Tenure with current work
		Moral	Teamwork (4 items) Communication (4 items)
		Leader-Member quality	LMX (7 items)
		Commitment	Commitment Scale (12 items)
Takahara and Yamashita (2004)	Manufacturing industry	Leadership Style	PM Scale LBDQ-XII
		Readiness Level	51-item Scale Independence, Ability, Satisfaction of interaction, tiredness
		Job satisfaction	Job Satisfaction Scale (5 items)
		Satisfaction with supervision	Satisfaction with Supervision (3 items)

Hayashi and Matsubara (1998) defined two independent variables, leadership style and readiness level. And they defined three dependent variables as followers' morale, the quality of the relationship between leader and member, and followers' commitment to work. Hayashi and Matsubara (1998) used the PM leadership scale to determine leaders' leadership style. According to Misumi (1995), "P stands for performance and represents the kind of leadership that is oriented toward achievement of the group's goal and problem solving (216)," and "M stands for the kind of leadership that is oriented toward the group's self-preservation or maintenance and strengthening of the group process itself (216)." The PM leadership scale, including 18 items, was developed by Misumi, a Japanese management scholar who proposed the PM leadership theory in 1984. These two dimensions were measured by the PM leadership scale and four patterns of leadership style were categorized according to the combination of strengths of two dimensions (Misumi 1995), just as the Situational Leadership® model defined four leadership styles according to the combination of the strengths of "task behavior" and "relationship behavior." However, unlike the Situational Leadership® model, the PM leadership theory claimed that the PM style that meant stronger P, or task and M, or relationship behaviors, was the most effective leadership style rather than the other styles for all followers (Misumi 1995).

Hayashi and Matsubara (1998), in addition to the PM leadership scale, used their own scales to identify participating and delegating leadership styles. Hayashi and Matsubara (1998) used a 5-item motivator scale, developed by Misumi in 1984, and tenure with their current work to determine followers' readiness level. Misumi's

motivator scale asked the subjects about the degrees of their interest, consideration, confidence, and pride in their work and their will to improve the skills related to work (Hayashi and Matsubara 1998). Their study used the 4-item teamwork scale and the 4-item communication scale to measure followers' morale, and they used the Leader-Member Exchange Model (LMX) to analyze the quality of interaction between a leader and a follower (Hayashi and Matsubara 1998). According to Hayashi and Matsubara (1998), LMX was developed by Grean and Uhl-Bien in 1995 and it was a significant predictor of followers' morale, job performance, and turnover.

Takahara and Yamashita (2004) defined their independent variables as leaders' leadership style and follower's readiness level, and two dependent variables as followers' job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor. They used the PM Leadership Scale, developed by Misumi in 1984, and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) XII to determine leaders' leadership style.

According to Takahara and Yamashita (2004), LBDQ XII was developed by Stogdill and Coons in 1953 to measure leadership style in Ohio leadership studies, and it was designed to describe the strengths of leaders' two behaviors, "initiating structure" and "consideration." Takahara and Yamashita (2004) combined 51 items as a scale to measure followers' readiness level. These items asked the subjects about the levels of knowledge, information exchange, stress, and ability related to their work. And then, they developed a 5-item Job Satisfaction Scale, and a 3-item Satisfaction with Supervision Scale to measure dependent variables. Job Satisfaction Scale asked the subjects to rank their feeling about their job on a scale of 1 to 5. For instance, an item

asked to what degree you were happy with your job. Satisfaction with Supervision also asked the subjects to rank their feeling about their supervisors on the scale of 1 to 5. For instance, an item asked to what degree you were satisfied with your leader's evaluation of your performance.

Hayashi and Matsubara (1998) concluded from a study of the staff of the local governments that their morale measure was related to a certain combination of leadership style and readiness level. People with low confidence, pride, interest, and consideration of their work produced high outcomes when they were working with the leaders who made decisions about tasks and directed them closely, as the Situational Leadership® model suggested that Telling style suited for followers with low readiness level. However, the Leader-Member Exchange was related only to the leadership style, not to the readiness level. This result suggested that the followers' satisfaction with supervisor was always high when their leaders behaved so as to maintain their relationship and to discuss tasks with together, as the PM leadership theory argued that the combination of stronger task and relationship behaviors, PM style, was the most effective leadership style for all followers.

Takahara and Yamashita (2004) investigated the Situational Leadership® model among employees in two companies in the manufacturing industry. Their findings suggested that followers perceived the leaders' leadership styles as the best when the leaders showed both more task and more relationship behavior regardless of followers' readiness level. This result did not support the Situational Leadership® model. However, it supported the PM leadership theory.

These results raised doubts about the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model in Japanese organizations. However, since the scales used in these researches were different from the scales that Hersey and Blanchard developed and used for the leadership training, and because Hayashi and Matsubara's (1998) outcomes, communication and LMX, seemed to be associated with the strength of leaders' relationship behavior, it was doubtful whether communication and LMX variables were appropriate as measures of outcomes. Additionally, the sample size of Hayashi and Matsubara's study was only seventy-two pairs of leader and follower; thus it was too small to examine the relationship among leadership style, followers' readiness level, and followers' outcomes adequately. This showed there was room for further testing of the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model as a training tool in Japan by using the scales that consulting companies used.

Therefore, this study used the same scales that the Situational Leadership® training used to examine whether the Situational Leadership® model suited Japanese organizations in order to discuss effective leadership models for Japan. And, this study defined job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor as followers' outcomes. The findings of this study must be meaningful not only to prove theoretical assumptions of the Situational Leadership® model but also to improve leadership training suitability of Japanese workers.

3.2.2 Definitions of Variables and Measures

In this study, the independent variables were followers' readiness level, leaders' perceived leadership style, and the leadership style desired by a follower. The

dependent variables were two different outcomes that followers exhibit, job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor (see Table 3.2).

The measures and scales used in this study were the ones developed and used by Hersey and the Center for Leadership Studies Inc. to go with the Situational Leadership® model. The Readiness Scale Staff Member was used for identifying a follower’s readiness level, and the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Other was used for determining a leader’s perceived leadership style and a follower’s desired leadership style. Because this study examined the Situational Leadership® model’s adaptability as a training tool in Japan, subjects were asked questions using a Japanese language instrument, distributed by the Readiness Studies Institute in Japan. Job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor were used as followers’ outcomes to measure effectiveness. These two measures, as just discussed, were previously developed by Takahara and Yamashita (2004) on prior Japanese studies on the Situational Leadership® model. They were a five-item of job satisfaction scale and a three-item satisfaction with supervisor scale (Takahara and Yamashita 2004). Appendix A and B reproduce the questionnaire used.

Table 3.2 Summary of Variables and Scales of this Study

Variables	Scales
Follower’s Readiness Level	Readiness Scale Staff Member
Leader’s Perceived Leadership Style	LEAD-Other
Leader’s Desired Leadership Style	LEAD-Other
Follower’s Job Satisfaction	5-item Job Satisfaction Scale
Follower’s Satisfaction with Supervisor	3-item Satisfaction with Supervisor Scale

3.2.2.1 Readiness Level

Subjects were asked their readiness level using the Readiness Scale—Staff Rating Scale. This readiness scale was composed of two components, ability and willingness, and asked six questions, rating each on a scale of 1 to 8. This study modified the original questions to fit the survey format. For instance, the original question asked, “I am a person who” Then the subjects chose one of eight degrees, from 1: “do not have experience relevant to task,” to 8: “has experience relevant to task.” This study asked the same question as “How much job experience do you have for the task?” And then the subjects chose one of eight degrees, from 1: low, to 8: high. The combination of the two component scores identified a subject’s readiness level, labeled R1, R2, R3, or R4 (Table 3.3). R1 meant low readiness, representing unable and unwilling or insecure, R2 was low to moderate readiness, unable and willing or confident, R3 was moderate to high readiness, able but unwilling or insecure, and R4 was high readiness, representing able and willing or confident (Hersey et al. 2001). For instance, a person whose ability score was 10 and willingness score was 10 would be readiness level one, R1, according to the readiness matrix.

Table 3.3 Readiness Matrix (Source: Center for Leadership Studies, Inc. (2004), modified for this study)

Ability	39-48	R3	R3	R4	R4
	27-38	R3	R3	R3	R4
	15-26	R1	R2	R2	R2
	6-14	R1	R1	R2	R2
		6-14	15-26	27-38	33-40
		Willingness			

3.2.2.2 Leadership Style

Subjects were also asked how they perceive their leader's leadership style using a Japanese-language version of the "Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) —Other" instrument developed by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001), which was formerly called the "Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory" (LASI) (Hersey and Blanchard 1974). It included twelve situations, requiring each subject to choose one of four descriptions of how his or her leader was most likely to behave in each situation. For instance, one situation described that "you are not responding lately to your leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for your welfare. Your performance is declining rapidly. Your leader would" Then the subjects chose one of four alternatives: "A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment, B. Be available for discussion but would not push for involvement, C. Talk with you and then set goals, and D. Intentionally not intervene." In addition to this instrument, this study also asked each subject to choose one of four behaviors which he or she would want his or her leader to exhibit in each situation. The questions are changed from "Your leader would" to "You desire your leader to." The leadership style was identified from the total of twelve answers according to the determining leadership style and style range table. Leadership style one (S1) meant Telling style, leadership style two (S2) was Selling style, leadership style three (S3) meant Participating style, and leadership style four (S4) was Delegating style (Hersey et al. 2001).

- Telling (S1). Provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.

- Selling (S2). Explain your decisions and provide opportunity for clarification.
- Participating (S3). Share ideas and facilitate in making decisions.
- Delegating (S4). Turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation (ibid., 196).

3.2.2.3 Job Satisfaction and Satisfaction with Supervisor

This study defined effectiveness using two measures developed by Takahara and Yamashita (2004), a five-item scale of job satisfaction scale and a three-item scale rating satisfaction with supervisor. These questions asked the subjects whether they agreed or disagreed with each of certain statements, on a scale of 1 to 5. For instance, the statement said that “I enjoy this task.” Then, the subjects chose one answer from a scale of 1 to 5, from one: “strongly disagree” to five: “strongly agree,” with three meaning “neither agree nor disagree.”

Additionally, demographic questions were asked including age, gender, tenure with the company, and tenure with the present work.

3.3 Subjects and Data Sampling

The subjects of this study were workers in a Japanese utility company headquartered in Tokyo. This company had already started to use the Situational Leadership® model as a part of its leadership-training programs, and had plans to improve it. The survey was carried out between March 3, 2006, and March 12, 2006. The questionnaire was distributed via e-mail to about two hundred workers. The subjects had various occupations in this company, such as plant operator, R&D researcher, human-resource personnel, accountant, civil engineer, mechanical engineer, sales person, and manager. The respondents had diverse occupations, gender, and age.

3.4 Limitations of this Study

This study was designed to examine whether the Situational Leadership® model fitted in a Japanese utility company as a leadership training tool at the moment, and it had at least five limitations.

The first limitation was the cross-section research design. Because this study surveyed only once, it knows only different individuals' experience, knowledge, skills, and responsibility for the task at one point in time, including relationship among leadership style, readiness level, and outcomes. It was a synchronic rather than a diachronic study. The results did not show whether a person developed his or her ability and willingness, or whether a person's preference of leadership style changed according to his or her development of managing the task and increase of will for the task. And, the results showed only relationship, not causality.

A second limitation of this study was its use of the dependent variables. Because this study set only two indicators, job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor, the results were not able to say anything about other possible measures of effectiveness such as job performance.

A third limitation was the fact that only one company was studied. Because this study focused on a Japanese utility company, the results might not be adoptable to other industries.

A fourth limitation regarded the effects of which job within the company a worker had. Because this study targeted all jobs but did not ask respondents to state

their specific job, the results could not show the effects of one's job on outcomes. The relationship between leaders and followers might change according to the job involved. For instance, the operators of a power plant might need stronger teamwork than the sales staff.

A fifth limitation was derived from the scales used to determine the leadership style. Because the LEAD-Other was designed to determine the four styles fixed by the Situational Leadership® model, it was difficult to indicate the extent to which a leader actually exhibits task and relationship behaviors.

CHAPTER 4
ANALYSES AND RESULTS

4.1 General Information

The survey was carried out from March 3rd to 12th in 2006. SPSS analyzed the features of the sample data and reliability as well as tested hypotheses.

4.1.1 Demographic Information

A total of 130 responses responded to the survey and were used to examine my hypotheses. Twenty out of the total of 130 respondents were female (15.4%) (Table 4.1). The average respondent age was 34.8 years. The youngest was 20 years old, and the oldest was 53. The average respondent's tenure with company was 12.6 years. The average working period for current group was 4 years and 3 months (Table 4.2). There were a total of 4,600 females out of 38,510 employees in this company (12%). The youngest new employees were 18 years old, and the retirement age was 55 years. Their average age was 38.7 years, and the average tenure with the company was 19.2 years. Although the sample size was small, the sample represented a slightly younger generation of the population.

Table 4.1 Distribution of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Females	20	15.4
Males	109	83.8
No Answer	1	0.8
Total	130	100

Table 4.2 Demographic Data

	mean	s.d.	Range
Age (year)	34.8	6.2	20–53
Tenure with Company(year)	12.6	7.2	1.5–34
Tenure with Work (year)	4.2	4.6	0.3(month)–32

4.1.2 Scale Reliability

Table 4.3 showed the results of Cronbach's reliability test of the scales. The alpha values of the Desired Leadership Style had a relatively weak reliability ($\alpha = 0.628$), all other scales had high enough reliability ($\alpha > 0.75$). Because the scale that was used to determine the Desired Leadership Style was originally translated and used by a Japanese consulting company, the Center for Leadership Studies Inc. Japan, it was not adequate to change any items of the scale in order to improve its reliability. Therefore, although the Desired Leadership Style had a relatively weak reliability, no scales were thrown out for this study.

Table 4.3 Scale Reliability

Scales	Cronbach's Alpha
Ability (6 items)	0.801
Willingness (6 items)	0.933
Leadership Style (12 items)	0.787
Desired Leadership Style (12 items)	0.628
Job Satisfaction (5 items)	0.920
Satisfaction with Supervisor (3 items)	0.842

4.1.3 Features of the Sample

Table 4.4 showed the features of two dependent variables: job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor, and two components of readiness level: ability and willingness for accomplishing a certain task. The mean of job satisfaction of the subjects was 16.3 and its standard deviation was 4.8. The mean of satisfaction with supervisor was 10.6 and its standard deviation was 2.8. The mean of ability was 34.0 and its standard deviation was 6.1. The mean of willingness was 35.6 and its standard deviation was 8.5. The distributions of all four variables were fairly normal and the modes were slightly higher than the means.

Table 4.4 Mean, Standard Deviation, Range of Four Variables

	Mean	s.d.	Range
Job Satisfaction	16.3	4.8	5–25
Satisfaction with Supervisor	10.6	2.8	3–15
Ability	34.0	6.1	6–48
Willingness	35.6	8.5	6–48

Table 4.5 showed frequency and percentage of the subjects' readiness level, their leader's perceived leadership style, the leadership style that the subjects desired, match-mismatch of the leadership style that the Situational Leadership® model suggests according to the subjects' readiness level with their leaders' leadership style, and match-mismatch of the subjects' desired leadership style with their leaders' actual perceived leadership style.

Table 4.5 Frequency and Percentage of Independent Variables

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Readiness Level	130	100
R1	3	2.3
R2	11	8.5
R3	55	42.3
R4	61	46.9
Leadership Style	130	100
PS1	23	17.7
PS2	38	29.2
PS3	50	38.5
PS4	19	14.6
Desired Leadership Style	130	100
DS1	12	9.2
DS2	59	45.4
DS3	57	43.8
DS4	2	1.5
Match-Mismatch R-PS	130	100
Match	25	19.2
Mismatch	105	80.8
Match-Mismatch R-DS	130	100
Match	55	42.3
Mismatch	75	57.7

4.1.4 Correlations among Variables

Table 4.6 provided Pearson's correlation values, including their p values, among eleven variables, as well as descriptive statistical mean, standard deviation, and range values. These preliminary analyses were only meant to give a general feel for the data, so ability and willingness were used as raw data rather than as readiness level, the purpose for which they would be used later. According to the Pearson's rs, job satisfaction was strongly related to satisfaction with supervisor ($r = 0.46$, $p < 0.01$), ability ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$), and willingness ($r = 0.79$, $p < 0.01$). Also, job satisfaction

was moderately related to match-mismatch of leadership style ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$) and age ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$). Satisfaction with supervisor was related to ability ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$), willingness ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$), and desired leadership style ($r = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$). Ability had positive relation with willingness ($r = 0.55$, $p < 0.01$), desired leadership style ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), age ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$) and tenure with company ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$). Willingness was strongly related to desired leadership style ($r = 0.15$, $p < 0.01$), and age ($r = .23$, $p < .01$). Age was strongly related length of service with company ($r = 0.92$, $p < 0.01$) and length of time with work (current group) ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.6 Pearson's Correlations among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Job Satisfaction								
2. Satisfaction with Supervisor	.46**							
3. Ability	.44**	.32**						
4. Willingness	.79**	.37**	.55**					
5. Match Suggested Leadership Style	-.13	-.06	-.10	-.10				
6. Match Desired Leadership Style	.18*	.34**	.27**	.15**	-.19**			
7. Age	.18*	.11	.33**	.23**	.02	.16*		
8. Tenure with Company	.10	.11	.30**	.16	.03	.19*	.92**	
9. Tenure with Work	-.02	-.04	.05	-.07	.03	-.05	.24**	.32**

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

The results indicated that the longer people were working in this company, the higher their ability. Since the amount of experience is one factor of their ability to accomplish their tasks, this relation was adequate. And the older workers had longer

tenure with the company and a longer period of time with their current group. This implied that the company had a traditional feature of Japanese companies, a lifelong employment system.

According to the results, job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor correlated with match-mismatch of desired leadership style. However, they did not correlate with the match-mismatch of suggested leadership style. This suggested that a combination of leadership style and readiness level affected both types of satisfaction. However, it was unclear what combinations did. In the next section, the tests of four hypotheses would provide the details of relations between types of satisfaction and the combination of the leadership style and readiness level.

4.2 Effects of Readiness Level and Perceived Leadership Style on Satisfaction

Hypothesis 1: The combination of the leader’s perceived leadership style (PS) and a follower’s readiness level (R) affects follower’s outcomes in Japan. The two-way ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 1, whether the readiness level and leadership style separately, and the combination of readiness level and leadership style together, affected a follower’s outcomes, which were job satisfaction and satisfaction with his or her supervisor (figure 4.1).

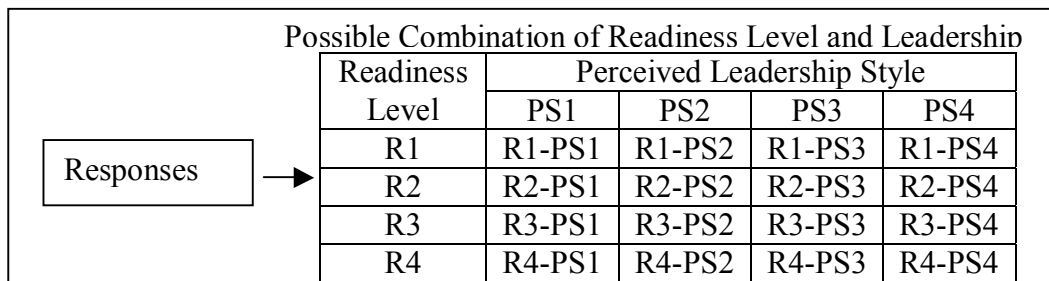


Figure 4.1 Flow of Analysis for Hypothesis 1

4.2.1 Job Satisfaction

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 showed the results of the two-way ANOVA test of Hypothesis 1, with the averages from 4.7 being used to calculate 4.8. Since the numbers of the subjects who were in readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were too small to examine by using the two-way ANOVA (R1: $n = 3$; R2: $n = 11$), the test was operated for only readiness level three (R3) and four (R4). While readiness level had a significant effect on follower's job satisfaction at the 0.01 level of significance ($F(d.f.) = 37.42(1)$, $p < 0.01$), neither leadership style nor the combination of readiness level and leadership style had a significant effect on follower's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance ($F(d.f.) = 0.29(3)$, $p = 0.83$; $F(d.f.) = 0.24(3)$, $p = 0.87$). This meant that followers' job satisfaction was related to their readiness level regardless of their leader's leadership style. Although the subjects in R1 and R2 were not examined statistically because of their small sample sizes, the same tendency as R3 and R4 was observed. The mean of job satisfaction of R1 was smaller than that of R2, and the mean of job satisfaction of R2 was smaller than that of R3. Therefore, this ANOVA result did not support Hypothesis 1, that the combination of a follower's readiness level and his or her leader's leadership style affected the follower's outcome, with regard to job satisfaction.

Table 4.7 Job Satisfaction, Means of the Combination of Readiness Level (R1–R4) and Perceived Leadership Style (PS1–PS4)

Readiness level	Leadership Style				Total
	PS1	PS2	PS3	PS4	
R1	n/a	7.5	n/a	5.5	6.7
R2	9.5	12.5	17.0	10.5	12.5
R3	14.2	15.2	13.9	14.0	14.5
R4	19.4	19.2	19.3	18.4	19.2
R3 & R4	16.2	17.0	17.4	16.2	16.9
Total	15.6	16.3	17.4	14.4	16.3

Table 4.8 Results of Two-Way ANOVA (Job Satisfaction)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	37.42	1	< 0.01
PS	0.29	3	0.83
Readiness* PS	0.24	3	0.87

4.2.2 Satisfaction with Supervisor

The effects of readiness level, leadership style, and the combination of readiness level and leadership on the follower’s satisfaction with supervisor were also tested using a two-way ANOVA. The two-way ANOVA examined only readiness level three (R3) and readiness level four (R4), because the sample sizes of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were too small to be analyzed. Tables 4.9 and 4.10 show the results. All three effects were significant ($F(d.f.) = 10.63(1)$, $p < 0.01$; $F(d.f.) = 12.108(3)$, $p < 0.01$; $F(d.f.) = 2.74(3)$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1, that the combination of a follower’s readiness level and his or her leader’s leadership style affects follower’s satisfaction with supervisor outcome, was supported here.

Table 4.9 Satisfaction with Supervisor, Means of the Combination of Readiness Level (R1–R4) and Perceived Leadership Style (PS1–PS4)

Readiness level	Perceived Leadership Style				Total
	PS1	PS2	PS3	PS4	
R1	n/a	11.5	n/a	3.0	8.7
R2	6.0	12.0	15.0	7.5	10.1
R3	9.3	11.2	10.2	6.3	9.8
R4	9.3	11.6	12.3	9.7	11.4
R3 & R4	9.3	11.4	11.5	8.0	10.7
Total	9.0	11.4	11.8	7.6	10.6

Table 4.10 Results of Two-Way ANOVA (Satisfaction with Supervisor)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	10.63	1	< 0.01
PS	12.11	3	< 0.01
Readiness* PS	2.74	3	< 0.05

The first ANOVA test showed that subjects' job satisfaction was affected by their readiness level rather than the combination of the readiness level and leadership style. To further explore this relationship, a multiple-regression analysis was conducted. According to the result of the multiple-regression test (not shown), only willingness which was a six-item variable that determined one's readiness level, was a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction. This regression showed that job satisfaction was strongly correlated with willingness ($t = 8.107$, $p < 0.01$). How the leadership style affects job satisfaction *within* each readiness level needs to be investigated in order to clarify the highest possible effective leadership style for each readiness level.

The degree of satisfaction with supervision for Japanese workers was indeed influenced by the combination of their readiness level and their leader's leadership style. This suggests that a leader should change his/her leadership style according to a follower's readiness level when he or she seeks a follower's satisfaction with him or her, just as the core principle of the Situational Leadership® model maintains. However, the results of the two-way ANOVA did not answer which combinations affected satisfaction with supervision. Tests of Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4, were needed to get more detail, specifically to examine whether the effective combinations of readiness level and leadership style were the same as the Situational Leadership® model said they were.

4.3 Relationship between Leadership Style and Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2: The outcomes of the follower whose leader's style matches that recommended by the Situational Leadership® model will be higher than the others.

Hypothesis 2 was investigated as shown in Figure 4.2. First, subjects were grouped into four readiness levels based on the results of their answers on the Readiness Scale – Staff Rating Scale. Next, people were divided into two groups, match and mismatch of the leadership style. The term “match” of the leadership style had the definition that the leadership style perceived by a subject was the same as that suggested by the Situational Leadership® model, according to one's readiness level. Otherwise, there was a “mismatch.” For instance, when a follower with readiness level one (R1) perceives his or her leader's leadership style as style one (PS1), it was categorized as a “match” of the leadership style because the Situational Leadership® model suggested

leadership style one (S1) should match follower style one (R1). On the other hand, when the leader’s perceived leadership style was style two (PS2), style three (PS3), or style four (PS4), it was categorized as “mismatch” of the leadership style when compared to follower style one (R1). The outcomes of only two groups in readiness level three (R3) and four (R4) were analyzed by using the two-way ANOVA, because the samples of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were so small that they were not appropriate for a statistical analysis.

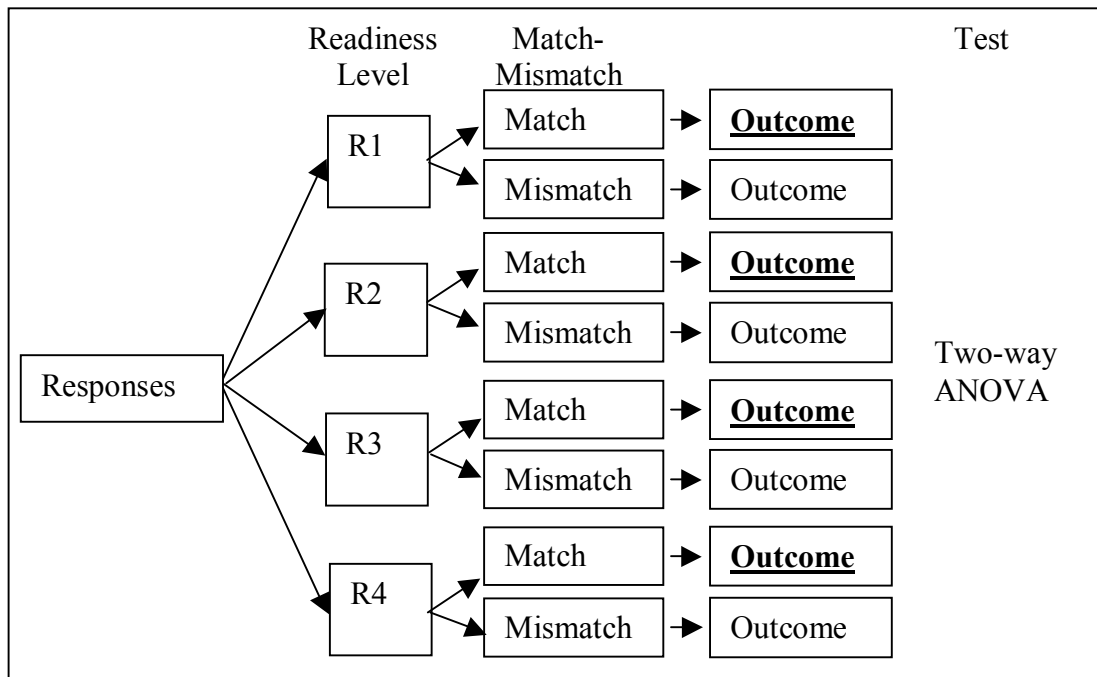


Figure 4.2 Flow of Analysis (Hypothesis 2) Readiness Level–Perceived Leadership Style

4.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Table 4.11 and 4.12 showed the results of comparing the mean scores on job satisfaction questions between match and mismatch groups within three readiness levels and among all subjects. The results of the two-way ANOVA showed job satisfaction

was related to the subjects' readiness level ($F(d.f.) = 330.69(1)$, $p < 0.01$) and no significant difference of followers' job satisfaction between match and mismatch groups within each level and among all subjects ($F(d.f.) = 0.74(1)$, $p = 0.39$). Furthermore, there was no effects on job satisfaction of the interaction of readiness level and match or mismatch group ($F(d.f.)=.003(1)$, $p=.96$).

Table 4.11 Match-Mismatch (Readiness level–Leadership Style) Comparison of Job Satisfaction

	Match		Mismatch		Total
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
R1	0	n/a	3	6.7	6.7
R2	2	12.5	9	12.4	12.5
R3	16	13.9	39	14.7	14.5
R4	7	18.4	54	19.3	19.2
R3&R4	23	15.3	93	17.3	16.9
Total	25	15.1	105	16.6	16.3

Table 4.12 Results of Two-Way ANOVA for Hypothesis 2 (Job Satisfaction)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	24.96	1	<0.00
Match-Mismatch	0.74	1	0.39
Readiness* Match-Mismatch	<0.00	1	0.96

4.3.2 Satisfaction with Supervisor

Table 4.13 and 4.14 showed the results of comparing the mean scores on satisfaction with supervisor questions between match and mismatch groups. Contrary to job satisfaction, the subjects' readiness level was not related to satisfaction with their supervisor ($F(d.f.) = 1.41 (1)$, $p = 0.24$). And, there was no significant difference in satisfaction with supervisor between matched and mismatched leader-follower pairs

(F(d.f.) = 1.3(1), p = 0.25). The interaction of readiness level and match or mismatch group had no effect on satisfaction with their supervisor (F(d.f.) = 3.81(1), p = 0.053).

Table 4.13 Match-Mismatch (Readiness level–Leadership Style) Comparison of Satisfaction with Supervisor

	Match		Mismatch		Total
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
R1	0	n/a	3	8.7	8.7
R2	2	12.0	9	9.7	10.1
R3	16	10.2	39	9.7	9.8
R4	7	9.7	54	11.6	11.4
R3 & R4	23	10.0	93	10.8	10.7
Total	25	10.2	105	10.7	10.6

Table 4.14 Results of Two-Way ANOVA for Hypothesis 2 (Satisfaction with Supervisor)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	1.41	1	0.24
Match-Mismatch	1.32	1	0.25
Readiness* Match-Mismatch	3.81	1	0.05

Although the two-way ANOVA did not include the subjects of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2), the same tendencies as readiness level three (R3) and four (R4) were observed from their means in Table 4.11 and 4.13. Therefore, the results of Hypothesis 2 indicated the subjects' job satisfaction was related to only to their readiness level and the combination of a leadership style and follower's readiness level suggested by the Situational® Leadership model had no effects on the job satisfaction or the satisfaction with supervisor of Japanese workers.

However, the results of Hypothesis 1 showed the relation between satisfaction with supervisor and the combination of the subjects' readiness level and their leaders' leadership style. What combinations of leadership style and readiness level have a high possibility to make a Japanese follower satisfied with his or her supervisor?

The principles of the Situational Leadership model and motivation theories suggest that motivation of followers and the strengths of their needs affect people's satisfaction, and these strengths are different among people who are from different societies, cultures, and countries. Cross-cultural studies show that the Japanese tend to have stronger relationship needs and dependence on powerful authorities than Americans (Hofstede 1991). Therefore, effective leadership styles for Japanese should shift to both higher relationship behavior and higher task behavior on the Situational Leadership® model. The next two hypotheses were examined to explore the proper combinations that create satisfied Japanese workers.

4.4 Relationship between Match-Mismatch Desired Leadership Style and Satisfaction

Hypothesis 3: A person working with a leader whose style matches one's desired leadership has higher satisfaction than a person who is not.

The procedure shown in Figure 4.3 is designed to examine Hypothesis 3. After being separated into the four readiness levels, subjects were classified into two groups, match and mismatch of the leadership style to the style respondents desired. In this analysis, "match" was defined differently. It was the leadership style perceived by a subject being similar to the leadership style which the subject desired. So, when the leader's style perceived by a subject was leadership style one (S1) and the subject

desired his or her leader to do as leadership style one (DS1) did, it was a matched pair. If the concept of Situational Leadership® model was correct, people felt better when their leaders' leadership styles met their needs. In terms of Hypothesis 3, people who were working in a matched pair would score higher than those who were not in such a pair. This hypothesis was tested at the two readiness levels: R3 and R4, using the two-way ANOVA as well as Hypothesis 2. Data of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were used only for understanding their tendencies because of their small sample size.

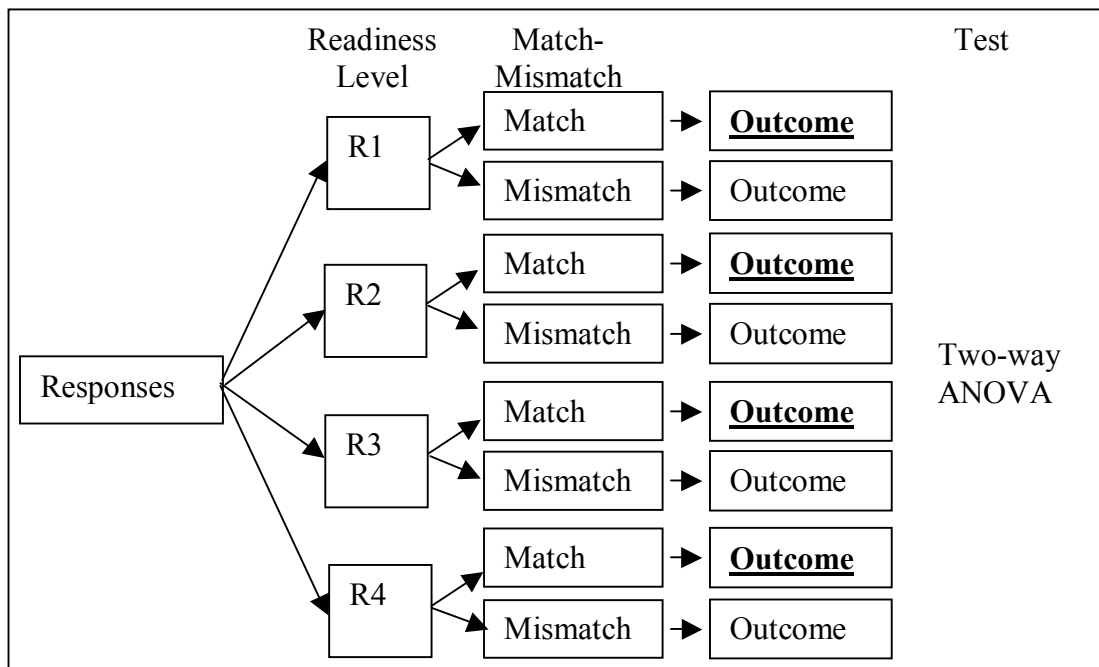


Figure 4.3 Flow of Analysis (Hypothesis 3) Perceived-Desired Leadership Style

4.4.1 Job Satisfaction

According to the results of the two-way ANOVA shown in Table 4.15 and 4.16, there were no differences in job satisfaction between match and mismatch groups within two readiness levels: R3 and R4 ($F(d.f.) = 1.01(1), p = 0.32$). Again, the results

indicated that the subjects' job satisfaction was related only to their readiness level (Readiness level: $F(d.f.) = 46.97(1)$, $p < 0.01$; Interaction of readiness level and match-mismatch: $F(d.f.) = 0.18(1)$, $p = 0.68$).

Table 4.15 Match-Mismatch (Desired Leadership Style–Perceived Leadership Style) Comparison of Job Satisfaction

	Match		Mismatch		Total
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
R1	1	9.0	2	5.5	6.7
R2	1	19.0	10	11.8	12.5
R3	24	15.0	31	14.0	14.5
R4	30	19.4	31	19.0	19.2
R3 & R4	54	17.4	62	16.5	16.9
Total	56	17.3	74	15.6	16.3

Table 4.16 Results of Two-Way ANOVA for Hypothesis 3 (Job Satisfaction)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	46.97	1	< 0.00
Match-Mismatch	1.01	1	0.32
Readiness* Match-Mismatch	0.18	1	0.68

4.4.2 Satisfaction with Supervisor

The two-way ANOVA was also used to test whether follower's satisfaction with supervisor was higher when the perceived leadership style of his or her leader matches desired leadership style (Table 4.17 and 4.18). There was a significant difference in the subjects' satisfaction with their supervisor between the match and mismatch groups ($F(d.f.) = 13.22(1)$, $p < 0.01$). While the subjects' readiness level also affected their satisfaction with supervisor ($F(d.f.) = 11.22(1)$, $p < 0.01$), the interaction of readiness level and match or mismatch group had no effect on the subjects' satisfaction with

supervisor ($F(d.f.) = 0.02(1)$, $p = 0.88$). In addition the fact that the number of the subjects of readiness level one (R1) was three and the number of the subject of readiness level two (R2) was eleven, only one subject was categorized into the match group at each level.

Table 4.17 Match-Mismatch (Desired Leadership Style–Perceived Leadership Style) Comparison of Satisfaction with Supervisor

	Match		Mismatch		Total
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
R1	1	11.0	2	7.5	8.4
R2	1	15.0	10	9.6	10.1
R3	24	10.7	31	9.2	9.8
R4	30	12.3	31	10.6	11.4
R3 & R4	54	11.6	62	9.8	10.7
Total	56	11.6	74	9.8	10.6

Table 4.18 Results of Two-Way ANOVA for Hypothesis 3 (Satisfaction with Supervisor)

	F	d.f.	Sig.
Readiness	11.22	1	< 0.00
Match-Mismatch	13.22	1	< 0.00
Readiness* Match-Mismatch	0.02	1	0.88

Because readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) had small samples, under 15 people per level, it was not appropriate to analyze the differences in outcomes between match and mismatch groups. However, in the match group the individual person at each level rated higher job satisfaction (R1: 9.0; R2: 19.0) and satisfaction with his or her supervisor (R1: 11.0; R2: 15.0) than the mean of either of the slightly larger mismatch groups (job satisfaction: R1: mean=5.5; R2: mean=11.8; satisfaction with supervisor:

R1: mean=7.5; R2: mean=10.1). Therefore, if more samples were collected, a statistical analysis might show the same tendency as readiness level three (R3) and four (R4), but again, this cannot be concluded because of the present small-sample limitation.

Following consistent results for Hypotheses 1 and 2, the results of this test reconfirmed the conclusion that Japanese workers' job satisfaction at each readiness level was not influenced by the combination of leadership style and readiness level since no significant differences of job satisfaction between two groups at any readiness level were found. Because there is only one person in the "match" group at readiness level one and two, the statistical power is weak for hypothesis three. However, the results imply at least that workers' satisfaction with their supervisors when working with their desired leadership style are higher than those who are not doing so, as the concepts of the Situational Leadership® model would have.

Above all, tests of these three hypotheses suggest that the combination of leadership style and readiness level had an effect on followers' satisfaction with supervisor, but this was not what the Situational Leadership® model suggested. A follower felt better satisfaction when working with the leader whose leadership style matched his or her desired style. Therefore, the key for identifying the leadership style with the highest possibility of making a follower satisfied in Japan was to figure out which leadership style was desired most at the each readiness level. According to Hofstede (1991), the Japanese tend to have a stronger need for affiliation than for achievement, unlike the Americans. And the Japanese are motivated by security and self-esteem rather than self-actualization. Additionally, dependence on a strongly

influential person can be one of the fundamental motivations in Japanese society, which has relatively high power distance and rather high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1991).

4.5 Leadership Style Desired by Followers

Hypothesis 4: The leadership style that a follower desires one’s leader to have differs according to his or her readiness level. And the most preferable leadership style at each readiness level in Japan shifts generally toward more relationship and more task behaviors than the Situational Leadership® model holds.

Hypothesis 4 was analyzed by following the flowchart in Figure 4.4. All subjects were divided into four readiness levels according to their scores on the Readiness Scale. The leadership styles which they desire were measured by the scores of LEAD Other Scale. Then, frequency of the desired leadership styles in each readiness level was analyzed using the χ^2 test.

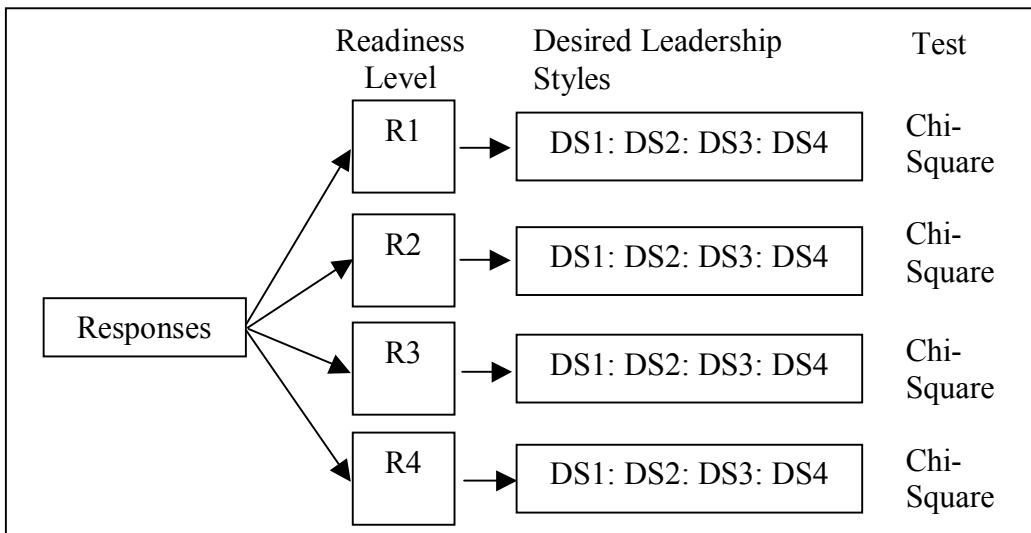


Figure 4.4 Flow of Analysis (Hypothesis 4) Readiness Level–Desired Leadership Style

Frequency of desired leadership styles in each readiness level and the results of the χ^2 test are in Table 4.19. Since the sample sizes of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were too small to examine Hypothesis 4 by using the χ^2 test, the tests for readiness level one and two were not applicable. Therefore, it was impossible to examine the difference in the proportion of each leadership style in each readiness level among four readiness levels. Because nobody desired the leader who used leadership style four (DS4) at readiness level three (R3) and four (R4), the χ^2 test examined the other three leadership styles: DS1, DS2, and DS3. It was statistically significant at two readiness levels; three and four. that the frequency of desired leadership style is different (R3: χ^2 (d.f.) = 10.073(2), $p < 0.01$; R4: χ^2 (d.f.) = 23.049(2), $p < 0.01$). Two out of three R1 subjects desired S2 leadership style, five of eleven R2 subjects desired S2 and five of eleven R2 subjects desired S3. The majority of R3 subjects chose the S2 leader, and the majority of R4 subjects chose the S3 leader.

Table 4.19 Readiness Level–Desired Leadership Style

	DS1	DS2	DS3	DS4	n	Chi-Square	d.f.	Sig.
R1	0	2	0	1	3	n/a	n/a	n/a
R2	0	5	5	1	11	n/a	n/a	n/a
R3	8	27	20	0*	55	10.073	2	0.006
R4	3	26	32	0*	61	23.049	2	0.000
Total	11	60	57	2	130			

* Not included in the χ^2 test.

4.6 Summary of Findings

Five main findings resulted from this data analysis:

1. Followers' job satisfaction was related to their readiness level alone.
2. Satisfaction with supervisor was related to the combination of their leader's leadership style and their readiness level.
3. The combinations of leadership style and readiness level where people felt high satisfaction with their supervisor were different from what the Situational Leadership® model suggests.
4. When working with the leader who behaved as they felt that they needed, people felt higher satisfaction than when they were not working with such a leader, as the principles of the Situational Leadership® model hold.
5. The leadership style which Japanese people wanted their leader to exhibit was both higher relationship behavior and higher task behavior than the Situational Leadership® model suggested.

The following sections discussed more details.

4.6.1 Readiness Level and Desired Leadership Style in Japan

The results of the analysis pictured in Figure 4.5, on which the above findings were based, showed that a majority of Japanese respondents at R3: Moderate to High Readiness level desired their leader to behave with S2: Selling style, and that a majority of respondents at R4: High Readiness desired S3: Participating style leaders.

Readiness Level	Desired Style
R1, Low Readiness <u>Unable</u> and unwilling or insecure	S1, Telling High task–low relationship
R2, Low to Moderate Readiness <u>Unable</u> but willing or confident	S2, Selling High task–high relationship
R3, Moderate to High Readiness <u>Able</u> but unwilling or insecure	S3, Participating High relationship–low task
R4, High Readiness <u>Able</u> and willing or confident	S4, Delegating Low relationship–low task

Figure 4.5 Desired Leadership Styles by Readiness Levels in Japan

There was not a significant difference in frequency of desired leadership styles at R1: Low and R2: Low to Moderate Readiness levels. And no one from any readiness level desired S1: Telling style, which provided a follower with specific instructions and closely supervised performance.

According to the results of Hypothesis 4, S2: Selling style might be effective for people at R1: Low Readiness level. Also, both S2: Selling and S3: Participating styles were effective for people at R2: Low to Moderate Readiness. However, since there was no significant evidence about which leadership style had the highest possibility of giving followers at R1: Low and R2: Low to Moderate Readiness levels satisfaction with their supervisors, the most effective leadership style for each of those readiness levels remained no more than speculation.

4.6.2 *Appropriate Leadership Styles in Japan*

The four readiness levels were put in a certain order with the Situational Leadership® model this was according to the combination of scores on both ability and willingness. However, if the order of R2: Low to Moderate and R3: Moderate to High

Readiness levels was switched (Figure 4.6), the combinations of appropriate style and readiness level in Japanese workers correspond better to the two-dimensional map used by the Situational Leadership® model.

Readiness Level	Appropriate Style
R1, Low Readiness Unable and <u>unwilling or insecure</u>	S1, Telling High task–low relationship
R3 , Moderate to High Readiness Able but <u>unwilling or insecure</u>	S2, Selling High task–high relationship
R2 , Low to Moderate Readiness Unable but <u>willing or confident</u>	S3, Participating High relationship–low task
R4, High Readiness Able and <u>willing or confident</u>	S4, Delegating Low relationship–low task

Figure 4.6 Leadership Styles Appropriate for Various Readiness Levels in Japan

This implied that a S2: Selling style leader who provided the details of a task, such as who, what, when, where how, and why, and discussed it with followers, had a high possibility of increasing the satisfaction with the leader of R3: Moderate to High Readiness people who were able but unwilling or insecure, as well as R2: Low to Moderate and R1: Low Readiness people. Also, a S3: Participating style leader who shared responsibility with and encouraged followers without reinforcing the direction of tasks, had a high possibility to satisfy the R2: Low to Moderate and R4: High Readiness followers who were willing or confident. To more appropriately showed the relative importance of willingness over ability, the readiness level should be put in order by the level of followers’ willingness first, not ability as in the order of the Situational Leadership® model. In other words, proper strength of task behavior for Japanese workers corresponded to willingness, while the order for Americans corresponded to ability. For instance, in an American setting, leaders should direct unable people and

allow able people to make decisions by themselves. However, in Japanese setting, regardless of ability, leaders should direct unwilling people and allow willing people to make decisions on their own.

4.6.3 Appropriate Combinations in Japan

Thus, in terms of the best combination of the leadership style and readiness level to gain Japanese workers' satisfaction with supervisor, Figure 4.7 showed the Japanese version of the Situational Leadership® model.

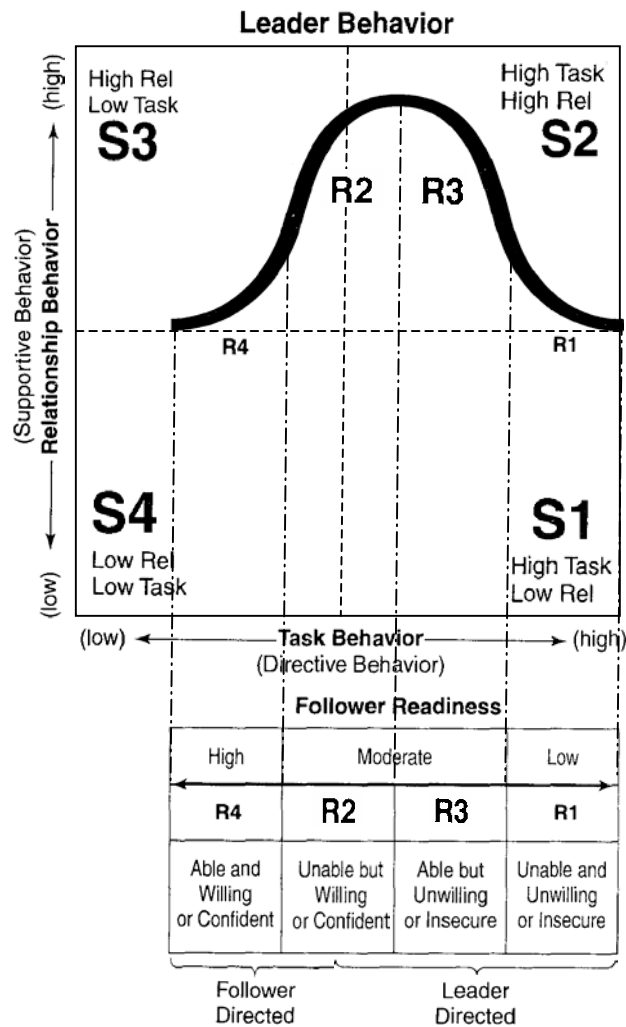


Figure 4.7 Effective Leadership Styles in Japan (modified Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson's 2001 Situational Leadership® model)

As shown in Figure 4.7, effective combinations of leadership style and readiness level shifted toward more relationship and more task behavior for Japanese compared to the original American combinations. These findings suggested that when the Situational Leadership® model was used as a leadership-training tool in Japan, the diagnoses of it for both leaders and followers needed to be translated differently to work adequately. For instance, when a Japanese follower was categorized into the highest readiness level, R4, by the Readiness Scale, the leader would deal with this follower using leadership style four, S4: Delegating, as the Situational Leadership® model in being used. But this might lead to the Japanese follower's low satisfaction rather than making the follower satisfied with the supervisor. According to my study, instead of S4: Delegating, a S3: Participating style leader, had a much higher possibility of resulting in this follower's high satisfaction. Therefore, the leader should discuss about tasks and direction with the follower together and allow him or her to make the decisions.

People at R3: Moderate to High Readiness level, having high ability but low willingness, might feel more satisfaction when working with the S2: Selling type leader who discussed together, explained the tasks, and directed the followers than when working with a S3: Participating type leader, letting them make decision as the American Situational Leadership® model suggested.

Followers at R2: Low to Moderate Readiness level, low ability, and high willingness, might be satisfied with their supervisor when the supervisor acted more supportive, such as both S2: Selling and S3: Participating styles suggested. Also, while S1: Telling style was regarded as a suitable way for R1: Low Readiness level, this study

suggested S2: Selling style was more adequate for Japanese people at R1: Low Readiness level. In other words, two-way conversation between the leader and the follower worked better in Japan than predominantly one-way communications from the leader toward the American R1 follower.

The results of this study did support the main principle of the Situational Leadership® model, in terms of satisfaction with supervisor, that since there was no one best leadership style that works perfectly for all followers, a leader had to change the leadership style according to a follower's readiness level. On the other hand, in terms of job satisfaction, the results did not support the Situational Leadership® model and suggested that leaders had to consider how followers' willingness to accomplish their tasks was related to their job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion

After World War II, the Japanese economy had historically rapid development for forty years. In 1988, the World Competitiveness Report ranked Japan in first place, a rank it then kept for five years. In those years, a lot of American scholars researched and introduced the features of successful Japanese companies. They claimed that American companies should learn Japanese group-oriented management styles to increase productivity, raise quality, and increase employees' skills and motivation. For instance, quality-control circles, a participatory management system, were imported to the manufacturing industry in the United States (Abegglen 2004).

However, since the collapse of the "bubble economy" in the early 1990s, the economic situation in Japan turned. The GDP rate of change decreased from 4% to 1% (Government of Japan 2006a, b) and the 2nd ranked Japan in 1993 had dropped to 21st by 2005. A lot of Japanese organizations were forced to change their structure, strategies, and management systems, and they have since tried to understand American business-management systems, adopting American theories instead of the other way. The United States' leadership theories and models, however, are also imported without alteration into Japan. A utility company in Tokyo, is one of the companies doing this. The company has already used the Situational Leadership® model, developed by

Hersey and Blanchard, as a leadership-training tool for a portion of its employees. Therefore, this study examined whether American leadership theories worked in Japanese organizations, focusing on Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson's (2001) Situational Leadership® model.

The Situational Leadership® model focused on followers' needs. Because Hersey et al. (2001) believed that people produced good results when their needs were satisfied, the authors claimed that leaders should meet followers' needs in order to create high productivity and quality in their work. Furthermore, they argued that peoples' needs changed as their abilities grew, including knowledge, experience, and skills, and willingness (such as responsibility, commitment, and motivation) for accomplishing their work. Therefore, the Situational Leadership® model suggested that leaders should change their leadership style according to followers' growth if they expected followers to produce good results. This logic illustrated the core principles of the Situational Leadership® model.

However, Hofstede (1991) criticized that research of American society did not necessarily suit all societies because there were differences of culture and values among different societies. According to Hofstede's (ibid.) research on IBM employees, the Japanese society had a different culture and values from the American, and these differences affected peoples' needs and motivation. He concluded that the Japanese had stronger dependence on their supervisor and compliance with official rules than the Americans. Therefore, the leadership style recommended for the Japanese to satisfy followers' needs should be different than those for the Americans.

Following this assumption, this study examined whether the principles of the Situational Leadership® model fitted in Japanese situations, and if they did fit, whether the American interpretation of the Situational Leadership® model principles was correct for Japanese in other words, whether the particular combinations of leadership style and readiness level that the Situational Leadership® model suggested were also correct for Japanese.

There were four conclusions that could be drawn from this study:

1. Japanese felt high satisfaction with their supervisor when their supervisor's behavior met their needs.
2. The leadership style that made the Japanese satisfied with their supervisor changed according to the development of their confidence, commitment, motivation, and responsibility for their work.
3. The leadership style that led the Japanese to be satisfied with their supervisor had relatively more relationship and task behavior than for the American.
4. Japanese job satisfaction was related to their readiness level, especially willingness level. This implied that the higher responsibility, commitment, and confidence for their task people felt, the higher job satisfaction they felt.

The first conclusion here supported the core principle of the Situational Leadership® model. Leaders should understand what followers need so that they could take steps to meet followers' needs. When followers' needs were satisfied, they felt better and would produce good results.

The second conclusion gave a tip to determine what followers expected of leaders. Japanese workers who had less confidence in their work, less commitment to the tasks, and less responsibility, wanted their leaders to make the decision relevant to their work, and wanted to follow the leader's direction. At the same time, they still wanted to join a discussion. People with high confidence, commitment, and responsibility for their work wanted the leaders to discuss matter together with them, although these workers wanted to be allowed to make decisions related to their work. These similar but different tendencies were not related to the levels of their experience, knowledge, and skills. Therefore, this result suggested that leaders should discuss with all followers about tasks and decide to allow followers to make their own decisions or, on the other hand, to lead followers according to the extent to which followers were eager to do their work.

The third conclusion came from the fact that the Japanese generally desired their leaders to exhibit more relation and task behavior than the Americans. This implied that the Japanese still had a preference for teamwork and group-oriented work, and it supported Hofstede's cross-cultural research and Abegglen's observations about Japanese companies. Hofstede (1991) said that the reasons why ideal images of leaders differed was because people's image about ideal leaders at the workplace was influenced by their experience through their growth process, such as in their family and school. He suggested that companies had to make business strategies that considered the culture where they would be implemented.

Abegglen (1958, 1984, 2004), who have studied the Japanese management style for more than fifty years, contrasted Japanese companies with American companies regarding their nature as a community and economical organization. He noticed that the purpose of the Japanese company was to last for a long time, indeed for their employees' life, like a society and community, while the American company was more like an entity for always, at least potentially, up for purchase and sale. Although the three main features of Japanese companies during the 1950s, lifetime employment, the seniority system, and the labor union within the company, have been transforming due to social and economic changes, these features still remained fundamentals of current Japanese companies (Abegglen 2004). Thus, while Japan seemed to have been influenced by American culture, to have been westernized, the fundamental cultural differences between Japan and the United States have not changed. The third conclusion supported these arguments.

While Hofstede and Abegglen argued focusing on Japanese companies in terms of organization, Brislin, Kabigting Jr., MacNab, Zukia and Worthley (2005) discussed Japanese values focusing on individual motivation. These authors examined whether Herzberg's two-factor theory was suitable for the Japanese by asking the impacts of Herzberg's sixteen factors on their motivation. Their results suggested that the distinction between hygiene factors and motivators for Japanese was the same as Herzberg proposed, and they concluded that Japanese values moved from the traditional "collective/company orientation" toward "self-orientation" like western values (ibid.). Then, they suggested that Japanese companies should focus on *both* individuals and

groups, should evaluate individual performance properly, and needed to create a training system for individual workers to improve their ability so that they would be more motivated for working. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) found two factors: hygiene and motivators, from examining what factors caused workers' job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. They suggested that people felt satisfied with their work when their motivators were fulfilled (Herzberg et al. 1959). The willingness I studied included responsibility, confidence, motivation, and commitment, which were associated with Herzberg's motivators. The fourth conclusion of this study, that job satisfaction was related to only peoples' willingness, supported Brislin's conclusion. Therefore, while Japanese values regarding organizations have not changed dramatically since 1970, their values as individuals seem to be changing to more western styles.

5.2 Suggestions for Japanese Companies and for Future Research

The results of this study partially supported the application of the Situational Leadership® model to Japanese companies. However, as the main assumption of this study originally held, Japanese workers had several different leadership needs than Americans. Therefore, this study suggests four points to Japanese companies that attempt to use the Situational Leadership® model as a training tool.

1. Clarify the purpose of the training.

As this study showed, peoples' satisfaction with supervisor was affected by their leaders' leadership styles, but job satisfaction was only related to their willingness.

Therefore, if the purpose of the training is to gain employees' job satisfaction, other training not based on Situational Leadership® should be considered.

2. Modify the effective-leadership styles to fit the Japanese preferences.

This study indicated that the Japanese had a preference for more relationship and direction than the Americans. Therefore, Japanese companies should modify the suggested combinations of leadership style and readiness level to fit the Japanese workers properly.

3. Understand different individual needs.

The results of this study showed that not all people who are in the same readiness level always desire the same leadership style. Both the results and the Situational Leadership® model recommend the leadership style which has the highest possibility to meet the followers' needs at each readiness level. Therefore, training should let participants know peoples' difference needs, rather than simply teach them the stereotype leadership style for each level of follower readiness level.

4. Improve employees' ability to manage all situations.

While the Situational Leadership® model assumes that leaders can change their leadership styles according to their followers' demands, it is difficult for people to change among different leadership styles. Therefore, it is also needed to evaluate employees' ability and give them feedback to improve their capacity to manage different situations.

Finally, I will finish with suggestions for future research that stem from the limitations of this research.

1. Test at readiness level one (R1) and two (R2)

Because the sample sizes of readiness level one (R1) and two (R2) were too small to test the hypotheses in this study, R1 and R2 data were used only for observing the tendencies of outcomes. Therefore, additional studies using larger samples are needed for examining the suitability of the Situational Leadership® model for Japanese workers if a statistical analysis is desired.

2. Research the same subjects for a long period.

This study examined whether people with the various readiness levels had different needs for their leaders than previously thought. However, because the research was carried out during a short time period, it could not examine whether individuals changed their needs for leaders according to their level of growth. Therefore, it is needed to research the same subjects for a long period in order to examine fully the Situational Leadership® model.

3. Evaluate the training.

This study examined the relationship among leadership style, followers' readiness level, and satisfaction in Japan according to the theoretical framework supplied by the Situational Leadership® model. However, because this was a one-time survey, it could not show causality. Therefore, it is needed to evaluate the effectiveness of the training over time.

4. Examine different outcomes.

This study used only two dependent variables, job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor, as followers' outcomes. Therefore, examination is needed using other

possible factors of outcomes, such as job performance according to the purposes of the training.

5. Determine the proper degree of relationship behaviors and task behaviors.

Because this study used the LEAD-Other, designed to categorize leadership styles into four types, the results could not show how much leaders should exhibit their relationship behaviors and task behaviors. Therefore, it is needed to determine the extent to which a leader should do so.

6. Research the effects of occupation, gender, and age.

This study did not focus on the effects of subjects' different occupations, gender, and age. However, because the relationship between leaders and followers may change as occupations, gender, and age change, it is needed to research these effects.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE (ENGLISH)

Questionnaire about Effective Leadership Style

Readiness Scale¹

The questions in this section are designed to ask you about your ability and willingness to perform a specific task or responsibility. Please choose **one** of the major work tasks you are currently assigned, then rate yourself on each question in light of that task. These questions use an eight-point scale. Circle one number per question that best reflects your situation with regard to the task.

1. How much job knowledge do you demonstrate while performing the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
2. How much job experience do you have for the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
3. What level of skill do you possess for the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
4. How much independence from managerial involvement do you prefer to complete the task?	Much ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Little
5. How often do you finish the task on time?	consistently ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Rarely
6. How often do you report your progress on the task?	consistently ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Rarely
7. How much confidence do you have toward the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
8. What degree of commitment do you have?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
9. What level of motivation do you have to accomplish the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
10. How eager are you to take responsibility for the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
11. How much accountability do you want to have for the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low
12. How much are you concerned about the task?	High ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → Low

¹ The questions from No.1 to No. 10, and their directions, are based on the Readiness Scale Staff Member instrument, by the Readiness Studies Institute (RSI) of Japan, and the Center for Leadership Studies Inc. (CLS), the United States. The

questions are slightly modified for this survey. Nobody may use these questions without permission from RSI and CLS.

Your leader' leadership style (LEAD Other)²

The questions in this section are designed to ask you about your current leader's leadership behaviors. Please perceive your leader's behavior, who you are currently working with, for the task you chose in the previous questions. Circle the letter of the alternative action choice you think most closely describes what behavior your current leader would use in the situation presented.

13. Situation #1. You are not responding lately to your leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for your welfare. Your performance is declining rapidly. Your leader would
 - A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
 - B. Be available for discussion but would not push for involvement.
 - C. Talk with you and then set goals.
 - D. Intentionally not intervene.

14. Situation #2. Your observable performance is increasing. Your leader has been making sure that you was aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance. Your leader would
 - A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that you are aware of your responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
 - B. Take no definite action.
 - C. Do what can be done to make you feel important and involved.
 - D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

15. Situation #3. You are unable to solve a problem. Your leader has normally left you alone. Your performance and interpersonal relationship have been good. Your leader would
 - A. Work with you and together engage in problem solving.
 - B. Let you work it out.
 - C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - D. Encourage you to work to solve the problem and support your efforts.

16. Situation #4. Your leader is planning a change. You have achieved at the high goal of job. You also believe to need a change. Your leader would
 - A. Allow you involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive.
 - B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
 - C. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.
 - D. Incorporate group recommendations, but direct the change.

17. Situation #5. Your performance has been dropping during the last few months. You have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time. Your leader would
 - A. Allow you to formulate its own direction.
 - B. Incorporate you recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
 - C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.

- D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not be too directive.
18. Situation #6. Your leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. Your leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment. Your leader would
- A. Do what could be done to make you feel important and involved.
 - B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
 - C. Intentionally not intervene.
 - D. Get you involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.
19. Situation #7. Your leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of your group have made suggestions about needed change. Your group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations. Your leader would
- A. Define the change and supervise carefully.
 - B. Participate with the group in developing the change, but allow members to organize the implementation.
 - C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
 - D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
20. Situation #8. Your performance and interpersonal relations are good. Your leader feels somewhat insecure about not providing direction to the group. Your leader would
- A. Leave you alone.
 - B. Discuss the situation with you and then initiate necessary changes.
 - C. Take steps to direct you toward working in a well defined manner.
 - D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with you, but not too directive.
21. Situation #9. Your leader has been appointed to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help. Your leader would
- A. Let the group work out its problems.
 - B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
 - C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
 - D. Allow the group involvement in setting goals, but not push.
22. Situation #10. You, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your leader's recent redefining of standards. Your leader would
- A. Allow you involvement in redefining standards, but not take control.
 - B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
 - C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone.
 - D. Incorporate your recommendations, but see that new standards are met.

23. Situation #11. Your leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of you. You have adequately handled your tasks and direction. Your interrelation is good. Your leader would
- Take steps to direct you working in a well defined manner.
 - Involve you in decision making and reinforce good contributions.
 - Discuss past performance with you and then examine the need for new practices.
 - Continue to leave you alone.
24. Situation #12. Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among followers. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task. Your leader would
- Try out solution with followers and examine the need for new practices.
 - Allow group members to work it out themselves.
 - Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - Participate in problem discussion while providing support for followers.

Your desired leadership style (LEAD Other) ²

The questions of this part are to ask you about what you want your leader to behave when you are in the same twelve situations as the previous part. Please circle the letter of the alternative action choice you think most closely describes what behavior you want your leader to use in the situation presented. Your leader means your desired leader, not your actual current leader.

25. Situation #1. You are not responding lately to your leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for your welfare. Your performance is declining rapidly. You desire your leader to
- Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
 - Be available for discussion but would not push for involvement.
 - Talk with you and then set goals.
 - Intentionally not intervene.
26. Situation #2. Your observable performance is increasing. Your leader has been making sure that you were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance. You desire your leader to
- Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that you are aware of your responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
 - Take no definite action.
 - Do what can be done to make you feel important and involved.
 - Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
27. Situation #3. You are unable to solve a problem. Your leader has normally left you alone. Your performance and interpersonal relationship have been good. You desire your leader to
- Work with you and together engage in problem solving.
 - Let you work it out.
 - Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - Encourage you to work to solve the problem and support your efforts.

28. Situation #4. Your leader is planning a change. You have achieved at the high goal of job. You also believe to need a change. You desire to your leader to
- Allow you involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive.
 - Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
 - Allow the group to formulate its own direction.
 - Incorporate group recommendations, but direct the change.
29. Situation #5. Your performance has been dropping during the last few months. You have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time. You desire your leader to
- Allow you to formulate its own direction.
 - Incorporate you recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
 - Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.
 - Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not be too directive.
30. Situation #6. Your leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. Your leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment. You desire your leader to
- Do what could be done to make you feel important and involved.
 - Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
 - Intentionally not intervene.
 - Get you involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.
31. Situation #7. Your leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of your group have made suggestions about needed change. Your group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations. You desire your leader to
- Define the change and supervise carefully.
 - Participate with the group in developing the change, but allow membes to organize the implementation.
 - Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
 - Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
32. Situation #8. Your performance and interpersonal relations are good. Your leader feels somewhat insecure about not providing direction to the group. You desire your leader to
- Leave you alone.
 - Discuss the situation with you and then initiate necessary changes.
 - Take steps to direct you toward working in a well defined manner.
 - Be supportive in discussing the situation with you, but not too directive.
33. Situation #9. Your leader has been appointed to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have

turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help. You desire your leader to

- A. Let the group work out its problems.
- B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
- C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
- D. Allow the group involvement in setting goals, but not push.

34. Situation #10. You, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your leader's recent redefining of standards. You desire your leader to,
- A. Allow you involvement in redefining standards, but not take control.
 - B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
 - C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone.
 - D. Incorporate your recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
35. Situation #11. Your leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of you. You has adequately handled your tasks and direction. Your interrelation is good. You desire your leader to,
- A. Take steps to direct you working in a well defined manner.
 - B. Involve you in decision making and reinforce good contributions.
 - C. Discuss past performance with you and then examine the need for new practices.
 - D. Continue to leave you alone.
36. Situation #12. Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among followers. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task. You desire your leader to,
- A. Try out solution with followers and examine the need for new practices.
 - B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.
 - C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - D. Participate in problem discussion while providing support for followers.

² The questions, from No.11 to No. 34, and their directions, are taken from on the LEAD Other instrument, by the Readiness Studies Institute (RSI), Japan, and the Center for Leadership Studies Inc. (CLS), in the United State. The questions are slightly modified for this survey. Nobody may use these questions without permission from RSI and CLS.

Job Satisfaction, and Satisfaction with Superior.

The questions in this section are designed to ask you about your satisfaction levels regarding your working environment.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

Please circle one answer out of each five-point scale next to each question.

- 1. Strongly Disagree
- 2. Disagree
- 3. Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4. Agree
- 5. Strongly Agree

37. I enjoy this task.	1	2	3	4	5
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38. I feel this task is my life.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I want to keep dealing with this task.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I am well satisfied with this task.	1	2	3	4	5

To what extent do you feel satisfaction with each of the following sceneries? Please circle one answer out of each five-point scale next to each question.

1. Strongly Dissatisfied
2. Dissatisfied
3. Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied
4. Satisfied
5. Strongly Satisfied

41. The context of this task	1	2	3	4	5
42. The relation with your leader	1	2	3	4	5
43. The quality of your leader's leadership	1	2	3	4	5
44. Your leader's evaluation for you	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic Information

45. What is your gender? 1) Male 2) Female

46. How old are you? ___ years old

47. How long is your tenure with your company? ___ years ___ months

48. How long is your tenure as current position? ___ years ___ months

Thank you, that is all.

Please send this file back to Riho Yoshioka (riyoshioka@hotmail.com).

I really appreciate your cooperation.

- Situational Leadership® is a registered trademark of the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc.
- The Center for Leadership Studies, Inc. has allowed Ms. Riho Yoshioka, a master's student at the School of Urban and Public Affairs, the University of Texas at Arlington, to use the LEAD Other and the Readiness Scale Staff Member to survey for the purpose of her thesis between February and April.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE (JAPANESE)

効果的なリーダーシップスタイル調査質問紙

レディネス・スケール¹

以下の質問は、あなたの現在担当している業務に対するレディネス（能力と意欲）の度合いを調べるためのものです。現在あなたが担当している業務のうち、一番重要なものを思い浮かべてください。その業務に対して、8段階の評価からあなたに最もあてはまるレベルに○をつけてください。現在どのような行動をとっているか、あなたのご自身の判断でお答えください。

1. その業務についての必要な知識を、	十分発揮している ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったく発揮していない
2. その業務に関連する経験を、	十分持っている ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったく持っていない
3. この業務に対する技能を、	十分持っている ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったく持っていない
4. この業務の遂行は、	一人で出来る ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → 指導が必要である
5. この業務に対する時間の使い方は、	いつも有効的である ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったく有効的でない
6. この業務の経過報告は、	常にしている ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったくしていない
7. この業務に対して、	かなり自信がある ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → かなり自信がない
8. この業務には、	是非関わりたい ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → 出来るだけ関わりたいくない
9. この業務に対して達成意欲を、	高く持っている ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → まったく持っていない
10. この業務の責任を持つことに、	大変意欲がある ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → 気がすすまない
11. この業務に対する結果責任を、	持ちたい ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → 避けたい
12. この業務への関心は、	とても高い ← 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 → ほとんどない

¹ 1-12の質問は、有限会社レディネス・スタディーズ・インスティテュート(RSI)から許可を頂き、「レディネス・スケール-フォロワー」を本研究の目的に合わせて一部変更したものです。無断引用・転用はかたく禁じられています。

上司のリーダーシップスタイル (リード-他人-) ²

以下の質問は、あなたの現在の上司のリーダーシップスタイルを調べるためのものです。現在あなたが担当している業務のうち、一番重要なものを思い浮かべてください。その業務を行う際に、以下の様な12の状況になったとします。あなたの現在の上司はどのような行動をとると思われますか。4つの選択肢から、あなたの上司が取る行動として最もあてはまるもの1つに○をつけてください。あなたの直感でお答えください。

13. 状況1：上司の親身な話し掛けや身の回りについての細かい気遣いに、最近あなたは反応を示しません。あなたのその業務に対する仕事振りは急激に落ち込んでいます。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. その業務を完遂することの必要性和業務手順に従順することを強調する。
 - B. あなたと話し合いをするが、業務のやり方に対しては強要しない。
 - C. あなたと話し合いをして、(上司が)業務の目標を設定する。
 - D. 意図的に何もしない。
14. 状況2：あなたの上司はこれまで、あなたが業務への責任を自覚し、目標を意識しながら業務を遂行できるようつとめてきました。あなたのその業務に対する仕事振りは、目に見えて向上しています。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. あなたとの親和的な関係を続ける一方、業務への責任の自覚、目標意識が途絶えないよう引き続きつとめる。
 - B. 特に何もしない。
 - C. あなたがとても重要でその業務に大変貢献していると、あなたが自信を持つように激励する。
 - D. 業務の重要性和達成期限の重要性を強調する。
15. 状況3：あなたは、その業務に関係する問題を解決できずにいます。あなたの上司は通常、あなたひとりにその業務を任せています。あなたの仕事振り人間関係は良いままです。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. あなたと一緒にその業務を行い、問題解決のために努める。
 - B. あなた一人で問題解決するまで何もしない。
 - C. すばやく確実に、あなたの業務方法を修正し、業務の方針の方向転換を指示する。
 - D. あなたがその問題を解決できるように励まし、あなたの努力を支援する。
16. 状況4：あなたの上司は業務に対する変革を考えています。あなたは良い業務成績を残しています。あなたも変革の必要性を感じています。この時、あなたの上司は、

- A. あなたがその業務の変革計画に関与できるようにし、強い方向付け・指示は控えめにする。
- B. その業務の変革内容と方針を宣言し、注意深く監督しながら変革を進める。
- C. その業務の変革内容と方向性を、あなたにいっさい任せる。
- D. 改革の内容に関するあなたから意見を採用するが、内容・方針は自分が決定する。

17. 状況5：あなたの仕事振りがここ数ヶ月落ち込んでいます。あなたはその業務の最終目標をあまり気にせず、毎日の業務をおこなってきました。以前は、自分の役割と責任を再確認することで、良い業績を保っていました。また、その業務を予定通りに終らせることも常に頭においていました。この時、あなたの上司は、

- A. あなた自身に業務の方向性を一切任せる。
- B. あなたからの意見を集め、あなたの業務の最終目標が達成されるよう監督する。
- C. あなたの役割と責任を再提示し、あなたを注意深く監督する。
- D. あなたと一緒にあなたの役割と責任を再確認できるようにするが、強い方向付け・指示は控えめにする。

18. 状況6：あなたの上司は効率的な業務遂行に向けて取り掛かりました。前任者は、業務環境をかなりきつく取り締まっていました。あなたの上司は、生産的な状況を築く一方、人間関係の良い環境づくりもしたいと考えています。この時、あなたの上司は、

- A. あなたがとても重要でその業務に大変貢献していると、あなたが自信を持つように激励する。
- B. その業務の重要性と、達成期限の重要性を強調する。
- C. 意図的に何もしない。
- D. あなたをその業務における意思決定に関与できるようにし、業務の目標が達成されるよう監督する。

19. 状況7：あなたの上司はあなたの業務に関わるグループの構造改革を考えています。あなたも、構造改革の必要性を上司に提案していました。そのグループは運営面においての柔軟性を発揮し、とても生産的です。この時、あなたの上司は、

- A. 構造改革の内容を宣言し、改革達成に向けて慎重に監督する。
- B. あなたと一緒に構造改革の計画について話し合い、あなたにその方策を決定させる。
- C. あなたからの提案を聞き入れるが、自ら方策を決定し監督する。
- D. 困難・対立を避けるため、構造改革実行はとりやめる。

20. 状況8：あなたのその業務における仕事振りと人間関係はともに良好です。あなたの上司は、あなたへの業務上の指示が足りないのではないかと何となく不安を感じています。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. 特別何もしない。
 - B. あなたに本心を打ち明けて話し合いをし、状況を変えるような対応策を自分が決定する。
 - C. 決められた手順や様式で業務を行うように、あなたに指示・指導することで対処する。
 - D. あなたに本心を打ち明けて話し合いをし、あなたに対応策を決定させる。
21. 状況9：あなたがその業務を一緒に行っているグループは、変革の必要性を勧告されたにも関わらず、まだ達成できていません。あなたを含め、グループメンバーは、その変革の最終目標を明確に把握していません。変革会議においても欠席者が多く、雑談の場となってしまいます。メンバーは、必要な能力を潜在的に備えています。この時、このグループを率いるあなたの上司は、
- A. グループメンバーに解決方法を一切任せる。
 - B. グループメンバーとの話し合いからでた提案をまとめ、自分が決めた最終目標が達成できるよう監督する。
 - C. 変革の最終目標を提示し、注意深く監督する。
 - D. グループメンバーと一緒に最終目標を話し合い、メンバーに最終目標を決定させ指導は控え目にする。
22. 状況10：今まであなたは職責に良く応えてきましたが、最近あなたの上司が再設定した業務の目標基準について、あなたがあまり良い反応を示しません。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. あなたと一緒にその業務の目標基準について話し合い、あなたに決定させる。
 - B. 再設定した目標基準にそうよう、注意深く監督する。
 - C. あなたへの圧力による対立を避けるため、状況をそのまま見守る。
 - D. あなたと一緒にその業務目標基準について話し合い、自分が新しい目標基準を決定し監督する。
23. 状況11：あなたの上司は最近異動してきたばかりです。前任者はあなたにその業務を一切任せていました。あなたはその前任者のもと適切にその業務をこなしてきました。人間関係も良好です。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. 決められた手順や様式で業務を行うように、あなたに細かく指示する。
 - B. あなたと一緒にその業務への意思決定をし、あなたの仕事への貢献を激励する。指示は控え目にする。

- C. あなたと過去の仕事振りについて話し合い、新しい業務体制の必要性を自分で決定し指導する。
- D. 引き続き、あなたにその業務の一切を任せる。

24. 状況12：最近、あなたがその業務と一緒にいるグループ内の人間関係に問題があることがわかりました。グループは、良好な業務成績を残していますし、長期の目標設定も効果的にこなしています。また、メンバーはこれまで協調しあって業務をこなしていました。さらに、その業務へ適した能力・技能を持ち合わせています。この時、あなたの上司は、
- A. メンバーと一緒に問題解決策を検討し、自分が対応策を決定する。
 - B. メンバーに自分達でその問題を解決させる。
 - C. 速やかに事態の改善への対応策を提示し監督する。
 - D. メンバーと一緒に問題解決策を検討し、メンバーに対応策の決定・実行を任せる。

理想の上司のリーダーシップスタイル（リード-他人-）²

ここでの質問は、あなたが希望する上司のリーダーシップスタイルを調べるためのものです。現在あなたが担当している業務のうち、一番重要なものを思い浮かべてください。その業務を行う際に、先程と同じ12の状況になったとします。あなたは上司にどのような行動をとってほしいですか。4つの選択肢から、あなたが上司に希望する行動として最もあてはまるもの1つに○をつけてください。あなたの現在の上司に希望する行動ではなく、**理想**の上司像を思い浮かべ、直感でお答えください。

25. 状況1：上司の親身な話し掛けや身の回りについての細かい気遣いに、最近あなたは反応を示しません。あなたのその業務に対する仕事振りは急激に落ち込んでいます。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. その業務を完遂することの必要性和業務手順に従順することを強調する。
 - B. あなたと話し合いをするが、業務のやり方に対しては強要しない。
 - C. あなたと話し合いをして、（上司が）業務の目標を設定する。
 - D. 意図的に何もしない。
26. 状況2：あなたの上司はこれまで、あなたが業務への責任を自覚し、目標を意識しながら業務を遂行できるようつとめてきました。あなたのその業務に対する仕事振りは、目に見えて向上しています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. あなたとの親和的な関係を続ける一方、業務への責任の自覚、目標意識が途絶えないよう引き続きつとめる。
 - B. 特に何もしない。
 - C. あなたがとても重要でその業務に大変貢献していると、あなたが自信を持つように激励する。

D. 業務の重要性と、達成期限の重要性を強調する。

27. 状況3 : あなたは、その業務に関係する問題を解決できずにいます。あなたの上司は通常、あなたひとりにその業務を任せています。あなたの仕事振りと人間関係は良いままです。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. あなたと一緒にその業務を行い、問題解決のために努める。
 - B. あなた一人で問題解決するまで何もしない。
 - C. すばやく確実に、あなたの業務方法を修正し、業務の方針の方向転換を指示する。
 - D. あなたがその問題を解決できるように励まし、あなたの努力を支援する。
28. 状況4 : あなたの上司は業務に対する変革を考えています。あなたは良い業務成績を残しています。あなたも変革の必要性を感じています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. あなたがその業務の変革計画に関与できるようにし、強い方向付け・指示は控えめにする。
 - B. その業務の変革内容と方針を宣言し、注意深く監督しながら変革を進める。
 - C. その業務の変革内容と方向性を、あなたにいっさい任せる。
 - D. 改革の内容に関するあなたから意見を採用するが、内容・方針は自分が決定する。
29. 状況5 : あなたの仕事振りがここ数ヶ月落ち込んでいます。あなたはその業務の最終目標をあまり気にせず、毎日の業務をおこなってきました。以前は、自分の役割と責任を再確認することで、良い業績を保っていました。また、その業務を予定通りに終らせることも常に頭においていました。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. あなた自身に業務の方向性を一切任せる。
 - B. あなたからの意見を集め、あなたの業務の最終目標が達成されるよう監督する。
 - C. あなたの役割と責任を再提示し、あなたを注意深く監督する。
 - D. あなたと一緒にあなたの役割と責任を再確認できるようにするが、強い方向付け・指示は控えめにする。
30. 状況6 : あなたの上司は効率的な業務遂行に向けて取り掛かりました。前任者は、業務環境をかなりきつく取り締まっていました。あなたの上司は、生産的な状況を築く一方、人間関係の良い環境づくりもしたいと考えています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、
- A. あなたがとても重要でその業務に大変貢献していると、あなたが自信を持つように激励する。
 - B. その業務の重要性と、達成期限の重要性を強調する。

- C. 意図的に何もしない。
- D. あなたをその業務における意思決定に関与できるようにし、業務の目標が達成されるよう監督する。

3 1. 状況 7 : あなたの上司はあなたの業務に関わるグループの構造改革を考えています。あなたも、構造改革の必要性を上司に提案していました。そのグループは運営面においての柔軟性を発揮し、とても生産的です。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. 構造改革の内容を宣言し、改革達成に向けて慎重に監督する。
- B. あなたと一緒に構造改革の計画について話し合い、あなたにその方策を決定させる。
- C. あなたからの提案を聞き入れるが、自ら方策を決定し監督する。
- D. 困難・対立を避けるため、構造改革実行はとりやめる。

3 2. 状況 8 : あなたのその業務における仕事振りと人間関係はともに良好です。あなたの上司は、あなたへの業務上の指示が足りないのではないかと何となく不安を感じています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. 特別何もしない。
- B. あなたに本心を打ち明けて話し合いをし、状況を変えるような対応策を自分が決定する。
- C. 決められた手順や様式で業務を行うように、あなたに指示・指導することで対処する。
- D. あなたに本心を打ち明けて話し合いをし、あなたに対応策を決定させる。

3 3. 状況 9 : あなたがその業務を一緒に行っているグループは、変革の必要性を勧告されたにも関わらず、まだ達成できていません。あなたを含め、グループメンバーは、その変革の最終目標を明確に把握していません。変革会議においても欠席者が多く、雑談の場となってしまいます。メンバーは、必要な能力を潜在的に備えています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. グループメンバーに解決方法を一切任せる。
- B. グループメンバーとの話し合いから得た提案をまとめ、自分が決めた最終目標が達成できるよう監督する。
- C. 変革の最終目標を提示し、注意深く監督する。
- D. グループメンバーと一緒に最終目標を話し合い、メンバーに最終目標を決定させ指導は控え目にする。

3 4. 状況 1 0 : 今まであなたは職責に良く応えてきましたが、最近あなたの上司が再設定した業務の目標基準について、あなたがあまり良い反応を示しません。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. あなたと一緒にその業務の目標基準について話し合い、あなたに決定させる。
- B. 再設定した目標基準にそうよう、注意深く監督する。
- C. あなたへの圧力による対立を避けるため、状況をそのまま見守る。
- D. あなたと一緒にその業務目標基準について話し合い、自分が新しい目標基準を決定し監督する。

35. 状況11：あなたの上司は最近異動してきたばかりです。前任者はあなたにその業務を一切任せていました。あなたはその前任者のもと適切にその業務をこなしてきました。人間関係も良好です。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. 決められた手順や様式で業務を行うように、あなたに細かく指示する。
- B. あなたと一緒にその業務への意思決定をし、あなたの仕事への貢献を激励する。指示は控え目にする。
- C. あなたと過去の仕事振りについて話し合い、新しい業務体制の必要性を自分で決定し指導する。
- D. 引き続き、あなたにその業務の一切を任せる。

36. 状況12：最近、あなたがその業務を一緒に行っているグループ内の人間関係に問題があることがわかりました。グループは、良好な業務成績を残していますし、長期の目標設定も効果的にこなしています。また、メンバーはこれまで協調しあって業務をこなしていました。さらに、その業務へ適した能力・技能を持ち合わせています。この時、あなたが上司にとって欲しい行動は、

- A. メンバーと一緒に問題解決策を検討し、自分が対応策を決定する。
- B. メンバーに自分達でその問題を解決させる。
- C. 速やかに事態の改善への対応策を提示し監督する。
- D. メンバーと一緒に問題解決策を検討し、メンバーに対応策の決定・実行を任せる。

²13-36の質問は、有限会社レディネス・スタディーズ・インスティテュート(RSD)から許可を頂き、「リード（他人）」を本研究の目的に合わせて一部変更したものです。無断引用・転用はかたく禁じられています。

満足感

あなたは現在の業務について日頃どのように思っていますか。

次の5つの選択肢の中から最も当てはまるものに○をつけてください。

1. そう思わない
2. どちらかといえばそう思わない
3. どちらともいえない
4. どちらかといえばそう思う
5. そう思う

37. この業務が楽しい	1	2	3	4	5
38. この業務にとっても生きがいを感じる	1	2	3	4	5
39. この業務を続けたい	1	2	3	4	5
40. 全般的にこの業務に満足している	1	2	3	4	5

あなたは次のことがらについてどの程度満足していますか。

次の5つの選択肢の中から最も当てはまるものに○をつけてください。

1. 不満である
2. どちらかといえば不満である
3. どちらともいえない
4. どちらかといえば満足している
5. 満足している

41. 業務内容	1	2	3	4	5
42. 上司との関係	1	2	3	4	5
43. 上司の指導力	1	2	3	4	5
44. 上司からの評価	1	2	3	4	5

45. あなたの性別をお答えください。1) 男性 2) 女性

46. あなたの年齢をお答えください。 ____ 歳

47. あなたの会社勤務歴はどのくらいですか。 ____ 年 ____ ヶ月

48. あなたの現職務歴はどのくらいですか。 ____ 年 ____ ヶ月

以上で、質問は終わりです。

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ご協力ありがとうございました。

・状況対応リーダーシップ (R)は、株式会社シーエルエスの登録商標です。無断で複写、引用、転載することは禁じられています。無断でアンケート内容の複写・引用・転載が行われた場合は、賠償対象となります。

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Riho Yoshioka was born in Ohkuma, Fukushima prefecture, Japan, in 1973. She graduated with a Bachelor's of Science in Mathematics from Tokyo Woman's Christian University in 1996 and graduated with a Master of Environmental Earth Science in Animal Ecology from Hokkaido University in 1998. After that, she began working as a maintenance engineer at a Tokyo Electric Power Company Inc. nuclear power station. After four years, she moved to the Human Factors Group housed in the Research and Development Center at TEPCO in 2002. As a member of the Human Factors Group, she researched public perceptions about nuclear facilities and related power generation, developing training tools, after the policy exercise method, for employees to understand perception gaps between the public and personnel. After winning a scholarship for two years of study abroad from TEPCO in 2004, she began studying urban affairs at the University of Texas at Arlington with a particular interest in how to manage conflicts over public issues from a United States perspective. She has since become interested in how to appropriately adopt American practices in Japanese organizations appropriately to improve relationships through mutual understanding among people, thereby resolving such conflicts.