To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Asami Segi entitled “Linguistic and Cultural Competence in the Global Business Arena: A Study of a Japanese Company in Tennessee.” I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

Patricia Davis-Wiley, Major Professor

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(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It would be impossible to list everyone who has inspired me throughout my dissertation and stimulated my interest in linguistic and cultural competence in the global business arena, but I would like to thank those people who have helped make my dissertation become a reality. I am especially grateful to my committee chairperson, Dr. Patricia Davis-Wiley, for her extraordinarily valuable and unfaltering support and guidance. My 17 years of experience in the U.S. started indirectly with Dr. Davis-Wiley’s influence since my first ESL professor at Tennessee Wesleyan College was one of her former students. Fortunately, this influence has been a crucial source of encouragement in my teaching career and in my entire stay in the U.S. Enthusiasm toward teaching world languages is one of the many things she has taught me. I believe that my responsibility is to keep this enthusiasm in my teaching and also to hand it over to the next generation. I feel extremely lucky to be in this educational lineage. My mission now is to inspire and encourage my students in my classes as Dr. Davis-Wiley has done for me over the years, and to love and nurture them as she has done with me. The loving part was expressed in part through the gourmet food she cooked for me countless times. That food was what kept me moving forward with my dissertation. I am very grateful that I had a chance to meet Dr. Davis-Wiley and her husband, Steve, who have both given me a tremendous amount of love, caring, encouragement and many fine meals over the years.

I feel very thankful toward all my committee members for sharing their expertise with me. I thank Dr. Detelin Elenkov for inviting me into the academic business field; his views of international business have opened up many doors of opportunity for me. I could not have finished Chapters 3 and 4 without Dr. Gary Skolits’ support. I sincerely appreciate very much his answering my thousands of statistical questions; he always made time for me. I was able to
find many interesting points in my study because of his help. I am very grateful that Dr. Barbara Thayer-Bacon never gave up on me and trusted in me all of these years of my long dissertation process. Her cheer has been my inspiration just as that from my family, thousands of miles away. Her passion and enthusiasm toward education have been part of my motivation to continue with my research.

I would also wish to thank Ms. Kazumi Nimura who introduced me to this world of Japanese language education. I would not be doing what I love to do, which is teaching Japanese, if she did not teach and guide me into this field. I feel very fortunate to have had her as my very first teacher; she has shared enormous amounts of knowledge and skills in teaching the Japanese language. Here, I would also like to thank my friend and tutor, Mr. Jason Ezell. His education and background in composition and ESL helped me tremendously in writing my dissertation. His encouragement was always something that I greatly valued and which kept me going. I would like to thank Ms. Cary Springer, Statistics Consultant at The University of Tennessee, for helping me with all the statistical materials in this dissertation. All of the interesting findings were found because of her continued support and valued expertise which are greatly appreciated. I would like to thank Dr. Noriko Horiguchi for spending enormous amounts of time with me, studying at cafés and bookstores. I truly admire her knowledge and friendship. I do not think I could have completed this dissertation without her working beside me so many hours. I surely could not have completed my surveys at Company A without the help of my friend, Hiroko Shoji (another former student of Dr. Davis-Wiley). I truly admire her work ethic and her commitment to her work, but more than anything, I value our friendship over the years.

At last, I would like to thank all my friends who supported me all these years, especially my best friend, Ms. Rumi Kozawa. Her encouragement and abiding trust in me were both very
dear to my heart. I truly treasure our long-term friendship and look forward to having many more years of such to come. Special thanks go to my grandmother, Ai Igata, who passed away during the process of my dissertation and never understood why I graduated from schools so many times. I hope she is proud of me now. Also, very special thanks go to my mother, Hiroko Segi, and my brother, Kenichi Segi, who have both given me their endless love, support and encouragement from thousands of miles away. My deepest gratitude goes to them. No words can explain how much I appreciate both my mother and brother. I feel very fortunate to have them as my family and as my loudest and strongest cheerleaders.
ABSTRACT

According to a survey by the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning, the number one country in terms of investment in Tennessee is Japan, which currently has 160 companies in Tennessee that employ 40,450 people (Tennessee Total Foreign Direct Investment and Employment by Country Current Through April 2008, p.1).

Whereby there are a number of research studies examining the importance of Japanese language competence in American companies, there is a paucity of research that addresses Americans with Japanese language competency who work in Japanese companies located in the U.S. This study therefore addressed this deficiency and sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the current expectations of managers, in terms of the level of Japanese competency, of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in Tennessee?
2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?
3. What is the rationale underlying the expectations of managers regarding employees’ language and cultural expectations?

A modified Delphi study approach (e.g., multiple rounds of data collection) was conducted to: a) assess instrument reliability and validity, and b) ascertain the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers, as viewed by a panel of American and Japanese experts at the second largest Japanese company in the state of Tennessee.
An exploratory factor analysis (with principal components extraction and varimax rotation) was used to determine how well the individual questions on two rounds of a modified Delphi survey grouped into five factors of interest which were Business Skills, Communication Skills, Cultural Awareness, Language Skills and Language Opportunities.

Results derived from the analysis of the opinions of the 43 American experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture Skills were the most important, followed by Basic Communication and Advanced Communication Skills. Deemed as non-important skills were Language skills and having the Opportunity to use Japanese at work. In contrast, the 18 Japanese experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture, in addition to Advanced Communication Skills, were considered to be the most important; Language, Basic Communication and Opportunity were the least important.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

International competitiveness is urgently needed in this global society, but how well have the American education and business fields been supporting this need? Competitive skills in global businesses are required to succeed in that arena, and the best way to understand others would be to know their perspectives, and their perspectives are a product of society and culture. Language is a potentially powerful means of understanding other cultures because language is such an integral part of them (Goldstein & Tamura, 1975, Nieto & Bode 2008). Trueba (1993) explains this view of language and culture in the following way:

Whatever knowledge we acquire, it is always acquired through language and culture, two interlocked symbolic systems considered essential for human interaction and survival. Culture and language are so intricately intertwined that even trained scholars find it impossible to decide where language ends and culture begins, or which one of the two impacts the other the most. (p. 26-27)

According to Chaney and Martin (1995), the “definition of globalization is the ability of a corporation to take a product and market it in the entire civilized world” (p.3). Many cultural critics, however, perceive globalization more as colonization. Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997) describe globalization as the most recent wave of colonization. Therefore, traditional colonialism changed the shape of colonization from a free market and led it into globalization. Donkor (2005) expresses this issue as “two sides of the same coin” (p. 27). The field of business has not completely ignored the negative aspects of globalization. According to Williams’ (2008) research, human rights, working conditions, the environment and anti-corruption are the principal areas of discussion in the organization called the UN’s Global Compact (UNGC). The
UNGC is the world’s largest voluntary corporate social responsibility (CSR). More than 3,100 businesses from at least 120 countries participate in this organization of the UNGC (p. 39). The UNGC seeks the balance of corporate social responsibility and the solution to the challenges of globalization. The concerns of an organization like UNGC show that globalization does not have to always manifest as colonization. There are ways to join the aims of globalization with ethical concerns. In fact, one of the underlying aims of this study is to demonstrate how respectful consideration of cultural difference, especially through language instruction, can be both good ethics and good business.

Trompenaars (1993) explains the differences between cultures and seeks the best solutions to more efficiently work together for people from different cultures. His explanations enable one to see the historical, cultural, religious, and sometimes regional backgrounds of how specific cultures were formed and are evidenced in today’s business world. One of his strongest points is not to simply show the difference between the cultures but to point out the essential points of how those different country’s strong points can be implemented to create one new culture which works efficiently for many cultures. He shows how sometimes opposite values can actually be interwoven to forge a new idea by using only the strong points of both cultures.

Therefore, this study seeks to find those ways by which global business and global ethics can be combined and by which apparently opposing cultural values can each be incorporated to form innovative, truly international values. How can language competency help global business achieve this ethical goal? What role does language competency play in international business? Furthermore, how are the following three most important competitive skills in global business—business, multicultural education, and language skills—valued by multinational companies in the global arena?
In spite of a desperate need for Japanese competence in multinational companies in the U.S., the number of businesspeople with Japanese competence is still low (Cramer, 1990). This researcher believes that multinational companies, in particular, need to hire employees with knowledge of global and local aspects, just as new products need to have both world-wide and local functions to be successful. For instance, a new car needs to be of excellent quality to pass customers’ satisfaction world-wide. In addition, that same car needs to be able to function in a specific area (i.e., left or right driver seat placement, size, and style). One needs to consider even the naming process to make sure that specific words do not have any bad connotations in a particular language and/or culture. For example, the Chevrolet Nova was not popular in Spanish-speaking countries because *no va* means *it does not go/work*.

Thus, a specific environment in a certain place creates very specific needs. In order to acquire knowledge, an employee must learn the target culture, language, and national business practice. As an adult learner, the employee tends to learn new things by simply using the core ideas within his or her existing knowledge, which are clearly structured or composed. This tendency, however, can lead to ethnocentrism. According to Chaney and Martin (1995), the definition of ethnocentrism is “the belief that your own cultural background, including ways of analyzing problems, language, and verbal and nonverbal communication, is correct” (p.9).

Acquisition of a world language, albeit important in the global arena, requires serious study time, patience, and effort. In return for all the difficulties and struggles, the student acquires not only the communication skills but also knowledge of how those within that culture think and act in different situations. In terms of competition, if one wants to succeed, one needs to know one’s competitor. One can study the social conventions, history, or literature but that would always be only one part of the whole culture being studied. One of the best tools would
be to learn the competitor’s language in order to succeed. In the present world, economic competition in the global setting approaches the import of military battle; therefore, the acquisition of a target language and developing competence in its culture is a vital point of economic survival and success in today’s global society and the business world is part of this international society.

**Statement of the Problem**

To date, there is a paucity of research concerning language cultures other than English. Furthermore, in spite of all the research and data about Japanese language competence in American companies, there is very little research studying Japanese competency in Japanese companies located in the U.S. The research in this study, therefore, specifically addresses this lack by analyzing the importance of Japanese language competence in particular settings.

The state of Tennessee was chosen to conduct this research because Japan’s investment in Tennessee is number one compared to other foreign companies (see Table 1). According to a survey by the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning, the number one country in terms of investment in the state is Japan, with an announced investment of $11,514,078,297; number two is the United Kingdom with an announced investment of $1,471,573,266; and number three is Canada with an announced investment of $1,370,064,085 (2008). Japan’s total number of firms in Tennessee is 160 companies which, together employ 40,450 people, making Japan first in bringing employment and actual job sites to the state (Tennessee Total Foreign Direct Investment and Employment by Country Current Through April 2008, p.1). The researcher concluded that those numbers support the purpose of this study and see the state of Tennessee as an ideal state to analyze in terms of international business.
Table 1

Total Foreign Direct Investment and Employment in Tennessee (State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning, 2008)

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<th>Announced Investment ($)</th>
<th>Number of Firms</th>
<th>Employment</th>
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<td>Japan $11,514,078,297</td>
<td>Japan 160</td>
<td>Japan 40,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom $1,471,573,266</td>
<td>United Kingdom 141</td>
<td>United Kingdom 21,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada $1,370,064,085</td>
<td>Canada 71</td>
<td>Germany 11,741</td>
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The wave of globalization hits American employees from many different angles. For example, one might have to deal with foreign associates when working for American companies in the U.S., while visiting or living abroad or while working for foreign companies in the U.S. As this research mentioned earlier, global products as well as global employees need to possess both international and local relevance. In order to be strong and successful, a global company needs to nurture branch offices overseas and enable them to cooperate with headquarters and, at the same time, be able to function independently without depending on headquarters’ help. Therefore, this study focuses on how a branch office of Japanese companies in the U.S. can be successful and how Japanese language competence is valued in these companies. Sending American associates to Japan as expatriates, also educating them in Japanese language classes at the local Japanese company in the U.S. and sending students to university courses, are the three major components to a successful global company’s support of both headquarters in Japan as well as its company in the U.S.

Multicultural education plays a vital role in nurturing multicultural citizens in U.S. higher education, and this multicultural perspective is vital for employees in the global market place. Communication skills are very important for expatriates overseas as well. An equally
important fact to remember is that language is culture; therefore, by learning the language, one can learn its culture as well. People learn more deeply and profoundly about themselves when they learn about others; therefore, opportunities for students to learn about those from outside their boundaries are something to treasure in their educational experience. By extension, learning about other cultures is critical to becoming a global, multicultural individual and a competitive employee in the global workforce.

The world seems to have become a smaller place because of technology, much more so than anyone had ever predicted. Human evolution has resulted in very high-speed societies, which are a benefit and a joy to some, but are merely endured by others. No matter how comfortable or uncomfortable one is in this type of society, the world will likely continue to become smaller. In this new world, global companies have emerged. Businesspeople worldwide seem to agree that global corporations will lead to worldwide success. By using the best resources and labor available from anywhere on earth to gain a high quality of productivity, a corporation could operate worldwide and make tremendous profits. Not everyone agrees with this positive view of globalization, though. Spring (2000) sees globalization as a problematic issue. One of his main arguments is that one’s value in the labor market cannot be the only measurement of value. In other words, one’s income should not be the only tool to judge one’s work; however, globalization is promoting this idea worldwide. Globalization is often viewed simply as greed. Spring says that profit cannot be the only motivation for any human endeavor. Many people, like Spring, are bothered by this profit-driven aspect of globalization. There must be equal attention to the well being of people and their environment. When people’s greed causes them to neglect these other concerns, the victims of globalization are among the most overlooked. Greene (1997) emphasizes that underprivileged people’s voices are as important as
those of privileged people. She describes this silencing in the following terms: “Absence, after all, suggests an emptiness, a void to be filled, a wound to be healed, a flaw to be repaired” (p.514). Furthermore, in education, one of the many criticisms against globalization is that educational institutions become little more than training grounds for private corporations, and as long as this is true, the voices of the world’s under-privileged are less likely to be heard (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 2002). Nonetheless, while the idea of globalization sounds both very appealing and reasonable for businesspeople, and appears to be the best way for a worldwide corporation to grow, the results are not always positive, even from a purely business perspective.

The proposed research study is of particular importance to the business arena. Between 20-40% of expatriate managers from the U.S. do not successfully make the transition to becoming successful long term managers in their host country and consequently return home early (Tung, 1982, p.68). There is a significant difference in the rate of failure between U.S., European, and Japanese expatriate managers, however. European and Japanese multinational corporations experience average expatriate failure rates of 5% to 15% (Tung, 1982, p.68). Specifically, Black and Mendenhall (1990) arrived at this number from studies conducted by Copeland and Griggs (1985), Harris and Moran (1979), and Misa and Fabricatore (1979) and estimated that these problems cost corporations from $50,000 to $150,000 per person if the expatriate managers return home early from an international assignment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990, p.114). Moreover, between $50,000 and $200,000 is spent to bring a manager back to the firm’s home office and for the firm to find a replacement (Copeland & Griggs, 1985,p.xix). It is estimated that up to $2 billion a year spent by American firms is associated with failed overseas assignments (Copeland & Griggs, 1985, p.xix). Seventy-five percent of executives in multinational firms believe that their companies need more employees with global leadership
abilities; however, less than 8% of the companies had programs to address this specific deficiency (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999, p.7).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the importance of Japanese language and cultural competence in business careers, as viewed by managers at Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee. Therefore, it is these managers who will become participants in a Delphi study in an effort to identify the specific expectations of Japanese companies in Tennessee for prospective employees. The researcher hopes that these findings will be of use in a number of ways, including the following. Managers in global companies might use this information to develop on-site language instruction. Business professors who offer concentrations in international business might use this information to inform their curricula. World language professors who wish to help their students who are interested in business careers in an international setting, might use this information in their instruction. Deans, department chairs, curriculum designers, and cultural studies faculties interested in developing multicultural curricula, whether it is a core or discipline-specific curriculum, might find these data helpful. The purpose of this research is to clarify the needs of global companies Vis-à-vis language proficiency and cultural competence, so that the above professionals can provide educational services to meet those needs.

Significance of the Study

In spite of a number of research studies examining Americans with Japanese language competency who work in American companies, there are very few studies that address Americans with Japanese language competency who work in Japanese companies located in the U.S. Therefore, the opinion of experts from these successful Japanese global companies in the
U.S., will be a valuable resource to identify the roles of, cultural competence, and world
language proficiency in U.S. global companies.

Assumptions

A fundamental assumption in this study is that successful companies have knowledgeable
managers. Moreover, in order to have successful expatriates, it is assumed that companies
operate appropriate and meaningful expatriate programs.

It is also assumed that the selected participants representing management at successful
Japanese companies situated in the U.S., due to their first-hand experience, might be considered
experts in their field. Therefore, these experts can provide valuable insights into what
knowledge, skills, understanding, and attitudes are desired qualities for their future employees.
The participants in this study are assumed to be experts in their own positions in their respective
international business. It is also assumed that their answers will be honest ones.

Limitations of the Study

This study had several limitations. Only one type of research methodology was used, a
Modified Delphi Study. A panel of experts only drawn from the top three companies in
Tennessee, in terms of dollar investment, participated in the study. In addition, the present study
only focused on companies in the state of Tennessee. Therefore, the results of this study cannot
be generalized to a greater population.

Research Questions

1. What are the current expectations of managers, in terms of the level of Japanese
competency, of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in
Tennessee?
2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?

3. What is the rationale underlying the expectations of managers regarding employees’ language and cultural expectations?

Definition of Terms

Ethnocentrism: “The belief that one’s own cultural background, including ways of analyzing problems, language, and verbal and nonverbal communication, is correct” (Chaney & Martin, 1995, p.9).

Expatriate: Employees who are assigned to work overseas.

First Language (L1): “Used generally to refer to the first language that an individual learns. However, ‘first language,’ may also refer to the language in which an individual is most competent at any one point in her life, and this may be different from first language in a chronological sense” (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.110).

Globalization: “Refers to a phenomenon which emphasizes interconnectedness across the globe and which encompasses a number of significant economic, technological and cultural aspects” (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.125).

Heritage Language Education: It is education that “focuses on the development of appropriate language teaching materials for especially younger speakers of heritage languages who typically have at least passive knowledge of the language (and culture) they are studying” (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.133-134).

High-Context Language: It is “communication that transmits little in the explicit message; non-verbal aspects are important” (Chaney & Martin, 1995, p.95).
Low-Context Language: It is “communication explicitly coded and given in more than one way to be sure it is understood by the receiver” (Chaney & Martin, 1995, p.95).

Melting Pot: A sociocultural assimilation of people of differing backgrounds and nationalities; the term implies losing ethnic differences and forming one large society, or macro culture (Chaney & Martin, 1995, p.2). Playwright Israel Zangwill (1914) originated this metaphor. At the time of his play, "The Melting Pot," the nation had been open to unfettered immigration but was becoming increasingly wary of this trend. One criticism of the melting pot is forced assimilation. It has come to be seen as a concept meant for stripping away cultural individualism (Farrington, 1992; Paradis, 1981; Taitte, 1986).

Mosaic: “Individuals relating as the sculptors while being part of the sculpture of multicultural relations” (Farrington, 1992). This metaphor was created to emphasize an awareness of difference within the nation (Savickas, 1992). Goodrow, Lim and Murphy (1997) argue that this metaphor gives little awareness of what these relationships can mean beyond a seemingly impersonal, parallel coexistence since this picture leaves us only standing side by side.

Multicultural Education: “Multicultural education is a process of comprehensive school reform and basic education for all students” (Nieto & Bode, 2008, p.44).

Multiculturalism: There are five different types of multiculturalism: conservative multiculturalism/monoculturalism, liberal multiculturalism, pluralist multiculturalism, left-essentialist multiculturalism, and critical multiculturalism. Speakers are alluding to at least one of the following issues: race, socio-economic class, gender, language, culture, sexual preference or disability (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 2002, p.1 and p.7-26).

Tossed Salad/Salad Bowl: This metaphor was created to emphasize an awareness of difference within the nation (Farrington, 1992). Goodrow, Lim and Murphy (1997) argue that
the whole idea of people being mixed together in the rich dressing of democracy is still passive, lacking detail and vision.

Second Language (L2): “A second language is the language of an individual or a community that is not acquired from birth, but at some stage subsequent to the first (or native) language” (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.272).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): “A second language is the language of an individual or a community that is not acquired from birth, but at some stage subsequent to the first (or native) language. Second language acquisition refers to the learning of a language under such conditions. The extent to which a second-language speaker acquires ‘native-like’ competence is affected partly by their age. ‘second-language (acquisition)’ may be used as a cover term for any language learned subsequently to the first, since it has traditionally been argued that the principles of acquiring a second, third (etc.) language are similar” (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.272).

Willingness to Communicate (WTC): A quality or emotion of person who wants to communicate in the target language.

World Language: “A language that is not generally spoken in a particular territory. As there is no opportunity to learn it by ‘natural’ interactive means in this case, it has to be learnt consciously via schooling or special classes (Swan, Deumert, Lillis & Mesthrie, 2004, p.113).

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters that are followed by references, a bibliography, and appendices. Chapter 1 includes an Introduction, a Statement of the Problem, Purpose of the Study, Significance of the Study, Assumptions, Research Limitations, Research Questions, Definition of Terms, and Organization of the Study. Chapter 2 contains a review of pertinent
literature which provides a historical and theoretical framework for the study. Chapter 3 describes the methods and procedures followed in the study. Chapter 4 reports the results of the analysis of the data. Chapter 5 provides a summary of results and outlines conclusions that are then followed by implications and recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews: the literature of world language education with special focus on Japanese language education in the U.S.; business literature about expatriate businesspeople and the effect of business trends in U.S. higher education; and the literature of cultural education with special attention to multicultural coursework; and the internationalizing of teacher education.

Can higher education in the U.S.--particularly in business, multicultural education, and world language education--keep up with the fast movement of globalization and help develop multiculturalism while avoiding parochialism and xenophobia? Education must remain relevant to today’s business world. Furthermore, international business education cannot be just one additional part of business classes but has to be immersed in students’ thinking process within all business classes. U.S. higher education in business, multicultural education, and world language education must develop and nurture the spirit of multiculturalism in order for American businesses to be able to compete and survive as stronger competitors in the age of globalization.

Hall (1990) researched the concept of high and low context language. The concept of high and low context language is a very good illustration of how complex those three fields of language, culture, and business really can be. Hall’s study revealed that there are two types of communication styles. High context language tends to have very few actual words in communication. What one does not say could be more important than what one actually does say. In other words, the listener has to be able to read between the lines in order to understand the intended meaning of the speaker. Japanese is categorized as a high context language. In
contrast to high context languages, low context language communication uses the words explicitly. The words are used to convey meaning directly to the listener. English is categorized as a low context language. Hall emphasized that high and low context in languages are thoroughly integrated within the cultures that use them. Therefore, if one is from a high context culture, one uses high context language, if one is from a low context culture, one uses low context language. This can be translated into the business field because a conversation between a manager from a high context culture and a subordinate from a low context culture may pose hurdles for full understanding. Such a situation could easily develop as conflict between employees, which might lead them to lowered productivity at the office or plant. Thus, the concept of high and low context languages relates directly to the fields of language, culture, and business.

World Language

Historical Perspectives of Motivation for Acquiring Japanese Competence

Who has been historically interested in learning Japanese in the U.S.? Where did that interest come from and what motivated them to acquire the Japanese language? Cramar (1990) categorizes language acquisition into three generations of language-acquisition types, and a special category to indicate historical perspectives in acquiring Japanese competence. The first generation is called the military, the second generation is called the romantics, and the third generation is called the businesspeople. In addition, there is a special category which is called the missionaries and their families. The Japanese language is a clear example of Simon’s (2001) theory that world language education in the U.S. has always been related to war. World War II created the first generation of Americans with Japanese language competence.
The second generation of U.S. students of Japanese is a unique one compared with other generations and languages in that it is not tied to war but to interest in exotic culture. Examples of such culture in Japan are religious and martial arts. The main religions in Japan-- Shinto and Buddhism-- must have been very different from what American individuals have seen and experienced; therefore, they were very fascinated by the different ways of thinking and behaving. The martial arts such as karate, judo, aikido, and others fascinated them as well. Members of this generation were born in the 1960s and early 1970s; therefore, the current Japanese-related occupations are mainly composed of those from this generation. Generation-wise, this is the era that the managers of companies experienced in their youth.

Businesspeople appear in this field as the third generation, which emerged when Japan started to play a major role in the world economy in the late 1970s. Businesses’ new need of Japanese language competence led to a demand for classes teaching Japanese in its proper cultural context. This situation resulted in the greatest increase of Japanese classes thus far, which, in turn, strengthened Japanese language education in both Japan and the U.S.A. Generation-wise, this era of students is becoming the manager class; therefore, with this new generation of managers, there will be an interesting wave of changes in the global economy.

The last additional category consists of missionaries and their family members. When U.S. missionaries travelled to Japan, they carried their children with them. These children began to learn some Japanese along with their parents. The missionary children, then, formed a new, highly competent generation of Japanese language learners. These children of missionaries must share similar linguistic experiences with the children of expatriate businesspeople. And if global businesses continue to require expatriate employees, then Americans with some Japanese competence will become an increasingly common presence.
Challenges in Japanese Language Education

Americans’ interest in world languages and cultures has evolved over the years after being slighted for a long time because of the belief in the U.S. being a melting pot. According to Chaney and Martin (1995), the “definition of melting pot is a sociocultural assimilation of people of differing backgrounds and nationalities; being or becoming the same” (p. 244). Many languages and customs were carried to America by immigrants, more than any other country had previously had to deal with; however, in the U.S, those immigrant languages and customs usually vanished very quickly because success in this country was achieved not by carrying forward with the culture and language of one's ancestors, but by immersing oneself in American culture and learning to speak English. The current movement to improve world language education is not the first time the U.S. has had to confront weak language resources and a lack of linguistic preparedness of its citizens as Simon (2001) has found.

There were 23,454 college students who were studying Japanese in the U.S. in 1986 (the Modern Language Association, 1986, p. 5). It is noteworthy that this number marks a growth of 45.4% over the number of students studying Japanese just 3 years before, in 1983, (the Modern Language Association, 1986, p. 5). This increase could have been due to the growth of power in Japanese companies abroad. This number marks the highest rate (a growth of 45.4 % increase from 1983) for any world language. According to figures gathered by the researcher, nine colleges and universities are currently offering Japanese language classes in the state of Tennessee, and, in fact, a total number of 658 students were studying Japanese in the spring of 2008 (A. Segi, personal communication, April, 2008). Japanese, often described as a “truly foreign language” (TFL) or a “less commonly taught language[s]” (LCTL) has been
mainstreamed in the U.S. These results must be tightly connected to the growing global economy.

One of the most challenging facts in Japanese language education is that, in spite of demand to have fluency for substantive business matters, as Fixman’s (1990) research revealed, it is still extremely difficult to achieve a high level of competence within the 2 to 4 semesters most colleges and universities require. The Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State, in its classification of world languages taught in U.S. academic institutions, studied and created four categories for the level of difficulty in learning world languages. Category One (including French and Spanish) contents of the easiest languages to learn and Category Four (including Japanese, Arabic, Chinese and Korean) contents of the hardest languages for native English speakers to learn (see Table 2). Therefore, Japanese language students in colleges or universities acquire very limited proficiency in the language compared with those students who study languages Category One to Category Three.

If a student understands the Japanese language within a cultural context--in other words, if he/she can follow the patterns of Japanese behavior--he or she will be able to communicate with Japanese with fewer misunderstandings. Students will not be able to function well by learning Japanese simply as a non-communicative, linguistic code because how a Japanese person speaks, listens, writes, or reads is deeply interwoven within the rules of social conduct, which include interaction and behavior. For example, the Japanese expression konnichiwa (hello) is not used among one’s family members and close friends and co-workers; in addition, it is an expression only used by outsiders. ogenki desu ka (how are you) is used only when one is interested in learning how that person is doing or when someone has not seen someone else for a while, or if one party has been sick. Rubin (1989) explains this usage of low-context language
Table 2

Length of training to achieve Advanced level in the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Scales and Level 2 in the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Scales (see Table 3) for a Learner with Average Language Learning Aptitude (Foreign Service Institute, 1973).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Length of training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category One (Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, and Swedish)</td>
<td>480 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Two (Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, and Urdu)</td>
<td>720 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Three (Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer (Cambodian), Lao, nepali, Pilipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Crotian, Sinhale, Thai, Tamil, Turkish, Vietnamese)</td>
<td>720 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Four (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean)</td>
<td>1320 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
by noting that indirectness or incompleteness in Japanese language comes not from linguistic aspects alone but from Japanese social norms requiring people to express themselves in this way. Moreover, sometimes the things one has not said are more important thing than what one has said in Japanese. *Kentoo shimasu* literally means (I will study it) but in practice conveys the meaning that you have no chance. With these subtle nuances in Japanese, the message is often sent through gestures, subtleties and inflection, leading the audience to think that communication in Japanese is almost telepathic. In fact, Hall (1959) called Japanese the “silent language” of international business negotiations and transactions in his book, the silent language. Therefore, Japanese is one of the most extreme amongst the high context languages. Consequently, if one studies Japanese simply as a linguistic code, one will be using the vocabulary according to the cultural context of his/her native language when he/she speaks Japanese thus leading to potential miscommunications and misunderstandings.

*Challenges in World Language Education*

Military conflicts have long influenced language instruction. For example, Simon (2001) reveals that world language education in the U.S. has always been related to the outbreak of war (e.g., the Cold War, Vietnam, Desert Storm, Bosnia and Kosovo). However, he points out that when these national crises go away, the emphasis on world language study also disappears from the education system. Simon views this phenomenon as a nation’s simply reacting to a crisis, but not so deeply as to consider educating the nation’s *future* experts to understand other languages and cultures. The U.S. response to the September 11th attack is definitely not an exception. The U.S. focused on finding Arabic-speaking people instead of encouraging world language education to train people in Arabic. As a result, the Arabic language was used for concrete, short-term purposes but not in the more culturally contextual ways that would make it
more useful in the long term. Therefore, if this approach is typical, most students will never have the chance to gain a high level of proficiency in understanding other cultures, or national identities. According to this phenomenon of just reacting to a national crisis, globalization could be viewed as a type of war, one involving not the military but the economy. The only difference with this type of war is that economic war (globalization) will not disappear as military wars eventually have. Therefore, this economic war (globalization) will be a good opportunity for the U.S. government and education system to reevaluate and reconsider the value of a permanent strong core curriculum of world language education in the U.S.

Some might argue against such an extension of world language curriculum by citing the fact that the *lingua franca* of business is English, after all. Businesspeople from all over the world understand the urgent necessity of English skills and therefore learn the language. Given the wide spread use of English, some would say such changes in world language education are not necessary. As a matter of fact, world language study was at the bottom of a list of school subjects ranked in order of importance by adults in a survey conducted by the National Geographic Society (Grosvenor, 1988). Lambert (1990) states that a generally low level of world language competencies among adults in the U.S. is the result of the generally low opinion of world language skills and the limited occupational demand for them. If the world society also sees it this way, then what is the point of teaching and learning a world language in the U.S.?

What proponents of this view miss, though, is that language learning is a crucial aspect of cultural learning, as Trueba (1993) so clearly illustrates. In fact, language learning has the potential to turn passive, theoretical knowledge of a culture into active, practical knowledge. In the business world, the latter is necessary.
Baron’s famous line in the *New York Times* states that “America doesn’t know what the world is saying” (Baron, 2001, p.A19). This one powerful line is a telling statement about world language education in the U.S. It is easy to understand why the U.S. ignored other cultures and languages in establishing this country. Stone’s (1958) study chronicles the history of language education in the U.S. He estimated that in 1910, 0.6% of all secondary students studied Spanish, 11.4% studied French, and 23.6% studied German. By 1922, only 0.6% of students were enrolled in German because the teaching of German was suppressed during World War I (p.34). French increased nearly threefold, and Spanish, which had barely figured in the language consciousness of the country previously, increased about sevenfold, filling the void left by the absence of German (Stone, 1958, p. 34).

According to Stone (1958), World War I gave an Euro-centric focus to world language education in the U.S. Presently, encouragement to learn other cultures’ heritages would have helped the U.S. to have more experts in the specific world languages spoken by Islamic, Asian, and African cultures. Clearly, world language education in the U.S. cannot continue its historical focus on only traditionally-offered languages such as Spanish, French, and German, when the world map includes so many other countries that speak different languages. Simon (2001) states that only 8% of U.S. College and university students are studying a world language and that figure has not changed in 25 years (p.A23). Welles (2002) argues that this figure of 8% should be used with caution because these data do not convey the fact that at least 60% of all students either have already studied enough language to waive required coursework or will study a second language later during their college years. Therefore, this 8% is often contrasted with the 16.5% suggested by Welles (p.254).
Whether the number of college or university students studying world language is 8% or 16.5%, both are low numbers. According to Hines (2003), 90% of that number chooses French, Spanish or German, with less than 10% achieving functional proficiency (p.17) in a world language. This specific record reveals that the Euro-centric dominance in world language education in the U.S. has not changed at all.

However, there are many research papers addressing this fact as well as the fact that there is a considerable shortage of courses in Eastern European, Asian, and sub-Saharan African languages. In today’s world, there might be reasons other than Euro-centricity for students to take French, Spanish or German. One such reason is that students’ choices are also influenced by the perceived degree of difficulty in mastering other languages. In other words, the popularity of certain language courses may stem, in part, from how difficult students perceive acquiring proficiency in that language to be. Existing studies about proficiency levels in world languages and concerning the numbers of languages offered in colleges and universities in the U.S. are reflected in the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) scales (see Table 3).

ILR and ACTFL scales are two major scales which measure the proficiency level of those who speak a world language. A 3 or higher level on the ILR scale and a Superior classification on the ACTFL proficiency guidelines are considered to reflect a high proficiency in a language. The ACTFL proficiency guidelines describe a superior oral proficiency as follows:

Speakers at the Superior level are able to communicate in the language with accuracy and fluency in order to participate fully and effectively in conversations on a variety of topics in formal and informal settings from both concrete and abstract perspectives.

(ACTFL, 1999, p.3)
**Table 3**

*Relationship Between Levels of the ACTFL and ILR Proficiency Scales.*

**Correspondence of proficiency scales**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILR Scale</th>
<th>ACTFL Scale</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>Able to speak like an educated native speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4+</td>
<td>Distinguished</td>
<td>Able to speak with a great deal of fluency, grammatical accuracy, precision of vocabulary and idiomacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3+</td>
<td>Superior</td>
<td>Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2+</td>
<td>Advanced Plus</td>
<td>Able to satisfy most work requirements and show some ability to communicate on concrete topics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1+</td>
<td>Intermediate - High</td>
<td>Able to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Intermediate - Mid</td>
<td>Able to satisfy some survival needs and some limited social demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intermediate - Low</td>
<td>Able to satisfy basic survival needs and minimum courtesy requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0+</td>
<td>Novice - High</td>
<td>Able to satisfy immediate needs with learned utterances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Novice - Mid</td>
<td>Unable to function in the spoken language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Novice - Low</td>
<td>No ability whatsoever in the language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source:
http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/languagelearning/MangngYrLnggLrnngPrgrm/CorrespondenceOfProficiencySca.htm (1999)
The Foreign Service Institute has developed benchmarks for instructional contact hours in order to achieve Level 2 on the ILR and an Advanced level in ACTFL. For example, commonly-taught languages such as French, Spanish, and German, take 480 hours of study for a native speaker of English with an average aptitude to achieve level 2 on the ILR and the Advanced level on the ACTFL guidelines. In contrast, less commonly-taught languages, such as Hindi and Russian, require 720 hours; Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean require 1320 hours (the Foreign Service Institute, 1973). Many students, therefore, may elect not to study less commonly-taught languages due to this fact.

**Key Elements for Successful World Language Education**

McGinnis (2003) recommends overall changes in teaching world languages in colleges and universities in the U.S. His suggestion is that American world language education needs to build “pipelines both down and out” (p. 5). This means that programs should be implemented vertically and horizontally. Vertical implementation refers to the need for world language to be taught from kindergarten to college. Horizontal implementation indicates that world language learning should occur both at home and overseas (McGinnis, 2003). The importance of both vertical and horizontal articulation in world language education in the U.S. is becoming increasingly clear. The September 11th terrorist attacks shocked many people, but at the same time, opened the eyes of the nation to the existence of other countries and people. The fast-growing economic situation of globalization also supports McGinnis’ idea of horizontal implementation. What needs to be done to overcome all the challenges currently faced in world language education in the U.S.?

This researcher has been teaching Japanese language in a university and in a Japanese corporation located in the U.S. for the last 12 years. In these settings, the importance of vertical
articulation has often been discussed and to some extent implemented, yielding positive results. However, horizontal articulation in world language education needs to be given more careful attention by educators, especially in higher education, since colleges and universities in the U.S. have a tendency to keep the traditional emphasis on literature rather than on language proficiency and cultural competence.

Schick and Nelson (2001) researched the traditional styles of teaching world languages in the U.S. They found that American colleges and universities treat literature as an academic subject rather than world language study (Schick & Nelson, 2001). Another point is the tendency in world language education in the U.S. to focus on grammar. However, the current needs in the global market place are for students not to focus on literature or grammar but on communication skills if this is to be accomplished, however, there must be a shift in the instructional communicative competence in a world language (Canale & Swain, 1980). One such paradigm shift was proposed by Lambert (2001) who suggests that perhaps only one or two of the four linguistic skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) may be needed by a person in a particular situation. That is, there may be a need for only one or the other skill to be used to the exclusion of the other. Europeans call these strategies half-language learning (Lambert, 2001). Lambert recognizes that only certain skills or proficiency levels will be necessary for some students and that offering them on these needed skills is acceptable. This might not be comprehensible to traditional world language educators, but in some cases, it might be what students are looking for or need in their world language education.

Met and Galloway (1996) report that even though culture has always had an essential role in world language education, the traditional emphasis is not on lifestyles, customs, values, attitudes, and beliefs, in relation to the effective communication which students need, but rather
on art, music, and literature. Therefore, these traditional ways of viewing world language education in colleges and universities, and the traditional strategies of teaching world languages need to be changed so that they better fit today’s students’ needs for advanced language proficiency and the deep understanding of other cultures. These are two necessary attributes to be successful in the global marketplace.

Communicative Competence

One of the challenges in world language education is helping students achieve high communicative competence. Traditional world language classes tend to focus on grammar through lectures. Two important components of world language instruction are input and output exercises. Input exercises involve the students’ comprehending the teacher’s lectures and directions, and output exercises lead the students to the demonstration of their ability to use the language in a particular content or situation. Students are given a significant amount of comprehensible input but not enough output exercises. A good balance of comprehensible input and output exercises must exist in world language education classes for students to gain communicative competence. Swain (1985) claims that students in world language classes are not often given the opportunity to use the target language in the classroom. She also emphasizes the importance of realizing that both fluency and accuracy in the second language come not from just understanding target language utterances but also from being able to produce them. Swain believes that comprehensible output must be a significant part of second language acquisition (SLA).

Many methodologists believe that language learning takes place through interaction, leading them to design curricula that emphasize a communicative approach to teaching (Crookes & Gass, 1993a, 1993b; Howatt, 1984; Kelly, 1969; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Yalden, 1983). A
communicative approach to teaching helps students achieve high communicative competence. However, Hatch (1978) argues that a clear correlation between interaction-based pedagogy and SLA is very difficult to establish because the methodology requires that information from research is either gotten second-hand from practitioners or pieced together after the fact by observers. Still, Hatch argues that interaction is important to SLA. Instead of focusing on how learning a second language’s structure leads to the learner’s communicative use of a second language, she examines how communicative use leads to an understanding of language structure. This new way of studying communicative competence in SLA has encouraged many researchers to study the importance of communicative competence in SLA.

As a result of Hatch’s (1978) study and advocacy, researchers started to discuss the importance of negotiation to strengthen communicative competence in a SLA. Negotiation involves repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways, in which students anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility. Therefore, negotiation helps students gain needed comprehensibility. Negotiation--the modification and restructuring of interaction--gives students an enormous opportunity to achieve communicative competence since this exercise helps students to be able to produce output. By clarifying and confirming the message to a listener, students naturally repeat, elaborate, or simplify the original message. This exercise leads to the comprehensible outcome that Swain claims to be a very important part of SLA.

Pica (1987) agrees with the idea of the importance of negotiation in SLA. She investigates the reasons why negotiation is not widely used in the language classroom, in spite of the many positive results in students’ competence that result from its use. Pienemann’s (1989) research identified negative aspects of language learning through negotiation by pointing out that
negotiation may not help its internalization. According to the researcher, if students are not ready for a new word, form, or rule, they cannot acquire it.

However, Pica’s (1994) study reveals additional positive facts in language learning through negotiation. Negotiation not only leads students to be able to process message meaning but also provides an opportunity to focus on message form. Additionally, negotiation regularly involves feedback and, in providing students with opportunities to modify their output, which allows them to further elaborate on that output. Therefore, she encourages teachers, students, and researchers in the field of SLA to acknowledge and emphasize language learning through negotiation, which helps students achieve a high level of communicative competence as well as other skills in language.

*Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language*

Kim’s (1988, 2001) research documents the importance of communication in SLA. Students learn their social environment effectively and appropriately through communication. To further understand the process of achieving communicative competence, researchers have been studying students’ willingness to communicate in a second language since they need to use the language in order to gain high communicative competence. In other words, willingness to communicate (WTC) is essential to improving one’s communicative skills. WTC involves many variables, including anxiety, motivation, and proficiency (see Figure 1).

Research in WTC was conducted by MacIntyre and Charos (1996) through their study of SLA and second language communication. MacIntyre and Charos studied the research of first language communication by McCroskey (1992) and McCroskey & Richmond (1987) and
applied it to second language communication. These studies led MacIntyre (1994) to demonstrate the willingness to communicate (WTC) model. This model postulates that WTC results from a situation in which the perceived communicative competence of the speaker outweighs his or her level of communication anxiety, which leads, in turn to a higher frequency of communication. Another variable is discussed in Gardner’s (1985) study of the socioeducational model of SLA. This model postulates that WTC comes from motivation, and that motivation comes from two basic sources: attitudes of integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation. WTC in the socioeducational model leads to frequency of communication as MacIntyre’s WTC model does. Another theoretical model of WTC in a second language is
described by MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998). This pyramid model has four layers of influence leading up to the top two layers—WTC and communication itself. This six-layered pyramid starts with social and individual context (intergroup climate, personality), affective-cognitive context (intergroup attitudes, social situation, communicative competence), motivational propensities (interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, self-confidence), and situated antecedents (desire to communicate with a specific person, state of communicative self-confidence). The bottom three layers are considered to have a stable influence on WTC. In contrast, the fourth layer consists of situation-specific influences on WTC.

Yashima’s (2002) second language communication model reveals the connections between attitude (international posture) and second language learning motivation and second language proficiency. Yashima defines “international posture” in the following way: It includes “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures, among others” (p. 57). International posture is directly related to the students’ WTC in second language. Second language learning motivation strongly relates to confidence in second language communication, which directly relates to WTC in the second language. All the WTC models mentioned above help world language educators to understand how the different aspects of second language are interwoven with each other and also how important it is to have knowledge of WTC to help students gain a high level of communicative competence. Students tend to use the same context, style, and tone of the first language when they speak a second language. As a result of this, miscommunication and misunderstanding appear, and students lose confidence and are less willing to communicate. Therefore, it is vital for world language educators to know the results of these WTC studies.
Yashima, Zenuk-Nishida, and Shimizu (2004) describe communication as “a process in which people influence each other” and intercultural communication as “the sharing and construction of meaning through interaction with dissimilar others” (2004, p.145). One can easily see and agree that learning a second language enhances the mutual understanding and trust between those with different backgrounds in terms of culture and language. This is why world language educators play such an important role.

Business

Perspectives of Japanese Language Competence in Business

Cramer (1990) found out that Americans with Japanese language competence have more career opportunities in Japanese companies (whether in Japan or the U.S.) or in American companies in Japan than they have in American companies in the U.S. Cramer also states that there are few Americans with Japanese language competency. In addition, businesses usually do not provide language classes at the companies, so American companies rely heavily on Japanese nationals to meet their language needs. Fixman (1990) explains that one of the reasons why those Americans with Japanese competency are not hired or valued in the job market is because Americans with little or no exposure to world languages feel threatened by those who have a higher proficiency in the language.

The mainstream idea of the U.S. market is that cross-cultural understanding is important for doing business in the global economy but world language skills are not. The belief is that the culture has to be learned but language can be purchased and outsourced when it is needed. Additionally, a relatively new phenomenon is that international experience is highly valued by U.S. managers but world language skills are not (Fixman, 1990). However, O’Boyle (1989) states that foreign assignments are viewed as a career negative. Tung (1990) agrees that
American companies do not consider international assignments as a reason for promotion being an advantage; however, in contrast, Japanese companies do consider it as valuable experience for moving up the career ladder.

Having just minimal survival skills in a world language when attempting to negotiate substantive business matters is not acceptable; fluency is necessary (Fixman, 1990). This very fact might discourage businesspeople to learn a world language, especially Japanese or another group four language for Americans to learn.

**Challenges for American Expatriates**

In the business world, the cost of not having cross-cultural understanding can be steep. For example, the cost of maintaining an American expatriate with a base salary of $100,000 and with a family of two in Tokyo in the mid-1990s was $220,370 (Lublin & Smith, 1994, August 23, B4). This represents a significant loss since between 20% and 40% of American expatriates return prematurely from foreign assignments, as mentioned in chapter one (Tung 1982, p.68). Whereas 80% of executives interviewed described their work abroad assignment as the single most influential developmental experience in their lives (Black, Morrison & Gregersen, 1999, p.199), 90% of those expatriate managers sent to Japan were actually significantly less successful in Japan than they were in their previous assignments in their home countries. Additionally, 80% of the expatriate managers in Japan were considered failures by their headquarters (Sewart, 1975, p. 40). Moreover, 26% of the respondents expected to leave their parent firm within the coming year (adler, 1986, p. 198).

Companies tend to select expatriates by two main selection criteria: domestic track record and willingness to accept an overseas assignment. As a result, American expatriate managers have a tendency to keep the same set of managerial behaviors they used in the U.S. and not
adjust or adapt to the local norms and practices. This situation reflects the companies’ ignoring other ideal criteria for sending expatriate managers overseas, such as cognitive flexibility, cultural flexibility, and minimized ethnocentricity (Black & Porter, 1991). According to a 1992 survey of 50 Fortune 500 companies by International Orientation Resources (as cited in Solomon, 1994, para. 4), businesses selected employees for overseas assignments not for their cross-cultural fluency but for their technical expertise most of the time.

Solomon (1994) argues that success abroad depends on more than just job skills. According to Goodwin and Nacht (1998) a foreign exchange can be divided into two types. They identify the two types as those with some exposure to international culture and those with deeper immersion in international culture. Exposure provides a taste of limited international experience that could lead to a deeper and more intense career experience in the future. For example, exposure includes tourist travel or study abroad in U.S.-based programs that provide a relatively sheltered experience. On the other hand, immersion in foreign-based higher education programs, international internships, and other overseas educational programs involves more regular, direct involvement with foreign cultures and environments (Goodwin & Nacht, 1988). Nonetheless, employees with both dimensions are essential for global companies. This researcher believes that employees with immersive international experience develop global leadership competencies crucial to their companies’ development. Recruiting and developing multicultural businesspeople is an essential effort for globalization in the 21st century. These vital employees in multinational firms are called people for all seasons by Tung (1998, p 143). Kanter (1995) stresses that those multiculturalists, or people for all seasons in Tung’s terms, have to be rich in three intangible assets: concepts, competence, and connections- the knowledge,
abilities, and relationships to be effective in multiple cultures. Kanter (1995) believes those three concepts can be strengthened by sending employees to international assignments.

Shim and Paprock’s (2002) study might answer why Kanter believes strongly in the benefit of sending employees on overseas assignments to help them grow as multiculturalists. For the U.S. expatriate managers to learn about other cultures is very complex but necessary. This learning process involves adding knowledge to their meaning schemes, learning new meaning schemes, or correcting their interpretations. Expatriate businesspeople gain the knowledge of the culture of their host country through such reflective learning (Shim & Paprock, 2002).

One of the major reasons for companies’ failure to globalize effectively is their not fully achieving cultural knowledge through reflective learning. Too many American expatriates expect to transplant their domestic methods overseas, without substantial regard for the culture of their host country. In order to succeed in becoming a global leader, one needs to deepen understanding and respect of cultural difference by actively pursuing educational experiences abroad. The researcher believes that this aspect is a very critical first step for the success of globalization and to help us avoid the pitfalls of globalization.

Understanding Different Values

Studies of values can be very helpful in understanding the difficulties of expatriate businesspeople. Although observing cultural differences in value is important, it is also helpful to recognize common ethical considerations. The relationship between values and business success is examined by England and his colleagues (England & Lee, 1974; Whitely & England, 1977). The issue of how values differ from culture to culture is a key aspect of their study. They examine managers from several different countries. Their findings are that all successful
managers—no matter the nationality—possess common values concerning staff productivity, satisfactory, and development (England & Lee, 1974).

Bass and Berger (1979) found that there were also substantial differences between managers in the U.S., Britain, the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, Austria, Scandinavia, France, Italy, Iberia, Latin America, India, and Japan. Their study concluded that managerial attitudes and values differ by culture and relate differently to managerial effectiveness. According to the researchers, nationality has a significant influence on the constellation of values held by managers. Hofstede (1980) found that certain countries may be clustered together on four categories of value, which he labels power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity. Such common ethical considerations, once understood, can enhance understanding. The study of the theory of basic human values by Schwartz (1992), a psychologist from the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, is a very useful tool to understand other cultures. Schwartz’s study of values (Figure 2) in different nations discovered two core components: 10 motivationally distinct types of values and four core values that specify how these 10 types of values relate dynamically to one another. The 10 values include power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security. The four core values include self-enhancement, self-transcendence, openness to change, and conservation.

Two important dimensions were discussed in Schwartz’s (1992) study. The first one is self-enhancement (power and achievement) versus self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence). Self-enhancement emphasizes dominance over others and pursuit of one’s relative success. In contrast, self-transcendence emphasizes acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare.
Figure 2.

Theoretical model of relations among motivational types of values, higher-order values, and bipolar value dimensions (Schwartz, 1992).
The next pair of dimensions according to Schwartz (1992) is openness to change (stimulation and self-direction) versus conservation (tradition, conformity, and security). Openness to change emphasizes looking favorably on change and on independent thought and action. In contrast, conservation emphasizes the preservation of traditional practices, submissive self-restriction, and the protection of stability. Hedonism includes dimensions of both self-enhancement and openness to change. These findings were widely used to test many different hypotheses in different fields of studies. The researcher will explore the findings of different articles using Schwartz’s theory of values.

Schwartz’s (1999) research is a useful tool in understanding different nations’ ideas on work. He believes that although individuals have their own attitudes toward work, it is important to examine the attitudes of the greater social or cultural group, because an individual’s attitude reflects the particular culture’s attitudes toward that work. The study identified seven types of values: egalitarianism, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, mastery, hierarchy, conservatism, and harmony. These types are structured along three polar dimensions: conservatism versus intellectual and affective autonomy, hierarchy versus egalitarianism, and mastery versus harmony. Forty-nine nations participated in this study to compare cultural values in different nations. The study used three issues that confront all societies: defining the nature of the relation between the individual and the group, guaranteeing responsible behavior that will preserve the social fabric, and the relation of humankind to the natural and social world.

The results of Schwartz’s research clearly reflect how groups from the same country shares histories, religion, and levels of cultural contact. In his study, even though there were two different pools of survey participants (one teacher group and one student group, each from different culture) they each showed similar response patterns. The career choice of these
participants exerted far less influence on their value systems than did their culture of origin. This similarity indicates that the approach adopted in this study accurately captures important aspects of cultural identity among different nations and broader regions.

Schwartz (1999) applies his own theory and the empirical data on cultural values to his study. He evaluates how different cultures place different emphasis on work centrality, defined as the importance and significance of work in a person’s total life; societal norms about working; and national differences in the importance of work values or goals. This study will help employees, especially ones involved in global business, to understand the different behaviors and attitudes toward decision-making, risk-taking, and many other behaviors of workers from other nations and cultures.

Basic individual values reflected on one’s idea of work were examined in Schwartz’s research. The relationship between work experiences, work values, and the meaning of work was investigated by Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) in their work. The theory of basic human values was used to compare two groups of teachers and student teachers. The results show that work is very central to student teachers but less central for teachers. The results showed that the prospective of students teachers toward work was less realistic than the perspective help by (paid, full-time) teachers. Knowing this can contribute to understanding why different employee’ experiences will definitely result in their developing a different meaning from their work. Applying this perspective to expatriate managers, it could be concluded that it is very important to send businesspeople overseas to nurture multiculturalists as Tung (1998) and Kanter (1995) point out in their articles.

Black and Porter’s (1991) study reveals that American expatriate managers overseas exhibit very similar managerial behaviors to managers in the U.S. However, their management
style predominant in the U.S. is not necessarily appropriate abroad since it may not relate to required job performance in those different cultural settings. Although this study was limited to Hong Kong, it is still very useful. Alpander (1973) found, though, that approximately 70% of the expatriate managers with overseas assignments rely more on their own perceptions, situation assessment, and personal judgment when making important decisions than they rely on using quantitative decision making techniques which they often use in the U.S. (Alpander, 1973, p.133). One of the explanations of this phenomenon is that the unreliability of statistics was a problem occurring more frequently overseas than in the U.S.

Philosophy of management, attitudes toward immediate subordinates, and approaches toward motivation of subordinates were examined in American expatriate managers overseas by Alpander (1973). Alpander concludes that American expatriate managers’ style of management shifts from one of employee orientation used in the U.S. to one of task orientation when they are in overseas assignments (Alpander 1973). Miller’s (1977) study reveals that there are differing perceived managerial qualification profiles in different regions; expatriates in Latin America tended to rate their peers and superiors dramatically lower than did the managers in Western Europe.

The theory of basic human values was also used to help analyze the readiness for out-group social contact in two different research pieces by Sagiv and Schwartz (1995; 1998). In their first study, they define the different meanings of social contact for members of the dominant and subordinate groups. Accepting minority group members as full members of the dominant society means having readiness for social contact for members of the dominant group. In contrast, integrating or assimilating into the larger society means readiness for social contact for members of subordinate groups (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1998). Another of their research studies
revealed similar points. Additionally, these findings help elucidate why dominant groups are more influenced by their personal experiences and characteristics such as their values; in contrast, subordinate groups are more strongly influenced by norms, attitudes, and stereotypes when it comes to readiness for out-group contact (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995). These findings support the conclusion that dominant groups are more strongly associated with readiness for out-group contact.

**Relationship between Turnover Rates and Cross-cultural Training**

Cross-cultural training prior to departure is offered to only 32% of U.S. expatriate managers on overseas assignments (Tung, 1982, p.55-56). This means that 68% of American expatriate managers are sent on overseas assignments without any preparation or training (Tung, 1982, p.66). A similar study by Black and Mendenhall (1990) found similar data. In spite of the very high costs of sending expatriates overseas, the turnover rates are extremely high. Tung’s (1987) study shows that turnover rates average around 30% for expatriate managers (Tung, 1987, p.117). Turnover rates of under 5% are rare, while those over 15% are generally considered serious problems, which show the serious problem of a turnover rate of 30% for U.S. expatriate managers (Bohl, 1986, p.81).

Several studies show how important it is for global companies to have pre-and post-departure education about the target country to help highly-valued expatriates accomplish their overseas assignment, avoiding unnecessary turnover. Black’s (1988) study found that pre-departure cultural knowledge had positive results for the American expatriate manager’s general adjustment in Japan but not for adjusting to their working in Japan. Black’s explanation of the ineffectiveness of pre training to positively impact work adjustment involves how expatriate managers are more familiar with their job routines and, therefore, believe that their work is not
much different in Japan. This finding reveals that adjusting to general living in Japan is different from working in Japan.

One of the challenges of international assignments in U.S. multinational firms is reducing turnover. Some researchers revealed reverse culture shock is worse than the culture shock experienced when going overseas. In addition to these challenges, repatriated expatriates have responsibilities both for their home and while overseas. Gregersen’s (1992) study suggests that international firms can have an influence on expatriate commitment during repatriation through the development of effective international personnel policies and practices.

Birdseyes and Hill (1995) investigated the causes of expatriate discontent and turnover tendencies. They found five key points from their study to help solve the problem of turnover. The first three include stressing that inclination to turnover decreases with time; exploration of understanding where overseas assignments fit into their overall career patterns; knowing the expatriates’ feeling towards their post as one of perceived prestige; and reassuring them with the benefits packages associated with foreign postings. The last two points include pre-departure education, including intercultural differences in leadership-subordinate styles and in managerial methods, as well as education for spouses and families as to general cultural preparation (Birdseyes & Hill, 1995).

Lastly, in spite of a strong consensus concerning the need for and value of international education and skills found in much research, some studies disagree. About 70% of executives believe that their expertise is learned on the job (Kobrin, 1984, p.38), and this percentage goes even higher to 78% in a similar study by Ball and McCulloc (1993, p.387). If this is true, no pre-departure experience would be effective compared with this on-the-job experience. Additionally, others believe technical skills, cognitive and social skills and personal traits, are more important
to business success than international skills (Bikson & Law, 1994; Reynolds & Rice, 1988).

However, the researcher strongly believes that multiculturalists, or *people for all seasons* (Tung, 1998), need to be highly valued in global companies. Multiculturalists can be defined as people who are able to observe and learn from differences in any situations. U.S. multinational firms have to start realizing the value of the international experience of their expatriate employees who adjusted well both overseas and during repatriation. A firm’s support in reaching this realization is the critical criterion for their successful return (Gregersen, 1992).

*Appreciating Other Cultures*

Individuals behave in certain ways which are related to their personality, religion, age, class, gender, and ethnicity. These different behavioral tendencies sometimes complicate issues and make it difficult to deal with others in business situations. Trompenaars (1993) explains the differences between cultures and seeks the best solutions for people from different cultures to work more efficiently together. His explanations enable one to see the historical, cultural, religious, and sometimes regional backgrounds of how specific cultures were formed and are evidenced in today’s business world. One of his strongest points is not to simply show the difference between the cultures but to point out the essential points of how we can implement those different countries’ strong points to create one new culture which works efficiently for many. He shows how sometimes opposite values can actually be interwoven to forge a new idea by using only the strong points of both cultures. If this potential were to taken seriously, we might be able to see globalization not as *Americanization* or *Japanization* but as a truly effective one way to do business in either culture.
Developing International Business Classes

Folks (2003) strongly suggests that curricula for K-12 and undergraduate international business classes need to be much stronger in the field of internationalization. For the latter, it is necessary to develop language and regional capabilities at the undergraduate level to avoid an overwhelming load of materials to cover in graduate business education. Kedia and Daniel’s (2003) study reveals the importance of developing international business education in the U.S., especially programs with a focus on Asia. Additionally, they suggest that universities need to understand the needs of corporations, industries, and government in order to be competitive in global business. Their studies reveal the need for international business education, especially at the management level (Kedia & Daniel, 2003). Kedia and Daniel’s study also stresses the importance of having and developing internationally competent personnel. Their study shows that almost 30% of companies believe that their international inexperience has resulted in their inability to exploit international opportunities in the past 5 years (Kedia & Daniel, 2003, p.13). In other words, 30% of the companies failed to anticipate the needs of international customers or missed market or business opportunities abroad, because of bias in favor of a U.S. point of view.

In spite of the data concerning the failure of American expatriates, Tung (1981; 1998) discovered a growing success with internationalization in American expatriates during the years between her first research study in 1981 and her second study in 1998. International business classes need to focus on the positive outcomes of the courses and nurture future successful expatriates.
Cultural Education

Challenges in American Multicultural Education

One of the weak points of American international education is that by endorsing stereotypes and strongly stressing the exotic images of other nations, this curriculum influences students to misinterpret cultural differences. This curriculum does not teach students a deeper and more complex understanding of cultural opinions and behaviors. Merryfield (2002) suggests three important components of the differences that educators make in the lives of students: development of open-mindedness, anticipation of complexity, and resistance to stereotyping. Moreover, it is important for students to learn to view people around the world from both insider and outsider perspectives and understand global inequities and resistance to oppression. In other words, students understand their own and other cultures in much deeper levels when they have a chance to learn and see a different culture from various points of views (Case, 1993; Gioseffi, 1993; Wilson, 1993).

Merryfield (2002) states that students’ ways of perceiving their own cultures, their nations, the lives of people around the world, and the issues and conflicts facing the planet, are all influenced by instructional decisions teachers make daily. In other words, teachers and the education system can influence the entire nation’s way of dealing with all aspects of life. Therefore, greater efforts are necessary to develop better programs of multicultural/international education in the American education system. The effort to study other languages and cultures and the courage to attempt something unfamiliar are necessary for all the teachers and students. This type of education greatly contributes to all nations’ appreciation and understanding of foreign cultures and work environments.
Kissock (2002) concludes that teachers cannot address only local needs but, as a part of a global profession, should also be able to ensure that all children have access to broader educational opportunities and should better prepare students for their lives in the global community. Educators who bring an international perspective to their instruction benefit not only the foreign-born or those with limited English proficiency but all their students (Haakenson, 1994). The researcher cannot stress Haakenson’s point strongly enough. The researcher believes people learn more deeply and profoundly about themselves when they learn about others; therefore, opportunities for students to learn about others from outside the comfort of their own boundaries should be seen as something to treasure in their educational experience. Even though globalization has been seen in a negative light, these learning opportunities might help international businesses remedy their colonizing tendencies.

Learning from the History of American Education

It is often argued that multiculturalism is an urgently-needed component of the American education system due to its potential to increase students’ ability to adjust and compete, and at the same time, help build character and nurture better world citizens in the 21st century. The researcher uses the term multiculturalism to mean the equal existence of different cultures, nations, religions, beliefs, and others. Greene (1997) engages the idea of pluralism and multiculturalism by referencing literature from all kinds of people. She emphasizes the importance of having basic principles such as a person’s valuing and respecting the differences of others. The ability to engage everyone and not ignore or under-appreciate various perspectives and often unheard voices is essential for the success of multicultural education in the U.S. Greene’s main point is encapsulated within one powerful line as it was mentioned in Chapter 1: “Absence, after all, suggests an emptiness, a void to be filled, a wound to be healed, a
flaw to be repaired” (p.514). The researcher believes this one line should symbolize the target for multicultural education in the U.S. In other words, voices from all classes, ages, sexes, religions, and ethnicities should be heard equally in any type of decision making. Another part of her argument about multiculturalism is the fear of losing any kind of national identity in terms of value and culture. That is because it is very difficult to have a national identity without possessing one’s own set of values and culture. Another point of hers is that she emphasizes the importance of having basic personal principles and valuing differences in others.

The history of American education shows that only certain opinions were voiced and listened to. There are many movements emphasizing how different voices must be heard equally in different places, especially in the education field. In American society, it is vital to avoid having only one central voice with all others remaining silent. Greene’s (1997) passion for pluralism fits in perfectly with multiculturalism in U.S. education. In other words, educators cannot restrict the reality of globalization with mainstream American traditions. Greene (1997) reminds the researcher the reality of how plurality and multiplicity are constantly confronting us in the U.S. For example, certain voices and perspectives—of minorities, women, and lower classes—have often been ignored. Teachers, therefore, have a serious reason to emphasize equally different ideas from different parts of the world.

*Internationalizing Teacher Education*

It is very clear that the American education system is in need of teachers with a strong understanding and background in internationalization and globalization. The researcher uses the term of *internationalizing teacher education* to mean training teachers to be very conscious about the cultural context of their statements and behaviors and also be able to appreciate the religions, ethnic, gender, and other differences in their own classrooms. This pedagogical
attitude helps to foster multiculturalism in the classroom. By internationalizing future teachers, it will be possible to have well balanced multicultural classes and at the same time ensure that teachers and students will be realistic about the world economy and be better able to compete in the global market after they finish their education. Internationalizing teachers becomes even more clearly important once it is understood just how multi-cultural U.S. students already are. At the turn of this century, there were approximately 28.4 million foreign-born residing in the U.S. which is 10.4 percent of the total population in the U.S. in 2000 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2001, p.20). Moreover, approximately 3.8 million students which is 11 percent of all students in U.S. public schools receive ELL (English language learners) services (Tab, 2006, p.1). The researcher believes internationalizing teacher education will be a most fruitful and necessary step for the U.S. education system.

Several researchers have studied methods of internationalizing U.S. education and are in consensus that it is necessary to extend the knowledge and the boundaries of discussion about the history of American education by entertaining alternative models and probing their value assumptions. Lambert (1989) studies the issue of internationalizing teacher education in nearly 50 colleges and universities in the U.S. His findings reveal that internationally-focused courses taken by students who have education majors, offered little direct cultural exposure. His study shows that the average education major took only 1.5 internationally-focused courses compared with an average of 2.4 courses for all majors. Has this issue of internationalizing education long been ignored or treated superficially? The American Association of Colleges of Teachers of Education has been an advocate of this critical issue of internationalizing education since the early 1970s, but relatively little success has been achieved. Possibly, the issue has not been addressed as deeply as necessary (Schneider, 2003). One problem is that the U.S. does not
prioritize internationalization in undergraduate education curricula; therefore, most teachers have only been required to take multicultural coursework before becoming teachers since the 1990s. Researchers conclude that there is a strong need for including cultural study in undergraduate teacher education programs in order to meet the academic and social training necessary for global competence. Schneider (2003) suggests making students familiar with opportunities to study abroad—as international students, visitors, or lectures—is a key step towards improving undergraduate education programs. Kissock (2002) argues that professional organizations should change policy concerning program approval, accreditation, state licensure, and national certification to reflect internationalization as a priority. National and international subject matter standards must be implemented. Many other researchers agree with this idea and also suggest that some recognition of teachers with international competence is necessary. Finally, the researcher strongly believes that teachers’ self interests and internal motivation for learning something new and exciting can stimulate students’ curiosity and love of learning.

Chapter Summary

A comprehensive overview of related literature was presented in this chapter. The three components of language, culture, and business were examined and it was found that these components are closely inter-related. This literature review revealed the fact that there are no other studies examining how Japanese companies in the U.S. value Japanese language competence or how they value other competencies—such as business and culture—which help the companies develop globally. The methodology and procedures used in conducting the present study will be identified in the next chapter. In addition, explanations of the detailed research steps and how they were conducted will be included.
CHAPTER III
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

It is the opinion of this researcher that American businesspeople with Japanese competence working in American companies are studied as widely as the research for Japanese businesspeople with English competence working in the U.S. Much of this research has been focused on Americans in American companies; however, there is a dearth of current research addressing Americans with Japanese competence in Japanese companies located in the U.S.--thus, the impetus for the current research study which will examine the opinions of experts in Japanese companies in Tennessee. These insights might be useful in addressing certain elements of current classes in world language, business, and cultural study in U.S. higher education, and most certainly be of value to those seeking employment in international companies in the U.S.

The contrast between homogeneous and heterogeneous societies was presented in Chapter 2 along with the concept of cultural novelty (Black & Mendenhall, 1999). Indeed, it is cultural novelty that American expatriates experience when abroad that presents a major challenge to them as they try to adjust to a new language and culture. What factors potentially allow an American to flourish in a new culture such as Japan? What particular skills and competencies are desired by potential employers at international companies? This is the focus of this study.

Research Questions

The research questions asked in this study are:

1. What are the current expectations of managers in terms of the level of Japanese competency of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in the
U.S.?

2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other qualities and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?

3. What are the rationale underlying the expectations or managers regarding employee language and cultural expectations?

In order to answer the research questions, the flowing three-phase research design was adopted.

Research Design

In order to answer the questions raised in the study, the following multifaceted research design was developed and implemented. It consisted of the following three phrases.

Phase One: The names of the companies of the top three, dollar-investment, Japanese multinational companies located in Tennessee were identified by the Tennessee Research Department in State Economic and Community Developments. The individuals in each of these companies responsible for hiring new employees were subsequently indentified.

Phase Two: Three major areas of questions (language, culture, and business) were developed in this stage of the research and given to the experts selected in Phase One.

Phase Three: In order to evaluate and validate the list of three field, Phase Two, a modified Delphi Method- using a two-stage survey methodology was employed. The purpose of this phase is to further gather descriptive information from managers, experts in the field of hiring new, non-Japanese, salaried employees, followed by a second open-ended survey designed to further understand the rationale.
Phase One: Identifying Managers for Analysis

The name of the companies of the top three, dollar-investment Japanese multinational companies located in Tennessee (Appendix B) were identified by the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning in this phase of the study. The following businesses were identified in order to identify the individuals within these companies responsible for hiring new employees.

The population of this survey was defined as those presidents, executive vice presidents, directors, senior managers, and managers in the top three Japanese multinational companies in Tennessee (Appendix B). The list of these names and email addresses were obtained from company web sites or by calling Human Resources Departments in those companies. Assistance in this process was provided by the Executive Director of the Japan-America Society of Tennessee, Inc.

These persons who are in charge of hiring the new, non-Japanese, salaried employees for the companies were contacted by the researcher and asked to identify potential managers and administrator who could respond to the survey.

Phase Two: Making a List of Three Fields

The organization of questions in the three fields of language, culture, and business occurred in this phase. Categories in each field allowed the survey to address and strengthen certain issues in each field. The questions about language address the importance of Japanese competence and skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese. Those questions dealing with cultural study address understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking. The questions about business address business skills in a cross-cultural environment.
(see Appendix C). A list of core question was used in Phase Three of this research as a foundation for developing an instrument to be utilized.

**Phase Three: Conducting a Modified Delphi Study**

The researcher used a modified Delphi Study, a technique successfully used by many scholars for similar purposes, in order to evaluate and validate the list of core questions described in Phase Two of this study. Like a Delphi Study, it did use a panel of experts and had multiple rounds (two for this study) for its data collection procedures. It did not, however, share results of Round One with the panel of experts prior to Round Two. Therefore, the present study, although borrowing certain elements from the Delphi Research Methodology, was in actuality a Modified Delphi or a Multiple-Round Study. Description of the Delphi method and the specifics of its implementation utilized in this phase of the study are provided in the following section.

**The Delphi Method**

The Delphi method has been used to facilitate research in many different fields. This method of study was originally created in the height of the Cold War to collect and distill knowledge from a group of experts by means of a series of questionnaires interspersed with controlled opinion feedback (Ziglio, 1996). More historically, *Project Delphi* was the code name for the Air Force-sponsored Rand Corporation study, the technique that was invented in the early 1950s. This project was designed to gather expert forecasting input from a wide range of specialists regarding likely Soviet missile targeting, multiple weapons required to destroy likely industrial targets, and likely follow-up response scenarios (Dalkey & Helmer, 1968). Dalkey and Helmer (1968) developed the theoretical assumptions and methodological procedures of the Delphi methods of inquiry in the 1950s and 1960s at the RAND Corporation. The Delphi
method has grown in various fields of study because this method enables the researchers to obtain relevant intuitive insights of experts and use informed judgment in a systematic manner.

**Beneficial Applications of Delphi Study**

A comprehensive list of situations where it would be best to employ the Delphi technique is provided by Linstone and Turoff (1975).

The problem does not lend itself to precise analytical techniques but can benefit from subjective judgments on a collective basis. The individuals necessary to contribute to the examination of a broad or complex problem may have no history of adequate communication and may represent diverse backgrounds with respect to experience or expertise. More individuals are needed than can effectively interact in a face-to-face exchange. Time and cost make frequent meetings unfeasible. The efficiency of face-to-face meetings can be increased by a supplemental group communication process.

Disagreements among individuals are so severe or politically unpalatable that the communication process must be refereed and/or anonymity assured. The heterogeneity of the participants must be preserved to assure the validity of the results i.e., avoidance of domination by quantity or by strength of personality, known as the *bandwagon effect* (Linstone and Turoff (1975, p. 4).

Also, according to Linstone and Turoff (1975), while the Delphi study is often utilized for forecasting purposes, there are a variety of other applications. For example, it is useful for gathering current and historical data not accurately known or available and for examining the significance of historical events. The Delphi study can be used to evaluate possible budget allocations, to explore urban and regional planning options, to put together the structure of a model, or to delineate the pros and cons associated with potential policy options. Additionally,
this method works for developing causal relationships in complex economic or social phenomena, for distinguishing and clarifying real and perceived human motivations, and for exposing priorities of personal values, and social goals.

Deficiencies of the Delphi Study

Linstone and Turoff (1975) characterized the Delphi technique as a method for structuring a group communication process so that the process is effective in allowing a group of individuals as a whole to deal with a complex problem. Their studies are successful examples of this process; however, Linstone and Turoff note some negative aspects in this technique.

One negative possibility is imposing the monitors’ views and preconceptions of the problem upon the respondent group by over-specifying the structure of the Delphi method and not allowing for the contribution of other perspectives related to the problem. Another potential problem is assuming that the Delphi method can be a surrogate for all other human communications in a given situation. There might be poor techniques of summarizing and presenting the group response and ensuring common interpretations of the evaluation scales utilized in the exercise. Ignoring and not exploring disagreements, so that discouraged dissenters drop out and an artificial consensus is generated, is also a danger. Researchers should also avoid underestimating the demanding nature of the Delphi method and should view the respondents as consultants properly compensated for their time if the study is not an integral part of their job function.

In summary, the Delphi technique’s specific merits were summarized by Ziglio (1996) are as follows:

It focuses attention directly on the issue under investigation. It provides a framework within which individuals with diverse backgrounds or in remote locations can work
together on the same problem. It minimizes the tendency to “follow-the-leader” and other psychological and professional barriers to communication. It provides an equal opportunity for all experts involved in the process; and it produces precise documented records of the distillation process through which informed judgment has been achieved (Ziglio, 1996, p. 22).

The Delphi method was selected for this study since it was deemed the best vehicle to answer the research questions given the small number of potential subjects.

The Instrument

The researcher developed the instrument (Appendix C) used for Round One in this study. This instrument was created based on a basic list of content competency statements identified in the second phase of the study and described earlier in this chapter. The following five groups of competencies in language, culture, and business were developed by reviewing examples from other Delphi studies.

- Group One: Importance of Japanese competence
- Group Two: Skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese
- Group Three: Understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking
- Group Four: Business skills in a cross-cultural environment
- Group Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company

Directions were given for the participants to follow for each section of the instrument. The instrument consisted of 47 total items; 14 were basic demographic items, answerable by multiple choice; 32 items were answerable using a 4-point Likert scale (1=Not Important; 4=Very Important); 1 open-ended questions ended the survey.
The Round Two survey (Appendix E) was created to confirm the findings of the First Round by use of a set of very similar questions. All respondents were given a website to access the instrument, complete their answers, and then submit these responses electronically. Complete anonymity of the participants was maintained throughout this process.

Procedures

The researcher sought permission from the Office of Research at The University of Tennessee to conduct this survey after the instrument for the Delphi study was approved by the researcher’s doctoral committee members. The permission was granted from the Office of Research at The University of Tennessee on July 18, 2008. The researcher then contacted the Office for the Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning. Data concerning Japanese subsidiaries in Tennessee was obtained from this office, including the list of the top 20 dollar-investing companies. In order to find suitable contacts in each company, the researcher sought help in the offices of Career Services at The University of Tennessee as well as the Japan-America Society of Tennessee, Inc. The Executive Director of at the Japan-America Society of Tennessee, Inc., assisted with initiating contact with each company through its Board of Directors. The online versions of Round One and Two surveys were designed by the researcher and distributed to the panel of experts at those companies. Analysis of the data is described later in this chapter.

Instrument Reliability and Validity

In order to contribute a clear, logical, and well organized survey and to gain reliable data from all the panel of experts, a pilot study was conducted with a selected panel of experts. Company D, a well established trading company in Tennessee, was chosen to be a participant of a pilot study. Company D was established in 1989 and has 45 employees. The researcher chose
this specific company to serve as a pilot study because employees of a trading company need Japanese competence and also need to be well aware of cultural differences; therefore, when the company looks for new, non-Japanese, salaried employees, it has specific criteria. The branch manager was asked to choose one Japanese and one American employee to participate in the study who had been working for this company for a long time and had been involved in the hiring process many times. A letter and survey were sent to these selected pilot study participants to gather survey answers as well as solicit feedback about the instrument. A few minor changes were made to the letter and instrument using the participants’ suggestions. This process helped create a well-organized instrument for Round One of the Delphi study. Those pilot study participants did not take part in the final study.

Data Collection

The researcher sent an e-mail letter (Appendix A) to 3 representatives from each company to invite them to participants in the study and also to explain the purpose and general overview of this study, to request commitment to the entire study, and to explain the time required to complete the entire survey. The panel of experts was allowed 10 days in which to return the completed survey for Round One and Round Two.

At this point, the researcher was notified by administrator at two of the target companies that, although they had originally thought themselves able to participate, upon further exploration they had found that time constraints would prohibit their complete participation. However, the researcher subsequently learned that the remaining participating company (the Japanese company with the second biggest investment in the state) had two different locations committed to participation in the survey. Consequently, for each round two reminders were sent to the 2 representatives from these locations to ensure a high return rate. As a result, the percentage of
Participation was high: 122 people surveyed, 58 responded in Round One and 61 responded in Round Two— an unusually successful return rate of about 50 percent for each round.

Since this research was conducted anonymously, the website for both Round One and Round Two electronic surveys were sent, not directly to the panel of experts, but to the person at each company who helped identify the panel of experts in each company. The researcher communicated with the point person in each company, prior to sending Round One and Round Two surveys, in order to increase the number of returns and to ensure a smooth transaction.

The instrument for Round Two was prepared after analyzing the results of the Round One survey.

Analysis of Data

The collected data from Round One and Round Two was analyzed statistically by using descriptive statistics (SPSS version 16). These statistics will include frequencies, means, and cross tabulations. The analysis of any open-ended questions was used qualitative techniques. The detailed analyses of Round One and Round Two will be presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to answer the following research questions: What is the current expectation of managers as to the level of Japanese competency of their English-speaking employees at Japanese companies located in the U.S. and what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees? The Delphi study was employed to offer depth of analysis given the small number of potential research subjects. The first step was to identify the top three investment Japanese companies in Tennessee and mid-level managers and administrators at these companies. The next step was categories of research questions which formed the basis for the development of the survey instrument for Round One.
A pilot study was conducted and the survey instrument for Round One was created. Then, Round One, an electronic online survey was presented to the selected panel of experts—managers of Japanese companies located in Tennessee—to be completed. Two rounds of the Delphi technique were conducted, which produced a final list of competencies and other elements, addressing the study’s research questions. The results of the two rounds of the Delphi study were analyzed with the application of proper statistical techniques to examine the data. Results from this analysis will appear in Chapter 4.
CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The analyses of the data collected and the discussion of the findings are the main components of this chapter. The purpose of this study was to investigate the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers, as viewed by mid-level managers and administrators at three Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee. The following research questions were created to answer and support the purpose of this study:

1. What are the current expectations of managers in terms of the level of Japanese competency of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in the U.S.?

2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?

3. What is the rationale underlying the expectations of managers regarding employees’ language and cultural expectations?

The researcher contacted the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning in order to identify the top investment countries in Tennessee. Japan was the country which invested the most in the state, followed by the UK and Canada. Therefore, the researcher chose to survey the top three Japanese companies in terms of dollar investment in the state of Tennessee since they would have the greatest influence on the hiring of local (non-native Japanese) employees for their companies. Following an extensive review of relevant literature, research questions were
subsequently developed, having these three categories in mind—language, culture, and business.

Two rounds of a survey were then used as a vehicle for data collection and later analysis.

This chapter presents the examination and the statistical analyses of these data followed by a discussion of the findings that concludes this chapter. Chapter 4 is organized according to the following headings: Research Participants; Creating the Survey; Results of Round One of the Study; Results of Round Two of the Study; Discussion of the Findings; and Chapter Summary.

Panel of Experts

The researcher contacted the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning in order to collect reliable and supportive data for the main investigation of the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers, as viewed by managers at Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee. The office of the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning (2008) provided two considerably important pieces of information for this study. The first was that among all the foreign investments in the state of Tennessee, the number one company in terms of dollar investment is Japan ($11,514,078,297), followed by number two, the United Kingdom ($1,471,573,266) and number three, Canada ($1,370,064,085). The number of firms and jobs that these countries bring to Tennessee was reflected in their respective investment numbers. As for the numbers of firms, the leader is Japan (with 160 firms), followed by the UK (with 141 firms), and Canada (with 71 firms). The number of jobs created in 2008 by Japan, the UK and Canada, were respectively, 40,450, 21,439 and 11,741.

The second piece of information, according to the state of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning, was that the three
The executive director of the Japan-America Society of Tennessee, Inc., based in Nashville, assisted the researcher in contacting key people in these three companies who would ultimately make it possible for her to identify mid-management executives and administrators who could become potential subjects in the study. While waiting for their reply, but after having received approval from The University of Tennessee to conduct the present research study, the researcher conducted a pilot study with five people at a nearby Japanese company in Maryville, Tennessee. Their suggestions were subsequently integrated into Round One of the study (see Appendix C).

At this point, the researcher was notified by the Presidents at two of the three original target companies that, although they had originally thought themselves able to participate, upon further exploration, they had found that time constraints would prohibit their complete participation in the current study. Due to an economically-stressful time the country was experiencing at the time of data collection, only one company elected to accept the researcher’s invitation to participate in the present study. However, the researcher subsequently learned that the remaining participating company (the Japanese company with the second biggest investment in the state) had two different locations committed to participation in the survey. Thus, after receiving approval from Company A to participate in the study, a panel of experts, consisting of mid-level managers and administrators from this company in two different locations, were identified. The latter were chosen to be the participants in this study because they are the most influential people in the company in terms of making decisions about hiring policies and practices.
Creating and Validating the Survey

Based on an analysis of relevant literature and the researcher’s experience in both the academic and business fields, three research questions were developed. An online survey (Round One) was then designed by the researcher in an effort to address these questions. It consisted of a set of 15 demographic questions followed by 33 questions organized into the following five categories:

1. The Importance of Japanese Language Competence
2. Skills in Cross-Cultural Communication in Japanese
3. Understanding the Concept of Japanese Culture and Cross-Cultural Thinking
4. Business Skills in a Mixed-Cultural Environment
5. Opportunities to Learn and Use Japanese within the Company

Of the 33 questions, 29 were answerable by a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = not important; 4 = very important) and 3 were answerable by alternate response (yes or no). Following five of the 33 Likert-type scale questions were comment boxes in which the participants could add additional information, if they desired to do so. The last two items on the survey was an open-ended question followed by a place for the participants to add any additional comments that they wished to make.

Round One of the survey was given in order to establish a baseline on which to assess the validity and reliability of the survey instrument. Round One of the survey demonstrated the ability of the survey to measure the constructs it was designed to measure. Round Two, slightly modified, was found to provide results that were consistent with Round One. Since two rounds of the survey produced reliable and consistent results, a third round of the survey was not conducted.
Round One

A modified Delphi study approach (e.g. multiple rounds of data collection) was conducted to: a) assess instrument reliability and validity, and b) ascertain the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers, as viewed by mid-level managers and administrators at selected Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee. The notion of data collection from experts through multiple rounds was also borrowed from the Delphi approach. These mid-level managers and administrators formed the panel of experts for the study.

In Japanese companies, major operational decisions are made daily by mid-level managers or administrations; therefore, these individuals were considered to be experts in this field. Whereby Round One was initially going to survey participants in the top three Japanese companies, only one company elected to become part of the present research study. From that company, a panel of 58 experts, 9 females and 49 males (48% out of 122 individuals), who were mid-level managers and administrators in the participating Japanese company (which has a presence in two locations) completed Round One. Round Two consisted of a panel of experts of 61, 2 females and 59 males (50%) out of 122 employees who were mid-level managers and administrators in the same Japanese company as Round One.

Results of Round One

The return rate for the Round One survey was 48%. Forty American and 18 Japanese experts participated in this study (see Table 4). Sixty-nine percent of the participants in this study were American experts and 31% of the participants in this study were Japanese experts. The highest level of education attained was mainly a bachelor’s degree (58.6% of the experts) followed by a master’s degree (29.3% of the experts). Eighty-nine point seven percent of the
### Table 4

**Panel of Experts in Round One (All Respondents)**

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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Valid</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<td>Community College</td>
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<th>Percent</th>
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Table 4, continued.

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<td>Total</td>
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</table>

Descriptive Statistics

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<td>59</td>
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<td>Employed</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.98</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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</table>
participants have taken world languages classes before. The average age was 45.26 and their history of employment was 15.98 years for the panel of experts.

An exploratory factor analysis (with principal components extraction and varimax rotation) was used to determine how well the individual questions grouped into the five factors of interest (e.g., Business Skills, Communication Skills, Cultural Awareness, Language Skills and Language Opportunities) which were the constructs that the survey was designed to measure. Table 5 shows the factor loading for these six factors.

The exploratory factor analysis (with principal components extraction and varimax rotation) resulted in six distinct factors rather than the five originally targeted. One targeted construct, Language items split into two factors. Three items addressing basic phrases, greeting and introductions created a factor separate from the main language factor. The second language factor addressed informal language skills. In order to shorten the survey, these three items were dropped from this instrument because they were not the focus of this study. The exploratory factor analysis was subsequently rerun without three informal language skill items and resulted in five clean factors which were Business Skills, Communication Skills, Cultural Awareness, Language Skills, and Language Opportunities. The results appear in Table 6.

Information from the five comment boxes and the answers from the one open-ended question and the Additional Comments section from the Round One Survey were entered into an Excel spreadsheet in order to facilitate their organization by categories (1 for each of the 5 comment boxes, 1 for the open-ended question and 1 for the Additional Comments section on the survey). Then, all of the data were entered into a narrative document (see Appendix D) which facilitated the qualitative analysis of the data by the researcher.
Table 5  

*Six Distinct Factors (All respondents)*

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<th>Component</th>
<th>Component</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>Language (defend their own opinion)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language (persuade and negotiate)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (equivalent to an educated native)</td>
<td>.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (technical industry topics)</td>
<td>.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (current events)</td>
<td>.874</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language (abstract topics and descriptions)</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (personal and everyday topics)</td>
<td>.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (negotiate effectively)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (discuss issues)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (solve issues)</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (business strategies)</td>
<td>.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (leadership skills)</td>
<td>.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (decision-making)</td>
<td>.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Language (introduction)</td>
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<td>Language (greeting)</td>
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<td>Opportunities (to speak Japanese)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Opportunities (to take Japanese)</td>
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**Table 6**

*Five Distinct Factors (All Respondents)*

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Both American and Japanese experts’ opinions on the Japanese competence of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in the U.S. were very similar. Accordingly, the panel of American and Japanese experts reported that it is not required for non-Japanese employees to have Japanese competence; however, it is helpful, appreciated, and encouraged by some. One of the Japanese experts commented that,

It is not an important element for non-Japanese employees to speak Japanese because English is our company’s official language; therefore, I answered all questions as ‘not important.’ However, I am impressed with those locals who are passionately willing to learn Japanese.

Although comments from many of the American experts were similar, the following capture a range of the opinions held. One of the Americans noted,” At Company A, English is the accepted language. Although Japanese is useful, pictures, patience, and practice are most important for effective communication.” Thus, even though language competence is de-prioritized, it is still mentioned as useful knowledge. Another American observed that, “Generally, it is expected that our Japanese staff be able to communicate in English rather than native English speaking persons be able to communicate in Japanese. Although, we do have a few bilingual staff members and they have a distinct advantage in my opinion”. This expert recognizes a general standard where Japanese language isn’t absolutely necessary but then goes on to admit the clear business advantage bilingual employees possess. These expert opinions – in which a distinction is made between merely competent employees and those who excel due to their language competence – recur throughout the business leaders’ comments. In addition, some of the comments from the American experts led the researcher to think about the fundamental issues toward world language education in the U.S. For example one of the
American experts said, “In the US we have not or do not put an importance on learning a different language other than English.” What may be inferred from some of the reviewed literature is that world languages may just be different ways of speaking English. As one of the American experts commented, speaking another language “Should be able to talk in a way that Japanese can understand [English].” The following comment shows what one of the other American experts thought about Japanese competence in non-Japanese employees. “The Japanese believe they are the only ones who can truly effectively use the Japanese language so it is somewhat futile to bother to learn the proficiency that would be needed if they were to accept your opinion.”

Many of them commented that the importance of Japanese competence depends on the person’s position in the company. If a non-Japanese employee is in a position to communicate with Japanese associates in the U.S. or Japan, it will definitely be an advantage to have Japanese language competence where otherwise it is not necessary. As one of the American experts commented, “It is totally dependent on whether the non-Japanese worker must converse with Company A in Japan on a fairly frequent basis, or if the non-Japanese worker has to go to Company A in Japan and work on complex machines or layouts or solving problems.” Therefore, the need for language competence increases depending on how much communication and frequent contact are required to do the job.

Some experts stated that if a non-Japanese employee is assigned as an expatriate in Japan, that employee needs to acquire Japanese language skills. Some of the American experts commented that, “command of the Japanese language is important before you can tackle an overseas assignment.” Another expert clarified the kind of language competence necessary for such an assignment: “In the US it is helpful to have the ability to communicate useful
expressions and basic vocabulary. For those that have assignments in Japan it is imperative to have a higher level of grammar and vocabulary.” It is important to note that the American experts do value Japanese language competence when they are sent to Japan as expatriate employees.

Cultural knowledge was highly desired by some experts. Often, this cultural knowledge was not mentioned in addition to Japanese language proficiency but as the only knowledge that experts thought would be very important for non-Japanese employees to have. As one of the Japanese experts stated,

I think it will be helpful for non-Japanese employees to have Japanese competence in order to have smooth communication with Japanese associates; however, it is not always necessary. I think it will be better for non-Japanese employees to have cultural understanding about Japanese – rather than language competence -- in order to understand the Japanese way of thinking.

Another Japanese expert said that, “It is OK not to be able to speak Japanese but it is important for non-Japanese employees to know the Japanese culture and Japanese people.” Similar points were mentioned by an American expert who said, “Even without knowing the language, it is extremely important to understand the culture to deal with situations and not offend anyone.”

One of the American experts suggested the following interesting point: “It is often hard to grasp another country's culture and cross-cultural thinking unless you have lived in an environment where you were immersed in it. More companies should invest in employee exchange programs (1-2 years) for long-term growth benefits.”

Based upon the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the results from the Round One Survey, a cleaner and more accurate survey (Round Two) was produced. Specifically, the
Round Two survey was created in order to better address the study’s three research questions of this study, which were not completely answered by the Round One Survey.

The Round Two Survey

The Round Two Survey (see Appendix E) was almost identical to the Round One Survey. The researcher did decide, however, to add a list of specific greetings and common phrases in Japanese to the Round Two survey, in order to identify which particular words and phrases were deemed important for potential employees to have, based on the results of the Round One Survey, which showed a high correlation of items in the Communication group of questions.

The Round Two Survey consisted of a set of 15 demographic questions followed by 33 questions organized into the following five categories as previously identified: The Importance of Japanese Language Competence; Skills in Cross-Cultural Communication in Japanese; Understanding the Concept of Japanese Culture and Cross-cultural Thinking; Business Skills in a Mixed-Cultural Environment; and Opportunities to Learn and Use Japanese within the Company. Of the 33 questions, 29 were answerable by a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = not important; 4 = very important), 5 were answerable by alternate response (yes or no), and 1 was answerable by choosing any answer from a list of possible answers that applied to that particular question. Following five of the 33 Likert-type scale questions were comment boxes in which the participants could add additional information, if they desired to do so. The last two items on the survey was an open-ended question followed by a place for the participants to add any additional comments that they wished to make.

Results of Round Two Survey

The return rate for the Round Two survey was 50%. The return rate for the Round One survey was 48%. Forty-three American and 18 Japanese experts participated in this study.
Seventy point five percent of the participants in Round Two of this study were American experts and 29.5% were Japanese experts. The average age was 45.85 and their history of employment was 17.43 years. Demographics appear in Table 7.

An exploratory factor analysis (with principal components extraction and varimax rotation) was used to determine how well the individual questions grouped into the five factors of interest which were Business Skills, Communication Skills, Cultural Awareness, Language Skills and Language Opportunities. The exploratory factor analysis resulted in six factors (see Table 8).

The Business, Language and Opportunities factors remained the same for Round Two as they did for Round One. The Communication factor divided into two factors representing Basic and Advanced Communication, both of which were of interest to the researcher and therefore were included in the analysis. In addition, one culture item (the ability to communicate effectively within the culture, “the non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to communicate effectively in mixed-cultural groups”) was removed because it was double loading in both Business and Culture. Double loading means this item was grouping in both the Business and Culture factors. The goal of exploratory factor analysis is to create distinct factors by having items load into a single factor. Therefore, if an item double loads, it is usually removed from the analysis. Table 8 presents the final 6 factors identified by the exploratory factor analysis. The six factors represent the following six skills: Business Skills, Basic Communication Skills, Advanced Communication Skills Cultural Awareness, Language Skills and Language Opportunities.
Table 7
Panel of Experts in Round Two (All Respondents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>70.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>83.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 or fewer</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 or more</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7, continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>45.85</td>
<td>6.521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17.43</td>
<td>5.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 8

**Six Distinct Factors (All Respondents)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
<th>Component 3</th>
<th>Component 4</th>
<th>Component 5</th>
<th>Component 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language (detailed narration and descriptions)</td>
<td>.932</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (defend their own opinion)</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (abstract topics and descriptions)</td>
<td>.920</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (current events)</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (personal and everyday topics)</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (technical industry topics)</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (persuade and negotiate)</td>
<td>.852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language (equivalent to an educated native)</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (leadership skills)</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (business strategies)</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (decision-making)</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (solve issues)</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (negotiate effectively)</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (discuss issues)</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (understand the different needs)</td>
<td>.601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture (values, perspectives, and norms)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture (adapt behavior)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.556</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture (understand own culture)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.482</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture (comfortable in mixed-culture)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.479</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (business situations)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (social situations)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (nonverbal communication)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (recognize miscommunication)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (solve miscommunication)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication (understand nuances)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities (to take Japanese)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities (to take cultural classes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities (to speak Japanese)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.555</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9 shows the mean for each of the six skills (described below), with the lower mean corresponding to the skill that was considered to be the *least important* and the higher mean corresponding to the skill that was considered to be the *most important* by the panel of experts.

1. The Importance of Japanese Language Competence
2. Business Skills in a Mixed-Cultural Environment
3. Understanding the Concept of Japanese Culture and Cross-Cultural Thinking
4. Skills in Cross-Cultural Basic Communication in Japanese
5. Skills in Cross-Cultural Advanced Communication in Japanese
6. Opportunities to Learn and Use Japanese within the Company

Repeated measures of MANOVA analyses were used to compare the means of the skills to see if they were statistically different. Results of the MANOVA were $F (5,53) = 104.0, p$

### Table 9

*The Mean for Each Skill (All Respondents)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - Language</td>
<td>1.369</td>
<td>.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - Business</td>
<td>3.200</td>
<td>.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - Culture</td>
<td>3.112</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - Basic Communication</td>
<td>2.172</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - Advanced Communication</td>
<td>2.575</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - Opportunities</td>
<td>1.264</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3

Importance attributed to the skill constructs from the Round Two survey. (All respondents).

<.001. Since the $p$ value was less than .05, the results indicate that the panel of experts had different opinions (represented by the means on the six factors) concerning the importance they attributed to the skill factors derived from the Round Two survey (see Figure 3).

To determine how the means of the skills differed from one another, pair-wise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment were run (see Table 10, Appendix G). Based on this analysis, both Business and Culture constructs had significantly higher means than the other groups of skills, but were not significantly different from one another. The most important of these skills as represented by the means, according to the panel of experts, were Business and Culture skills. The mean of the Business category of skills was 3.20, compared with a mean of 3.11 for the Culture category. The second most important category of skills, according to the panel of experts, was Advanced Communication (in Japanese) with the third being Basic
Communication skills. The mean of Advanced Communication skills is 2.58 and Basic Communication is 2.17. The mean of the Language category of skills is 1.37 and that of Opportunity (for using Japanese at work) is 1.26, which is significantly the least important of all of the categories of skills based upon the means.

Data Analysis Controlled by Demographic Variables

The researcher was interested in finding the differences between five different demographic variables, identified at the beginning of the Round Two survey. These included: nationality (Americans versus Japanese); history of employment (number of years of employment in the company), gender; ages (by groups), and experience of world language study (years of language study versus no language study). Only two females took the Round Two survey versus 59 males; therefore, a comparison of opinions controlled by gender was not run due to the low number of female subjects.

The age variable was grouped into the following categories: 40 and younger; 41 to 45; 46 to 50; and over 50. Repeated measures of MANOVA were used to examine age differences and yielded the following results: F (15,138) = .578 p =.888. The p-value was greater than .05; therefore, these results indicate that there were no significant differences of opinions (represented by the means) when controlled for the age of the respondents.

Similar results were found concerning the number of years that the subjects had studied a world language. Forty-nine participants reported having taken language classes, whereby 9 participants had not studied a world language. No significant differences were found with a repeated measure of MANOVA, F (5,52) = .861 p=.513.

Next it was examined to determine if the order of importance of the six skills differed by nationality. Results of repeated measures of MANOVA found a significant difference between
the opinions of the American subjects versus those of the Japanese. The results were $F(5, 52) = 8.133 \ p < .001$. To determine how the opinions of the panel of experts differed for each nationality, concerning the desired skills of potential employees, repeated measures MANOVA were run separately for each nationality (see Figure 4).

To determine what the American panel of experts’ opinions was concerning the importance of desired skills for potential employees (as represented by the means regarding the importance of each of the six skill constructs in Figure 4), repeated measures of MANOVA were run separately for American subjects. The results for the American experts were $F(5, 36) = 103.8 \ p < .001$, indicating a statistical difference among the means. Table 11 lists the mean and standard error of each skill for the Americans.

![Figure 4](image)

*Figure 4*

*American experts versus Japanese experts. (All respondents).*
Table 10

The Mean of Each Skill for the American Experts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - Language</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - Business</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - Culture</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – Basic Communication</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Advanced Communication</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - Opportunities</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To determine how the importance of the six skills represented by the means differed for the American respondents, pair-wise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment were run (see Table 12, Appendix H). Based on the pair-wise comparisons, Business and Culture were significantly higher than the other skills but were not significantly different from each other. Basic Communication and Advanced communication were significantly different from the other skills but were not significantly different from each other. Language and opportunities were significantly different from the other skills but were not significantly different from each other.

Based on these findings, the six skills can be grouped in the three levels of importance. The most important desired skills of the American panel of experts for potential employees were Business (mean=3.28) and Culture (mean=3.20). The second most important desired groups of skills for the American panel of experts were Basic Communication (mean=2.39) and Advanced
Communication (mean=2.56). American experts considered Language (mean=1.31) and Opportunities (mean=1.20) to be significantly less important skills than the others.

To determine what the Japanese panel of experts’ opinions was concerning the importance of desired skills for potential employees (as represented by their means on each of the six constructs), repeated measures of MANOVA were run separately for Japanese subjects. The results for the Japanese experts were $F (5,12) = 26.4 \ p < .001$. $F (5,36) = 103.8 \ p < .001$, suggesting that there were statistical differences among the means across the six skill constructs. Table 13 lists the mean and standard error of each skill for the Japanese panel of experts.

To determine how the importance of the six skills differed for the Japanese experts, pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment were run (see Table 14, Appendix I). The means for Business, Culture, and Advanced Communication were significantly higher than the other

Table 11

*Mean of Each Skill for Japanese (Japanese Respondents)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – Language</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – Business</td>
<td>3.017</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – Culture</td>
<td>2.897</td>
<td>.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – Basic Communication</td>
<td>1.647</td>
<td>.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – Advanced Communication</td>
<td>2.608</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - Opportunities</td>
<td>1.412</td>
<td>.093</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
skills but were not significantly different from each other. The means for Language, Basic Communication, and Opportunity skills were significantly lower than the other skills but were not significantly different from each other.

Based on the pair-wise comparisons, the importance of the six skills can be grouped into two levels. In the opinion of the Japanese panel of experts, Business, Culture, and Advanced Communication were perceived as being equally important skills for potential employees. The mean for Business skills was 3.02, for Culture 2.90 and for Advanced Communication 2.61. Therefore, Language (mean=1.50), Basic Communication (mean=1.65), and Opportunity skills (mean=1.41) were perceived to be significantly less important by the Japanese experts for potential employees.

In conclusion, the results derived from the analysis of the opinions of the 43 American experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture skills were the most important, followed by Basic Communication and Advanced Communication skills. Deemed as non-important skills were Language skills and having the Opportunity to use Japanese at work. In contrast, the 18 Japanese experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture, in addition to Advanced Communication skills, were considered to be the most important; Language, Basic Communication and Opportunity were the least important.

Next it was necessary to determine if the order of importance of the six skills differed by years of employment of the panel of experts. The results for repeated measures of MANOVA found significant differences in importance, as represented by the means, when comparing years of employment by the company. When the three groups of 15 or fewer years, 16 to 20 years, and over 21 years were compared, the results were $F (10,102) = 2.502, p = .010$ (see Figure 5).
Due to the small sample size, even the fact that the $p$-value was significant, pair-wise comparisons were not powerful enough to detect significant differences.

Information entered by the panel of experts into the five comment boxes and the answers from the one open-ended question and the Additional Comments section from the Round Two survey were entered into an Excel spreadsheet in order to facilitate their organization by categories (1 for each of the 5 comment boxes, 1 for the open-ended question and 1 for the Additional Comments section on the survey). Then, all of the data were entered into a narrative document (see Appendix F) which facilitated the qualitative analysis of the data by the researcher. Results from this element of the analysis of these data will appear below.
The results of the Round Two survey enabled the researcher to answer the following the study’s three research questions:

1. What are the current expectations of managers in terms of the level of Japanese competency of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in the U.S.?

2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?

3. What is the rationale underlying the expectations of managers regarding employees’ language and cultural expectations?

**Expectations of the Experts for Japanese Language Competence (RQ 1)**

Eighty-six point two percent of the panel of experts felt that it is possible for non-Japanese salaried employees to learn Japanese. Forty-two percent of the experts desired their non-Japanese employees to have at least the lowest level of Japanese language competence, which is Level Four, however, 24% of the experts would like their non-Japanese employees to have the highest level of Japanese language competence, which is Level One (see Table 15). Research Question One had some other contradictory results.

Contrary to their reported expectations for Japanese language competence, an analysis of the expectations of both the American and Japanese panel of experts showed that they considered the Japanese (language) competency for their non-Japanese employees as not being important. Even though the experts did not appear to value the importance of having Japanese proficiency,
Table 12

Expectations of the Experts for Japanese Language Levels (All Respondents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level Description</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1 (Have an integrated command of the language sufficient for life in Japanese society.)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2 (Be able to converse, read, and write about matters of a general nature.)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3 (Be able to take part in everyday conversation and to read and write simple sentences.)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4 (Be able to engage in simple conversation and to read and write short, simple sentences.)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
there were some complaints about the employees’ willingness to learn and also their inability to communicate in world languages from both sides. One Japanese expert’s commented that,

Japanese associates try to communicate in English in order to aim for independence of the local employees of Japanese companies but the U.S. side is [speaks] only English. I think it will be necessary to have mutual concessions from both sides.

Comments from these same experts indicated that having competence in Japanese did have its positive aspects. As one American expert commented, “Even though it is not necessary to conduct business, learning the Japanese language shows a courtesy towards the Japanese expatriates because they have already taken the time and trouble to learn English.”

Other Elements and Knowledge Desired by Japanese Companies (RQ 2)

Learning the language is not the only lesson needed for non-Japanese employees, however, according to the study’s panel of experts. Since Japanese communication, culture, and education methods are significantly different from American ones, language is not the only barrier to good communication. “Although it [Japanese language competence] is not important, having the [business] skill is better.” A Japanese expert commented that,” I think it will be a positive and friendly gesture if non-Japanese employees can use some Japanese such as greetings and introducing themselves.”

The results of repeated measures of MANOVA analyses, presented earlier, indicated that the most important skills for non-native Japanese employees were both Business and Culture; these results answered the second research question. In other words, analysis of the expectations of both the American and Japanese subjects showed that the most important skills for non-Japanese employees were business skills in a mixed-cultural environment and understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking.
Other expectations of the panel of experts were found in the answers to the open-ended question: “What do you feel are the most important skills and attributes of a new non-Japanese salaried employee in your company?”

Quite a variety of adjectives and nouns were used to answer this question. The most often-used ones by American and Japanese experts were open-minded, flexibility, patience, tolerance, adaptability, willingness to learn and collaboration. To understand and adapt to the corporate culture and business process, some experts mentioned competitiveness, teamwork and kaizen. (The Japanese word kaizen refers to the concept of how one can improve or move on to the next level.) One of the comments by an American expert echoed those from other experts which emphasized the need for a shared corporate culture and a “hybrid balance” between American and Japanese business cultures. A Japanese expert commented upon this process, saying the “first step is to understand the Japanese way of doing things and arrange it into American ways.” Some experts mentioned the importance of their job skills as well as other values.” One in particular, noted, “All the traditional attributes such as high technical skill, strong work ethic, & good communication skills remain important. Having the ability to speak Japanese is very helpful, and understanding the Japanese ‘thinking way’ [sic] is even more important.”

Another skill deemed important my several experts, and one even more valued that the ability to speak Japanese was the ability to listen.

Rationale Underlying the Expectations of Managers Regarding Employees’ Language and Cultural Expectations (RQ 3)

Based on the results of this study, this researcher can conclude that the most obvious and clearly beneficial and profitable competences are those valued in the business field. The experts’ expectations toward business and cultural competence were the most highly-valued among other
competences. The researcher calls this phenomenon the *Iceberg Syndrome* which is explained in more detail in the following section of this chapter, in which the findings of this study are discussed. It is in fact this phenomenon which may indeed be the underlying rationale for the expectations of the Japanese and American panel of experts for their future employees.

Both American and Japanese members of the panel of experts in this study often made comments referring to how business and culture are interwoven into one’s society. Therefore, non-Japanese employees’ need to understand and possess competence in both business and culture was considered to be the most important skill of all. The following comments stress this point:

If you work for Japanese or any other foreign-based company, learning and adapting to their business-mind is important. For Japanese, business skills translates [*sic*] into life skills, as their identity is tied heavily to who they work for, their title and their responsibilities.

Another expert said, These business skills are very important for my position. The most difficult area involves strategic planning. These type [*sic*] of discussions are complicated and sometimes difficult to begin especially when local staff doesn't understand the key decision-making process in Japan or cannot communicate their own ideas effectively. The preceding comments were very common ones as many experts are in agreement with the fact that the most important competences are Culture and Business and the least important competences are Language and Opportunity. The following is just one of many similar comments concerning English competence: “Japanese associates normally speak very clear English as it is taught in their schools early in life. However, Japanese and Americans often misinterprete [*sic*] due to cultural
differences. Understanding cultural differences is very important!” However, in contrast, some American experts commented that “Japanese English skill is lower than American expectation [sic].”

Discussion of the Findings

The 6 factors used in this study were Language, Business, Culture, Basic Communication, Advanced Communication, and Opportunities to Practice Japanese at Work. The Japanese Language Competence group of skills contains a wide range of basic Japanese language abilities – from talking about personal and everyday topics using complete sentences, questions, and answers to using advanced Japanese equivalent to that of an educated native speaker of Japanese. Business skills in a mixed-cultural environment include understanding the various needs such as the ability to discuss and solve issues, to demonstrate and negotiate effectively, to model effective leadership skills, and to use sound decision-making skills. Understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking consists of understanding Japanese values, perspectives, norms, being critically aware of one’s own culture, being comfortable in mixed-cultural groups, and being able to communicate effectively and to adapt one’s way of behavior if needed. Basic Communication refers to understanding nonverbal communication and being able to utilize a variety of communication styles in different business and social situations in Japanese. Advanced Communication includes the ability to understand the nuances and to recognize and solve basic cross-cultural miscommunications. Opportunities to learn and use Japanese within the company – whether through formal or informal means, refer to having an opportunity to take Japanese and cultural classes and to practice Japanese.

The most important elements for prospective employees in a Japanese company, according to both the American and Japanese panel of experts in this study, were Business and
Culture (not Japanese language competence). Certain business manners and culturally-influenced behaviors are all very clearly discernible aspects of cultural differences. These readily-recognizable behaviors were the values most commonly noted by the panel of experts in this study. These findings appear to fit well with Hofstede’s (1980) widely-accepted *Iceberg Theory* which suggests that certain very visible aspects of a culture often only represent the surface of cultural knowledge and can obscure greater and more fundamental knowledge. These obscured elements of the culture are described as the iceberg which is underneath the surface and consists of 8/9th of the whole, while the clearly visible aspects of the iceberg make up just 1/9th of the whole.

The results of the present study allow the researcher to build upon what may be suggested by Hofstede’s theory. In other words, emphasizing the visible parts of business and cultural behavior means understanding only 1/9th of the whole culture and possibly focusing only on surface issues and not addressing deeper causes. The researcher has named this phenomenon the *Iceberg Syndrome* (see Figure 6).

As seen in Figure 5, there are a number of crucial aspects of language and cultural competence that are emphasized less (e.g., learning from successful and unsuccessful communication experiences) and some that are effectively ignored (i.e., fundamental language skills and educational opportunities). While business leaders may turn their attention to more obvious business and cultural issues, clearly this tendency may lead to their devaluing the importance of considering these other, more fundamental aspects of language and cultural competence.
Figure 6

*Iceberg Syndrome*

Even though the results of this study show that mid-level managers and administrators consider language skills to be relatively unimportant skills for their non-Japanese employees to have, the second tier of valued skills was Advanced Communication, and the third one was Basic Communication. Nonetheless, it should go without saying that one needs to have fundamental language skills in order to have advanced and basic communication abilities.

These results reflect the *Iceberg Syndrome* because, the act of communicating is highly visible in a business context, but the more fundamental skills that inform this communication can easily be overlooked. This phenomenon could cause business leaders to ignore the very thing that leads to many of their cross-cultural failures and successes: attention to fundamental language skills and to the educational opportunities that support them. Furthermore, not attending to these fundamentals could perpetuate failures and impede future successes. Basically,
when referring to cross-cultural difficulties, business leaders could make the mistake of treating
the symptoms but not the disease. This *Iceberg Syndrome*, regarding language and cultural
competence, appeared among American business leaders as well as among Japanese business
leaders in the present study. The American experts categorized Basic and Advanced
Communication Skills in second place among the three tiers identified above. The Japanese
categorized Advanced Communication Skills as important but Basic Communication skills as
not important.

These Japanese experts’ opinions fit perfectly in the model of the *Iceberg Syndrome*
because basic communication skills are hard to recognize as part of the company’s most crucial
skill sets, but if one has advanced communication skills, it can be seen and recognized easily as a
component of the company’s strategic success.

Most importantly, both the American and Japanese business leaders in the study ranked
educational opportunities at the bottom of their priorities. This fact is crucial because, even if
these leaders were to value the fundamental language skills necessary for cross-cultural
competence, they would still not be able to convert this knowledge into the highly visible and
practical communication skills – or cultural and business knowledge – if the employees were not
given opportunities to learn, practice, and apply their fundamental language skills. In effect,
without these opportunities, all the crucial fundamental language skills would be rendered
useless.

Chapter Summary

This chapter analyzed the data gathered in this study by two Rounds of a modified
Survey which investigated the expectations of a panel of experts comprised of American and
Japanese mid-level managers and administrators, for future employees in Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee.

Determining levels of foreign investment and then the top three countries in terms of announced investment in the state of Tennessee was the researcher’s first step in this study, following an extensive review of the literature. The next step was to develop and validate a research instrument that would seek answers to the three research questions guiding this study. Both rounds of the surveys centered around three categories: Japanese Language, Business, and Culture. A final list of important competencies in these three categories was identified by conducting two rounds of a Modified Delphi Survey whose results produced a valid and reliable instrument. The researcher then discussed the findings at the end of this chapter.

A summary of the study, conclusions, implications and a call for further research based on the findings of the study, will be presented in Chapter 5, which is the final chapter of this study.
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter is divided into four sections: the Summary, Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations for Further Research. The first section of the summary presents the purpose of this study, the research design, and the findings, together in one section. The second section presents the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study. The implications of these conclusions – especially on the fields of business, education, and cultural studies – are outlined in the third section. The last section makes recommendations for further research, suggesting how these findings might be generalized to other professional arenas.

Summary

The research in English competence at companies in different countries is very popular. The lingua franca of business is indeed English. However, the focus of this research is not on English competence but Japanese competence in the global business field. The purpose of this study was to investigate the importance of Japanese language and cultural competence in business careers, as viewed by mid-level managers at Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee, in order to identify expected skills of future employees.

The existing research studies reveal the fact that American and Japanese companies value language skills and international experience differently. Overseas assignments are perceived as an advantage for Japanese business people for promotion within a company. However, in contrast, it is not taken as an advantage or as a very important criterion for promotion in American companies (Tung, 1990). A similar and much more extreme case can be found in O’Boyle’s (1989) research in which overseas assignments are considered a career...
negative. This was a consensus arrived at by most Ford senior managers who worked before at a European Ford subsidiary. Moreover, Columbia University and Korn/Ferry International (1989) convey in a survey of 1,500 managers worldwide that only 35% of American CEOs—as opposed to 73% in other countries—ranked “experience outside the headquarters country” (p. 95) as very important. In addition, 100% of Japanese CEOs ranked “international outlook” as very important (p. 96). Also, 81% of Europeans and 87% of Latin Americans ranked this outlook as very important (p. 96). Columbia University and Korn/Ferry International (as cited in Cramer, 1990, p.95-96). These research studies show that American and Japanese businesspeople have totally different perspectives and values on international experience. Although, Fixman’s (1990) research states that international experience is beginning to be recognized as a highly valuable thing to have as businesspeople in the U.S., this is a relatively new recognition. However, world language competency was not valued by the Tennessee business experts in this present research study. Fixman (1990) expected that attitudes like this will change with demand in the future. Still, how challenging will it be for Americans to learn Japanese and what level of competence do they need to comprehend substantive business matters?

Through this research study, the principal investigator sought answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the current expectation of managers in terms of the level of Japanese competency of their non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies located in the U.S.?

2. In addition to Japanese language proficiency, what other elements and knowledge are desired by Japanese companies for their future employees?
3. What is the rationale underlying the expectations of managers regarding employee’s language and cultural expectations?

The following three-phase research design was adapted in order to address the purpose of the study and to answer the research questions. The names of the companies of the top three, dollar-investment, Japanese multinational companies located in Tennessee were identified by the Tennessee Research Department in State Economic and Community Developments in Phase One. In Phase Two, three major areas of questions (language, culture, and business) were developed in this stage of the research and given to a panel of Japanese and American experts to answer in Round One, a modified Delphi Survey created in Phase One. In order to evaluate and validate the list of desired skills in these three fields that was identified in Phase Two, a modified Delphi Method, using a two-stage survey methodology, was employed in Phase Three. The purpose of this phase was to gather additional descriptive information from mid-level managers, experts in the field of hiring new, non-Japanese, salaried employees in a Round Two survey.

The instrument (Appendix C) used for Round One in this study was created by the researcher, basing the questions on a basic list of content competency statements identified in the second phase of the study. The following five groups of competencies in language, culture, and business were developed by the researcher:

- Group One: Importance of Japanese competence
- Group Two: Skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese
- Group Three: Understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking
- Group Four: Business skills in a cross-cultural environment
- Group Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company
The Round Two survey (Appendix D) was created to validate the findings of the Round One survey by using an identical set of questions. Response rates of 48% and 50% for Round One and Round Two, respectively, were achieved.

Essentially, a modified Delphi study approach (e.g., multiple rounds of data collection) was conducted in Round One and Round Two in order to: a) assess instrument reliability and validity, and b) ascertain the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers, as viewed by a panel of American and Japanese experts at the second largest Japanese company in the state of Tennessee.

The collected data from the Round One and Round Two Surveys were analyzed statistically by using descriptive statistics (SPSS version 16). These statistics included frequencies, means and cross tabulations. The analysis of the two open-ended questions on each survey involved qualitative techniques.

An exploratory factor analysis (with principal components extraction and varimax rotation) was run to determine how well the individual questions grouped into the five factors of interest (i.e., Business Skills, Communication Skills, Cultural Awareness, Language Skills and Language Opportunities). The exploratory factor analysis resulted in six factors because the Communication factor divided into two factors representing Basic and Advanced Communication, both of which were of interest to the researcher and therefore were included in the analysis.

According to the panel of experts, the most important skills were Business and Culture. The mean of the Business category of skills was 3.20, compared with a mean of 3.11 for the Culture category. The second most important category of skills was Advanced Communication (in Japanese) with the third being Basic Communication skills. The mean of Advanced
Communication skills was 2.58 and Basic Communication was 2.17. The mean of the Language category of skills is 1.37 and that of Opportunity (for using Japanese at work) is 1.26, which is significantly the least important of all of the categories of skills.

The surveyed experts differed from each other in a number of ways. These differences included nationality (Americans versus Japanese); history of employment (number of years of employment in the company); gender; age (by groups); and experience of world language study (years of language study versus no language study). The researcher was interested in finding the differences between the five different demographic variables identified at the beginning of the Round Two survey. Due to the low number of female subjects, a comparison of opinions controlled by gender was not run. The results of repeated measures of MANOVA indicate that there were no significant differences of opinions controlled by the age variable amongst the subjects.

Similar results were found concerning the number of years that the subjects had studied a world language. In contrast, a significant difference between the opinions of the American subjects versus those of the Japanese was found by running repeated measures MANOVA.

Based on these findings, the results derived from the analysis of the opinions of the 43 American experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture skills were the most important, followed by Basic Communication and Advanced Communication skills. Deemed as non-important skills were Language skills and having the Opportunity to use Japanese at work. In contrast, the 18 Japanese experts indicated that for them, Business and Culture, in addition to Advanced Communication skills, were considered to be the most important; Language, Basic Communication and Opportunity were the least important.
Repeated measures of MANOVA were run to determine how the order of importance of the six skills differed by years of employment of the panel of experts. Results indicated that there were significant differences when the three groups (15 or fewer years of employment, 16 to 20 years, and over 21 years) were compared. The result was that subjects employed longer by the company may think that skills in Business and Culture are more important. In addition, 86.2% of the experts said it is possible for non-Japanese salaried employees to learn Japanese. Forty-two percent of the experts wished for non-Japanese employees to have at least the lowest level of Japanese language competence, which is Level Four. However, an interesting point was that 24% of the experts wished for non-Japanese employees to have the highest level of Japanese language competence, which is Level One.

The analysis of the two open-ended questions at the end of Round One and Round Two Surveys made use of qualitative techniques. These comments enriched the findings and helped support the rationale underlying the expectations of experts.

The results of this study indicated that fundamental skills of Japanese language are not considered to be important skills to possess by the non-Japanese employees at Japanese companies in the U.S.; however, the communication skills were valued at a much higher rate. The most valued skills were business and culture. The researcher described these results as the Iceberg Syndrome: While the act of communicating is highly visible in a business context, the more fundamental skills that inform this communication can easily be overlooked -- just as the lower, more constitutive part of an iceberg is largely invisible.

Conclusions

Japanese language competence was not considered to be an important element for non-Japanese employees to have; however, communication skills were valued more than language
competence. In particular, advanced communication ranked as the second most important skill for both the American and Japanese members of the panel of experts. The Japanese experts were in consensus with the American experts that advanced communication skills were as important as business and cultural skills, which, the principal investigator feels are the most important skills to have. Needless to say, one needs to acquire those language skills in order to gain those highly-valued advanced communication skills.

Historically speaking, foreigners’ very first experiences of learning the Japanese language were very painful to the point that even one person described the Japanese language as “the Devil’s language” (Henshall & Kawai, 2004, p. 26). The record shows that one of the very first Westerners to visit Japan and study Japanese was a Portuguese priest in the 16th century (Henshall & Kawai, 2004). The description of the Devil’s language came from the frustration of that priest’s inability to acquire the language. The next description of Japanese language was much better than the first one and appeared in his Hall’s (1959) book entitled The silent language. These reactions stem from Japanese being a high context language, meaning messages are often highly coded and implicit. In other words, the silent part of the language can be the most important message in the conversation. In spite of extremely high level of difficulties in learning the Japanese language, Fixman’s (1990) study concluded that fluency is necessary for substantive business matters. This conclusion can be a discouragement for American businesspeople in learning Japanese.

All these facts make the majority of Japanese people believe that the Japanese language is impossible for Americans to learn. Furthermore, English is learned by more than a billion people. Therefore, a native speaker of English is very much used to hearing imperfect English. In contrast, Japanese language used by non-native speakers is still much more uncommon to
Japanese. Accordingly, Japanese people are not as patient with imperfect Japanese as Americans are with imperfect English. Therefore, for all these reasons, Japanese have come to no longer expect Americans to speak the Japanese language. Also, even if one can speak Japanese well, some Japanese businesspeople are not comfortable communicating in Japanese. Cramer’s (1990) study found this was a common argument and reported that the Japanese are uncomfortable with foreigners who speak their language well. One of Cramer’s interviewees felt that some Japanese businesspeople take foreigners’ Japanese language competence as a business disadvantage because they fear that the foreigner is becoming too much like the Japanese themselves. This specific idea might be coming from the Japanese society where they strongly separate groups according to insiders and outsiders. In Japanese, for example, some of the vocabularies are even separated as to whether it is for insider group usage or outsider group usage. Therefore, this Japanese culture/custom could lead to Japanese business leaders feeling intruded upon by outsiders when they hear non-native speakers using their language with an insider’s vocabulary. In addition, since this insider/outsider status is taken as a social norm, the defensive tactic of withdrawing from non-native speakers of Japanese will likely happen sub-consciously on the part of the native speaker. Moreover, Rubin (1989) stresses the idea that in order to really understand the Japanese language and people, one needs to understand these social norms. Japanese-U.S. relations are complicated on many levels, including the level of language. Still, knowing these social norms in Japan is necessary to break through these cultural barriers so that language competence can lead to the global business success that is desired.

The reason that Japanese competence is so rare at companies in the U.S. might result from ignorance of such social norms previously mentioned. Therefore, it will not help employees’ communication between American and Japanese for such crucial social ignorance to
remain. The relative lack of Japanese competence might also result from the attitude by which English speakers feel they do not need to have foreign language competence because of the mainstreaming of worldwide business communication in English worldwide. However, Tung (1990) states that American employees without any Japanese competence often try to communicate exclusively with the Japanese businesspeople who are known as *eigo-ya*, employees of any rank or specialty whose only distinction in these situation is that they speak English. In other words, these American businesspeople are dealing with the wrong person in their business concerns.

Cultural competence is highly valued by American managers while Japanese language competence is not. These results are in conflict with the research studies regarding the importance of language and cultural competences. The main argument is that language and culture cannot be considered separately, and learning the language is one of the best ways to understand a culture. Goldstein and Tamura (1975) express this issue by saying that communication in Japanese language is an essential ground as to how one thinks within the Japanese culture. Moreover, understanding the nuances behind language patterns in communication means understanding the broader issues of culture and personality. Simply put, it can be argued that knowledge of the Japanese language is the most critically important tool to have in understanding how Japanese people think and feel, which is the basis of culture (Maynard, 1997). Fixman’s (1990) study reveals that the majority of businesspeople in the U.S. feel that language skills can be purchased but cultural skills cannot. However, lacking these language skills often leads those managers to be trapped within a narrow perspective. In other words, it leads to ethnocentrism. One of the main reasons for American managers to not highly value language skills would be the vicious cycle of its low priority in the U.S. education system.
and society and the feeling of insecurity resulting from their lack of language competence. Foreign language was the lowest ranked subject of importance among different academic subjects, and the melting pot concept of social cohesion (instead of the salad bowl or the mosaic) must be a factor. As a result of this, American businesspeople lacking language skills felt threatened by those who have more language skills. Therefore, these American managers actively devalue language skills as job requirements in order to secure their own positions. This creates a vicious cycle of demand and devaluation of world languages in educational and business settings.

In contrast, Japanese businesspeople have valued advanced communication skills higher than American businesspeople have. These results must stem from the very similar conditions as seen with the American businesspeople. It must be a combination of the educational system, the society, and the business field in Japan. Educated individuals who speak a second language are a common occurrence in many countries and Japan is not an exception. Therefore, language skills are naturally highly valued by Japanese managers. However, this common Japanese value is one of the factors that are making communication between American and Japanese employees more complicated. More specifically, Japanese employees would be offended by American employees using Japanese with them because that indicates to Japanese employees that it is assumed they are uneducated individuals. As a result of this phenomenon, American employees who are eager to practice their Japanese language skills do not often have a chance to do so. Nonetheless, American employees have difficulties in understanding this because this common belief that educated individuals should speak a second language does not exist in the U.S. Moreover, American managers rarely have to communicate with lower level employees in Japan; therefore, they have no chance to practice their Japanese skills.
These phenomena are promoting the ideas among Japanese businesspeople that American businesspeople cannot learn Japanese and similarly, among American businesspeople, that their acquiring Japanese language is not necessary.

Of the primary skill sets analyzed in the present study, the cultural skills were consistently selected as the most important skills for non-Japanese employees to acquire, by both Americans and Japanese on the panel of experts. This result fits well into the literature review of the majority’s opinions of language skills – which can be bought when needed (i.e., translators can be hired) but cultural skills are something necessary to do business well and smoothly. However, some interesting results were that the business experts in the current study did not think the opportunities to have language or culture classes were important. The rationale underlying the expectations of experts could be explained by the Iceberg Syndrome. As it was mentioned in Chapter 4, the iceberg’s surface is only $1/9$ of the entire iceberg. Needless to say, without the bottom parts underneath the water, those parts above the surface would never be seen or known. People tend to admire the part which can be seen clearly and strongly but easily forget that the part exists because of the strong foundation. The researcher sees Japanese language skills as $8/9$ of the iceberg. These Japanese language skills must exist in order to have all the other skills which the experts value so highly for non-Japanese employees.

Implications

At the outset of this study, the researcher hoped that these findings would be of use in a number of ways, including the following. Managers and administrators in global companies might use this information to develop on-site language instruction. Business professors who offer concentrations in international business programs might use this information to inform their curricula. World language professors, who wish to help their students who are interested in
business careers in an international setting, might use this information in their instruction. Deans, Department Chairs, curriculum designers, and cultural studies faculties interested in developing multicultural curricula, whether it be a core or discipline-specific curriculum, might find these data helpful. The purpose of this research was to clarify the needs of global companies vis-à-vis language proficiency and cultural competence, so that the aforementioned professionals can provide educational services to meet those needs.

The results of the current study indicate a couple of priorities in terms of improving language proficiency and cultural competence in the global business setting. Thus, business leaders’ recognition of the fundamental value of basic language competence must precede any radical change in educational services provided. Simply put, the problem must be fully defined before a solution can be proposed.

Recommendations for Further Research

The population in this study was limited to state of Tennessee. Whereby the state of Tennessee was an ideal state considering the number of companies, employees, and amount of investment, conducting this study with a larger population, including all 50 states of the U.S. is recommended in order to expand the findings of this study. Moreover, it would be interesting to conduct this study in different countries of the world and compare the results by country.

This study asked some open-ended questions which prompted comments which were very helpful to understand the rationale underling the expectations of experts; therefore, qualitative research on this topic would enrich this research. Observing the non-Japanese employees in the classrooms and also interviewing some of the experts would lead to a better understanding of the results and also enrich the study.
This study focused on the expectations of a panel of experts in the business arena. The researcher recommends focusing on the expectations in academic fields and comparing the similarities and differences in their respective experts’ expectations. These results may help developing certain academic curricula to help students and employees.

The researcher eagerly hopes that this study may influence people to rethink the role of language and cultural competences not only in business fields, but also in academic and daily settings. The researcher is also hopeful that this study may stimulate an interest in introducing the subject of world languages, and in particular, critical languages (i.e., Japanese and Chinese) earlier in the PreK-12 curriculum, to ensure the development of a high level of language proficiency—a critical element for today’s global citizens.

Chapter Summary

This chapter summarized Chapter 1 through 4 and also used the study’s findings to project its possible impact on the future. This chapter is composed of a summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research. A list of References, Bibliography and Appendices follow this chapter. Appendices include the list of top three foreign investment countries in Tennessee, the list of top three investment companies in Tennessee, the cover letters for the survey, Round One and Two of the Modified Delphi study, and a list of competencies developed after the Round Two of the study. The very last part of this dissertation present the researcher’s curriculum vitae.
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APPENDIX
Appendix A

Letters to Company
Dear Mr./Ms./Dr.:

My name is Asami Segi, and I am a doctoral student in World Languages and ESL Education at The University of Tennessee. I am interested in conducting research on the expectations of Japanese companies for non-Japanese, yearly salaried employees (i.e., not those paid by the hour) located in Tennessee. My goal for this research is to identify important elements that will help universities to realistically prepare students for the global job market. If requested, the results of this research can be made available to you.

Whereby, there have been multiple research studies conducted in American companies located in Japan, who hire Japanese businesspeople, there is very little research examining American businesspeople who work in Japanese companies in the U.S. Therefore, this research study, which will examine this phenomenon, is absolutely vital.

I am asking you to participate in the completion of up to three rounds of survey questions. I would really appreciate it if you would complete the attached Round One survey and send it to me via e-mail within 7 days to ensure inclusion of your responses in Round Two. Round One should not take more than 10 minutes to complete. You may be assured that your identity and anonymity will be maintained. The dissertation and subsequent publications will only report summary data. All data will be kept in a secured cabinet for the duration of the study, and then safely destroyed. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from participation in the study at any time, without penalty.

I understand that as a professional, your schedule is demanding, and I deeply appreciate your time and effort. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me at (865) 406-1416 or asegi@utk.edu.

Thank you for your time and your valuable contribution to my dissertation research. I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely,

Asami Segi
Ph.D. Candidate in World Languages and ESL Education
The University of Tennessee
猛暑の候、貴社ますますご盛栄のこととお慶び申し上げます。

テネシー大学で外国語教育を勉強している世木と申します。誠に恐縮ですが、この度は貴社の社員の方にアンケートをとらせていただきたく御連絡させていただいております。

政府の調査団体の調べによると、テネシー州においての外国企業の投資額及びに会社数と雇用者数は下記のようになっております。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>投資額</th>
<th>会社数</th>
<th>雇用者数</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>第1位</td>
<td>日本</td>
<td>$11,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>第2位</td>
<td>イギリス</td>
<td>$1,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>第3位</td>
<td>カナダ</td>
<td>$1,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

この日本経済力の影響もあり毎年テネシー州の大学には数多くの学生が日本語を学んでいます。2008年度の春学期にはテネシー州内9校の大学で658人の学生が日本語を学んでいました。私は10年以上にわたりてこテネシー州の日系企業と大学で日本語を教えておりますが、日本語を習得した数多くの卒業生の中、念願が叶い日本語を活かした就職先を見つける事が出来た学生は残念ながらほんの一握りの学生でしかありません。この現状を把握した上で、テネシー州的数多くの日系企業が日本語能力をどれ程重要視しているか、どのような人材を必要としていて、そのためにどのような教育方針をとっていらっしゃるのかを調査させていただきたく、連絡させていただいております。

160の日系企業の中で投資額が上位3社の会社に調査のお願いをしております。この調査の対象は貴社のマネージャー以上の社員全員とさせていただき、インターネット上だけでのアンケートを2回とらせていただくことになります。お手数ながらこの調査にご協力していただけるかどうかのご返事をお願い申し上げます。貴社のご要望があれば、調査結果をお知らせ又は発表にお伺いいたします。

今後の日系企業の更なる繁栄と日本語教育の強化の為、この調査にご協力していただけますよう宜しくお願い申し上げます。

調査に協力する

調査に協力しない

窓口の方の名前と連絡先

先日テネシー大学よりテネシー州の投資額上位3位の日系企業にインターネット上のアンケートの依頼がありました。この2回のアンケートによる調査に協力することにしましたので、ここに皆さんのご協力をおねがいします。

下記がその内容です。

政府の調査団体の調べによるテネシー州においての外国企業の投資額及びに会社数と雇用者数（2008年）
この日本経済力の影響もあり毎年テネシー州の大学には数多くの学生が日本語を学んでいて、2008年度の春学期には9校の大学で658人の学生がテネシー州で日本語を学んでいたということです。テネシー州の日系企業が日本語能力をどれ程重要視しているか、どのような人材を必要としていて、そのためにどのような教育方針をとっているのかが調査だそうです。この調査の対象はマネージャー以上の社員全員となります。
今後の日系企業の更なる繁栄と日本語教育の強化の為、ご協力願いますということでしたので、8月13日から8月22日までに第1回目のアンケートに答え、送ってください。
ご協力を願います。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>位次</th>
<th>国名</th>
<th>金額</th>
<th>人口</th>
<th>国名</th>
<th>金額</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>日本</td>
<td>$11,514,078,297</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>日本</td>
<td>40,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>イギリス</td>
<td>$1,471,573,266</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>イギリス</td>
<td>21,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>カナダ</td>
<td>$1,370,064,085</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>ドイツ</td>
<td>11,741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We have received a request from The University of Tennessee to participate in an internet survey. The top three companies in terms of dollar investment in Tennessee are the participants in this study. We have agreed to cooperate in this study which includes two rounds of internet surveys so I am now asking for your support. The following is the content of the study.

The following numbers concerning international businesses in Tennessee were offered by the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning (2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Announced Investment ($)</th>
<th>Number of Firms</th>
<th>Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Japan $11,514,078,297</td>
<td>Japan 160</td>
<td>Japan 40,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. United Kingdom $1,471,573,266</td>
<td>UK 141</td>
<td>UK 21,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Canada $1,370,064,085</td>
<td>Canada 71</td>
<td>Germany 11,741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among foreign investors, Japan’s major role in the Tennessee economy must have influenced the interests in learning Japanese language in colleges and universities in Tennessee. Nine colleges and universities are currently offering Japanese language class/es in Tennessee. The total number of students studying Japanese in these classes in the spring of 2008 was 658.

Based on these figures, there is reason to analyze the language competence of these companies’ employees. The purpose of this study then is to investigate the importance of Japanese language competence in business careers and companies’ educational philosophy, as viewed by employees who are managers and administrators at Japanese companies in the state of Tennessee.

I promised to support this survey to promote Japanese companies and strengthen Japanese language education. Please make sure to answer and submit the first survey between August 13 ~ August 22.

I strongly encourage your participation.
Last week I asked you to participate in a research study from The University of Tennessee. Please make sure to answer the survey by Friday of this week.

I received the thank you letter from The University of Tennessee for participating in the research. The second survey was created by studying the result of the first survey. Please make sure to answer this last survey by September 26.
錦秋の候、貴社ますますご繁栄のこととお慶び申し上げます。平素は格別のご高配を賜り、厚く御礼申し上げます。
この度は私のアンケートにご協力いただき、心より感謝申し上げます。貴社のご協力のお陰で無事に2回目のアンケートを終了することができました。122人のマネージャー以上のうち、1回目のアンケートの参加者は58人、そして2回目のアンケートの参加者は61人でした。2回目のアンケートでは現地マネージャー以上の74人のうち43人が、日本人マネージャー以上の48人のうち18人が協力して下さりました。
このアンケートの結果をもとに現在様々な角度より統計をとり、それぞれのコメント等も含めて勉強しております。結果を発表できるまでは少し時間がかかろうですが、出来次第こちらよりご連絡させていただきます。
宜しくお願い申し上げます。
世木

Thank you very much for participating in my study of linguistic and cultural competence in the global business arena. Two rounds of surveys were successfully completed because of your help. The numbers of participants were 58 from round one and 61 from round two out of a total number of 122 managers and administrators. In the second round survey, 43 Americans participated out of 74 and 18 Japanese participated out of 48. I have been statistically analyzing the data from many different views and studying the comments. This process will take just a little more time to complete. I am looking forward to sharing my findings with you once the analysis phase is finished.
Sincerely yours,

Asami Segi
Ph.D. Candidate in World Languages and ESL Education
The University of Tennessee
晩秋の候、貴社いよいよご清祥のこととお慶び申し上げます。この度は私のアンケートにご協力くださいまして、心より感謝申し上げます。皆様のご協力のお蔭をもちましてグローバルビジネス界における言語能力と文化知識においての様々な点において理解を深めることができました。
全ての結果をまとめた論文が仕上がりましたので、ここに CD を用意させていただきました。ご依頼通り、貴社の名前は Company A とさせていただきました。
ご希望であれば、いつでもアンケートの結果等を説明しに伺いますのでご連絡くださいますよう、宜しくお願い申し上げます。

世木

November 19, 2008
Dear Mr./Ms./Dr.______________,

Thank you for your time and your valuable contribution to my dissertation research. This special research study, concerning linguistic and cultural competence in the global business arena, revealed many interesting points, due in great part to your participation in the study.
I would like to share the findings in my research with you, as promised at the beginning of my research. (A CD of my dissertation is attached.) Please note that as requested by you, the name of your company is referred to as Company A throughout the dissertation.
If you would like me to do so, I could meet with you in person to review the results of the study.
I am available to do so at your convenience.
Sincerely,

Asami Segi
Ph.D. Candidate in World Languages and ESL Education
The University of Tennessee
Appendix B

Identifying Managers and administrators for Analysis
The following numbers concerning international businesses in Tennessee were offered by the State of Tennessee Department of Economic and Community Development Division of Research and Planning (2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Announced Investment ($)</th>
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<tr>
<td>3. Canada $1,370,064,085</td>
<td>Canada 71</td>
<td>Germany 11,741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Top three companies**

Bridgestone

Denso Manufacturing TN, Inc

Nissan North America Corp

**Company A**

122 mid-level managers and administrators at location 1 and location 2
Appendix C

Round One Survey Instrument
Linguistic and Cultural Competence in the Global Business Arena:

A Study of Japanese Companies in Tennessee

グローバルビジネス界における言語能力と文化知識

テネシー州内の日系企業
Round One Survey

第1彈

Directions:
Please read each competency statement, and then, based on your expertise, select the category (by clicking on the appropriate button), that most accurately reflects your individual values as a business leader and the general values of your company as a whole. Please feel free to make comments on any particular statement and/or add new competency statements in the space provided. Thank you for your time and your valuable contribution to my research.

説明書
それぞれの質問を読み、あなたの会社の環境において、自分の回答に一番近い答えのところにカーサーを動かし、クリックして下さい。それぞれの分野においてのコメントあるいは追加してほしい質問などはご遠慮なくお書きください。貴重なお時間を頂き心より感謝申し上げます。

Gender
性別
Male - 男性
Female - 女性

Age
年齢

Where are you employed?
どこに勤めていますか。
Bridgestone
Denso
Nissan

How many years have you been employed by your present company?
今の会社（国内、海外含め）に何年勤めていますか。
**Highest Level of Education Attained:**
학력
High School - 高等学校
Community College - 短期大学
Bachelor’s - 大学
Master’s - 修士号
Ph.D. - 博士号

*What is your native language?*
あなたの母国語は何ですか。
Japanese - 日本語
English - 英語
other - その他:

*Have you ever taken a foreign language class?*
外国語のクラスをとったことがありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

*If the answer is yes, what language(s) have you been taken?*
答えが「はい」であれば、何語のクラスをとったことがありますか。
Chinese - 中国語
English - 英語
French - フランス語
German - ドイツ語
Japanese - 日本語
Latin - ラテン語
Spanish - スペイン語
Other(s) - その他:

*How long did you study the language?*
どのくらいその外国語（学校教育も含め）を勉強しましたか。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1year</th>
<th>2year</th>
<th>3year</th>
<th>4year</th>
<th>more than 5 year(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1年</td>
<td>2年</td>
<td>3年</td>
<td>4年</td>
<td>5年以上</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

139
Have you ever traveled overseas for business?
ビジネスの目的で海外（母国外）へ行ったことがありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, how many times?
答えが「はい」であれば、何度行ったことがありますか。
1~5
6~10
11~15
16~20
21~25
26~30
31~

Have you ever traveled overseas for pleasure?
個人の目的で海外（母国外）へ行ったことがありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, how many times?
答えが「はい」であれば、何度行ったことがありますか。
1~5
6~10
11~15
16~20
21~25
26~30
31~

Have you ever lived overseas?
海外（母国外）に住んだこと（ホームステイや短期留学を含む）がありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, please list all the places you have lived in the past and for how long?
答えが「はい」であれば、住んでいる・いた場所と期間を全部書いてください。
Part One: Importance of Japanese language competence
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:

第1分野：日本語能力についての重要性
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは：

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Important</td>
<td>重要ではない</td>
<td>多少重要である</td>
<td>大変重要</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Greet others in Japanese.
日本語で挨拶ができる

Introduce themselves in Japanese.
日本語で自己紹介ができる

Use common phrases (e.g. greetings) in Japanese.
日本語で一般的な表現（挨拶等）ができる

Talk about personal and everyday topics using complete sentences, questions, and answers in Japanese.
日本語の文章を使って個人あるいは日常の話題を話すことができる

Talk about current events, using connected sentences, basic narration and descriptions in Japanese.
日本語の接続文、基礎的な解説と描写を使い現時の出来事を話すことができる

Talk about abstract topics using detailed narration and descriptions in Japanese.
日本語で抽象的な話題について
Defend their own opinion in Japanese.  
日本語で自分の意見を弁護することができる

Talk about technical industry topics in Japanese.  
日本語で工業技術の話題について話すことができる

Use detailed narration and descriptions in Japanese.  
日本語で詳しい解説と表現を使うことができる

Persuade and negotiate effectively in Japanese.  
日本語で効果的に説得と交渉ができる

Use a level of Japanese equivalent to an educated native speaker of Japanese.  
教養のある日本人と対等な日本語を使うことができる

Do you have any comments on importance of Japanese language competence?  (Optional)
日本語能力についての重要性でコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Two: Skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese  
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:  
第2分野：異文化間のコミュニケーションにおける日本語能力
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは :
nonverbal communication.

Utilize a variety of communication styles in different business situations in Japanese.

Utilize a variety of communication styles in different social situations in Japanese.

Understand the nuances (i.e. shades of meaning) of information received from a Japanese cultural perspective.

Recognize basic cross-cultural miscommunication in Japanese.

Solve basic cross-cultural miscommunication in Japanese.
Do you have any comments on skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese? (Optional)
異文化間のコミュニケーションにおける日本語能力についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Three: Understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:
第3分野: 日本文化の概念と異文化思考（思想）においての理解
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>重要ではない</td>
<td>多少重要である</td>
<td>重要</td>
<td>大変重要</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Understand Japanese values, perspectives, and norms.
日本人の価値観や物事の見方、そして規範を理解できる

Understand one’s own culture.
自身の文化を理解している

Be comfortable in mixed-cultural groups.
異文化グループの中でも違和感を感じることなく居心地がよい

Communicate effectively in mixed-cultural groups.
異文化グループの中で効果的にコミュニケーションがとれる

Adapt one’s way of behavior if needed in mixed-cultural settings.
Do you have any comments on understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking? (Optional)
日本文化の概念と異文化思考においての理解についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Four: Business skills in a mixed-cultural environment
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to learn to:
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは：

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>重要ではない</td>
<td>多少重要である</td>
<td>重要</td>
<td>大変重要</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Understand the different needs of working effectively with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、日本的な異なるニーズを理解し、効果的に仕事を進めることができる

Effectively discuss issues with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に問題点を話し合うことができる

Effectively solve issues with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に問題点を解決することができる

Demonstrate effective business strategies for working with Japanese
business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的なビジネス戦略を実践することができる

Negotiate effectively with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に交渉することができる

Demonstrate effective leadership skills when working with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に指導力を発揮することができる

Use sound decision-making skills when working with Japanese business.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、堅実な意思決定能力を使うことができる

Do you have any comments on business skills in a mixed-cultural environment? (Optional)
異文化環境におけるビジネス能力についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company
It is important for the new and current non-Japanese salaried employee to have a chance to:
第5分野：会社内における日本語学習と日本語能力を活用する機会
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員にとっての大切な機会は：

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Important</td>
<td>重要ではない</td>
<td>多少重要である</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>重要</td>
<td>重大度</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Take Japanese language classes.
日本語のクラスを取る
Take cultural classes.
異文化教育のクラスを取る

Speak Japanese.
日本語を話す

Part Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company
In current company practices, the new and current non-Japanese salaried employee:
第5分野: 会社内における日本語学習と日本語能力を活用する機会
現時点で、現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員は:

Yes  No
はい  いいえ

Has a chance to take Japanese language classes.
日本語のクラスを取る機会がある

Has a chance to take cultural classes.
異文化教育のクラスを取ることができる

Has a chance to speak Japanese.
日本語を話す機会がある

What do you feel are the most important skills and attributes of a new non-Japanese salaried employee in your company?
あなたの会社での現地（日本人以外の）新入社員にとって一番大切な能力と特質は何だと思いますか。

Additional Comments (optional):
その他にコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Clicking on the "Next" button below will submit your responses to the survey administrator. Therefore, please review your answers, if needed, before clicking on the "Next" button.
"Next"のボタンを押すと自動的に調査機関へ送られますので、今一度ご確認の上、"Next"ボタンを押して下さい。
Appendix D

Round One Survey Comments
Round One
Comments 1 (Language)

It is totally dependant on whether the non-japanese worker must converse with Company A in Japan on a fairly frequent basis, or if the non-japanese worker has to go to Company A in Japan and work on complex machines or layouts or solving problems.  

2 key points; 
1) command of the Japanese language is important before you can tackle an overseas assignment.  
2)Even without knowing the language, it is extremely important to understand the culture to deal with situations and not offend anyone.

At company A, English is the accepted language. although Japanese is useful, pictures, patience, and practice are most important for effective communication. 
I think if associate can speak English well. It will be excellent. However the other hand. I completely realize speaking English by Japanese is easier than speaking Japanese by forignearer. 
In the US it is helpful to have the ability to communicate useful expressions and basic vocabulary. For those that have assignments in Japan it is imperative to have a higher level of grammar and vocabulary.

It is not needed, but could be a benefit. 
I have been studying Japanese at Company A for 10 years. My current level is about JLPT3. I use Japanese very rarely, however the effort to learn is important. My opinion is communication 50% language and 50% ownership. My Japanese contact is Japan use English with me as a base language, however we occasionally use Japanese. They understand our effort to learn Japanese which pushes them to make a stronger effort in English.

If I send an e-mail in Japanese to Japan I usually receive a reply in English within one day. If I send an e-mail in English to an American contact, I may not receive a reply at all (do you?). Ownership is the key.
It depends on him/her position and job. It can be helpful, but definitely not needed. If associate would like to work in Japan, the associate must understand Japanese. However, if associate only work in local, it's not important. Should learn basic structure and pronunciation of the language. Should learn to read katakana. 

Most Japanese natives are appreciative if the non-Japanese members make an effort to learn basic phrases. Non-Japanese members for whom English is not their native language, yet are very competent using English, they are usually more willing to learn basic Japanese phrases and try to converse with the Japanese in their own language.

Additionally, Japanese are willing to teach their language to non-Japanese co-workers through daily interaction. Competence is achieved through repetition and a positive environment of support. There is variation in the merit of this skill based on the job within the company. In most cases, it is not an asset for daily work functions.

Generally, it is expected that our Japanese staff be able to communicate in English rather than native English speaking persons be able to communicate in Japanese. Although, we do have a few bilingual staff members and they have a distinct advantage in my opinion. Basic is important such as greeting, but a high level attainment is too difficult to maintain with the typical job load of a Japanese company.

I answered most of the questions as not important. The reason I did was related to the requirement of complete languages, phrases, etc. For work in a manufacturing plant, this is not necessary since we have many forms of non verbal communication (drawings, charts...). Our Japanese staff many times do not speak in complete English sentences. This promotes more Q and A to find the meaning of the message sometimes but that is a fundamental step in developing understanding and relationships with our Japanese staff members.

I have seen many people at Company A start classes but they soon drop out. Working hours leave little time to concentrate on Japanese language training.

Comments 2 (communication)
異文化コミュニケーションにおける価値観の差異(ただし、ステレオタイプ的内容のみが強調されない事)を理解することは重要である。

It depends on the necessity for the non-Japanese worker to interact with Japanese on a daily, weekly, monthly or not at all. The more frequent contact increases the need to understand Japanwese culture and the difference between each others culture. Understanding the non-verbal cross-cultural communication is an essential part of being truly fluent. The verbal portion is probably only about 50% of communication.

Many Americans become frustrated by indirect Japanese correspondence. The frustration can be translated by the Japanese contact as hostile. Many Americans think language is difficult portion of communication, however I think understanding the nuance is more important.
Many times there is miscommunication because in Japanese a "yes" or "no" does not always mean a "yes" or "no". It could only be an acknowledgement of the content or just acknowledgement of their understanding.

It is so important to understand the non-verbal and cultural meanings. It is the difference between success and big problems.

Nonverbal understanding is vital in working with Japanese; unfortunately, experience is the best teacher, so it takes some time.

It is helpful but not a necessity in our company.

Understanding different forms of communication is a key to successful working relationship. Requires time spent in Japan to grasp.

**Comments 3 (culture)**

It is important for a non-Japanese to understand the other culture as well as the Japanese worker must try to understand the non-Japanese culture. It also depends in what country to conversation is occurring. If in Japan, it is much more important for the non-Japanese to understand the Japanese culture and the many nuances.

The last question's qualifier "if needed" was essential to the answer. Some non-Japanese try too hard to assimilate in which the Japanese are not interested. It is important to be well grounded in your own culture. The Japanese are very "proud" of their culture which ends up meaning that they are not open to letting others in.

Exposing non-Japanese to Japanese culture through a classroom environment can provide only a certain level of understanding of the culture, as well as, working in a cross-cultural environment in the US. The best way to gain an understanding of Japanese is to live in Japan for a few years and get immersed into the culture on a daily basis.

This is also an important area where understanding is needed. Such understandings will prevent unnecessary conflicts.

**Comments 4 (Business)**

But, "not necessarily in Japanese" applies to all of the answers in this section.

If you work for a Japanese or any other foreign-based company, learning and adapting to their business-mind is important. For Japanese, business skills translates into life skills, as their identity is tied heavily to who they work for, their title and their responsibilities.
Understanding each others culture is the most important element to make a combined culture better than each others respective culture.

When working with Japanese it is important to demonstrate abilities to earn their respect. If not accomplished tendencies can be you will be overlooked for input/ advise, etc.

The relationship improves once you build trust and respect.

**The most important skills**

日本人出向者とのコミュニケーション能力。日本人出向者うまくコミュニケーションを取り、仕事を効率的に進めること。

Open mind, willingness to learn, self-motivated (doesn't wait on jobs), and can handle times of high stress.

open-mind

弊社の Corporate Culture & Business Process を理解し順応できること。

Teamwork/KAIZEN/Challenge 精神が重要。

日本人の考え方・やり方を理解しようとする姿勢

If their job entails frequent contact with Japanese, then patience, flexibility, curiosity, respectful, attention to detail, lo-ego, and perceptive and questioning.

Understand our Corporate Culture (Not pure Japanese Culture but hybrid type of good balanced U.S. & Japanese Culture)

In my area specific technical/functional skills are critical. In addition, effective communication in a multi-cultural environment is very important.

日系企業への理解

Tolerance of different cultures, ability to visualize in communication, patience, even temper. Related to U.S. workforce, cultural issues.

Flexibility to adapt to a culture that is neither truly American nor Japanese. Foresight to realize opportunity. Self awareness, to realize the opportunity to learn the new culture and apply new skills. An open mind to adapt.

粘り強い精神とフレキシビリティ

Must be able to accept frequent change and adapt to a diverse environment.

Communication

Understanding cultural difference and methods to communicate, even though you may not be lingual in another language.

専門性、粘り強さ

日本のやり方をまず理解して、UＡＳ 流にアレンジする事

Ability to communicate with different groups. To be able to plan, and implement the plan effectively. Must be flexible, and willing to see different perspectives.

Listening.

Being able to communicate effectively and understand the over all short term and long time goals for the company.
Try to understand different culture.
Respect the opinion comes from different culture. Try to listen Japanese-English.
Foresight, Credibility, Collaboration
to have serious and earnest mind.
to have a sense of responsibility.
Patience
Understanding of Japanese Culture within the business setting.
Adaptability
Willingness to learn what the business expectations are (including those non-verbalized) and adapt without losing their own cultural identity. Show a willingness to learn about the Japanese culture and language through daily interaction with Japanese co-workers. Develop a personal connection with Japanese co-workers, and their family, through shared activities or hobbies outside the work environment.
Work ethic and communication skills.
Listen well, more than you speak
Must speak Japanese fluently to be effective.
Open-mindedness
Patience-a-plenty
Understanding slow decision making
All the traditional attributes such as high technical skill, strong work ethic, & good communication skills remain important. Having the ability to speak Japanese is very helpful, and understanding the Japanese "thinking way" is even more important.
Have Effective Communication Skills both written and oral.
Acceptance and understanding of diverse social attributes in the work place open mind, cultural understanding, and tolerance for different views.
Understanding that the cultural differences will impact the outcome of discussions and understandings. The attributes of attentive listening, clarifying content frequently and gaining consensus of opinions will provide opportunities for cross-cultural success.
Ability to analyze data and adjust to the Japanese business culture
To understand the nonverbal communications and cultural differences technical competence, patience, assertive communication
Open mindedness, deductive reasoning, problem solving techniques, good communication ability, good report writing skills.
Understand the business culture of your company
Understand and accept Japanese business culture/norms. Be able to mix/unite or manage through cultural differences with an open mind.

Comments 5 (Opportunities)
None

Additional comments
Expatriots have a wide range of skills and abilities. Some are sent to the U.S. because they are redundant or for career building back in Japan. It is important to figure out which ones are which and deal with them accordingly.

Japanese associates normally speak very clear English as it is taught in their schools early in life. However, Japanese and Americans often misinterpret due to cultural differences. Understanding cultural differences is very important!

There can never be enough discussion—both ways—regarding cultural differences and perceptions. Some people are intuitive to it, others have to remember and practice it. Good understanding would build trust more quickly.
Appendix E

Phase Tree: Round Two Survey Instrument
Linguistic and Cultural Competence in the Global Business Arena:
A Study of Japanese Companies in Tennessee

グローバルビジネス界における言語能力と文化知識
テネシー州内の日系企業
Round Two Survey

第2弾

Directions:
Please read each competency statement, and then, based on your expertise, select the category (by clicking on the appropriate button), that most accurately reflects your individual values as a business leader and the general values of your company as a whole. Please feel free to make comments on any particular statement and/or add new competency statements in the space provided. Thank you for your time and your valuable contribution to my research.

説明書
それぞれの質問を読み、あなたの会社の環境において、自分の回答に一番近い答えのところにカーサーを動かし、クリックして下さい。それぞれの分野においてのコメントあるいは追加してほしい質問などはご遠慮なくお書きください。貴重なお時間を頂き心より感謝申し上げます。

Gender
性別
Male - 男性
Female - 女性

Age
年齢

Where are you employed?
どこに勤めていますか。
Bridgestone
Denso
Nissan

How many years have you been employed by your present company?
今の会社（国内、海外含め）に何年勤めていますか。
Highest Level of Education Attained:

- High School - 高等学校
- Community College - 短期大学
- Bachelor’s - 大学
- Master’s - 修士号
- Ph.D. - 博士号

What is your native language?

- Japanese - 日本語
- English - 英語
- other - その他

Have you ever taken a foreign language class?

- Yes - はい
- No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, what language(s) have you been taken?

- Chinese - 中国語
- English - 英語
- French - フランス語
- German - ドイツ語
- Japanese - 日本語
- Latin - ラテン語
- Spanish - スペイン語
- Other(s) - その他

How long did you study the language?

- less than 1 month
- 1 month
- 3 months
- 6 months
- 1 year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years
- more than 5 years

Chinese – 中国語
English –
How would you describe your experience? (Check all that apply)
それはどのような経験でしたか。（当てはまるもの全てをお選び下さい。）

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enjoyable</th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Interesting</th>
<th>Relevant</th>
<th>Challenging</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
<th>Painful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>楽しい</td>
<td>易しい</td>
<td>面白い・興味深い</td>
<td>適切</td>
<td>興味（意欲）をそそる</td>
<td>難しい</td>
<td>苦しい・辛い</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chinese - 中国語
English - 英語
French – フランス語
German – ドイツ語
Japanese - 日本語
Latin - ラテン語
Spanish – スペイン語
Other(s) - その他

Have you ever traveled overseas for business?
ビジネスの目的で海外（母国外）へ行ったことがありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ
If the answer is yes, how many times?
答えが「はい」であれば、何度行ったことがありますか。
1~5
6~10
11~15
16~20
21~25
26~30
31~

Have you ever traveled overseas for pleasure?
個人の目的で海外（母国外）へ行ったことがありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, how many times?
答えが「はい」であれば、何度行ったことがありますか。
1~5
6~10
11~15
16~20
21~25
26~30
31~

Have you ever lived overseas?
海外（母国外）に住んだこと（ホームステイや短期留学を含む）がありますか。
Yes - はい
No - いいえ

If the answer is yes, please list all the places you have lived in the past and for how long?
答えが「はい」であれば、住んでいる・いた場所と期間を全部書いてください。

Part One: Importance of Japanese language competence
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:
第1分野：日本語能力についての重要性
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは：

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<thead>
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<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
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<tr>
<td>要点ではない</td>
<td>多少重要である</td>
<td>重要</td>
<td>大変重要</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Talk about personal and every
day topics using complete sentences, questions, and answers in Japanese.
日本語の文章を使って個人あるいは日常の話題を話すことができる

Talk about current events, using connected sentences, basic narration and descriptions in Japanese.
日本語の接続文、基礎的な解説と描写を使い現時の出来事を話すことができる

Talk about abstract topics using detailed narration and descriptions in Japanese.
日本語で抽象的な話題について詳しく解説と表現をすることができる

Defend their own opinion in Japanese.
日本語で自分の意見を弁護することができる

Talk about technical industry topics in Japanese.
日本語で工業技術の話題について話すことができる

Use detailed narration and descriptions in Japanese.
日本語で詳しい解説と表現を使うことができる

Persuade and negotiate effectively in Japanese.
日本語で効果的に説得と交渉ができる
Use a level of Japanese
equivalent to an educated
native speaker of Japanese.
教養のある日本人と対等な
日本語を使うことができる

Do you have any comments on importance of Japanese language competence?  (Optional)
日本語能力についての重要性でコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Two: Skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:
第2分野：異文化間のコミュニケーションにおける日本語能力
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは：

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<td>多少重要であ</td>
<td>重要</td>
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</table>

Understand Japanese nonverbal communication.
言葉を用いない日本語のコミュニケーション（ジェスチャー等）を理解することができる

Utilize a variety of communication styles in different business situations in Japanese.
異なったビジネス状態で日本語で多様なコミュニケーションのスタイルを使いこなす事ができる

Utilize a variety of communication styles in different social situations in Japanese.
異なった社交の場で日本語で多様なコミュニケーションのスタイルを使いこなす事ができる
Understand the nuances (i.e. shades of meaning) of information received from a Japanese cultural perspective.
日本の文化的な見方も含め受け取った情報のニュアンスを理解することができる

Recognize basic cross-cultural miscommunication in Japanese.
基本的な異文化間のコミュニケーションのずれを自分で認識することができる

Solve basic cross-cultural miscommunication in Japanese.
基本的な異文化間のコミュニケーションの誤った理解等を最終的に解決することができる

Comments2
Do you have any comments on skills in cross-cultural communication in Japanese? (Optional)
異文化間のコミュニケーションにおける日本語能力についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Three: Understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to:
第3分野：日本文化の概念と異文化思考（思想）においての理解
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>不要ではない</td>
<td>重要</td>
<td>大変重要</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>重要ではない</td>
<td>多少重要</td>
<td>重要</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>多少重要</td>
<td></td>
<td>大変重要</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Understand Japanese values, perspectives, and norms.
日本人の価値観や物事の見
Understand one’s own culture.
自自身的文化を理解している

Be comfortable in mixed-cultural groups.
異文化グループの中でも違和感を感じることなく居心地がよい

Communicate effectively in mixed-cultural groups.
異文化グループの中で効果的にコミュニケーションができる

Adapt one’s way of behavior if needed in mixed-cultural settings.
異文化における環境の中で、必要であれば自分の行動を順応させる事ができる

Do you have any comments on understanding the concept of Japanese culture and cross-cultural thinking? (Optional)
日本文化の概念と異文化思考においての理解についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Four: Business skills in a mixed-cultural environment
The new and current non-Japanese salaried employee should be able to learn to:
第4分野: 異文化環境におけるビジネス能力
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員に要求することは:

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</table>

Understand the different needs of working effectively with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、日本的な異なるニーズ
 を理解し、効果的に仕事を進めることができる

Effectively discuss issues with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に問題点を話し合うことができる

Effectively solve issues with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に問題点を解決することができる

Demonstrate effective business strategies for working with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的なビジネス戦略を実践することができる

Negotiate effectively with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に交渉することができる

Demonstrate effective leadership skills when working with Japanese business people.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、効果的に指導力を発揮することができる

Use sound decision-making skills when working with Japanese business.
日本人と一緒に仕事をする際、堅実な意思決定能力を使うことができる

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Do you have any comments on business skills in a mixed-cultural environment? (Optional)
異文化環境におけるビジネス能力についてコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Part Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company
It is important for the new and current non-Japanese salaried employee to have a chance to:
第5分野：会社内における日本語学習と日本語能力を活用する機会
現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員にとっての大切な機会は:

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</tbody>
</table>

Take Japanese language classes.
日本語のクラスを取る

Take cultural classes.
異文化教育のクラスを取る

Speak Japanese.
日本語を話す

Part Five: Opportunities to learn and use Japanese language within the company
In current company practices, the new and current non-Japanese salaried employee:
第5分野：会社内における日本語学習と日本語能力を活用する機会
現時点で、現地（日本人以外の）新入社員と社員は:

Yes-はい      No-いいえ

Has a chance to take Japanese language classes.
日本語のクラスを取る機会がある

Has a chance to take cultural classes.
異文化教育のクラスを取ることができる

Has a chance to speak Japanese.
日本語を話す機会がある

If the answer is yes, do you think these Japanese language classes are helping the company to grow as a global company?
答えが「はい」であれば、日本語のクラスは会社がグローバルな会社としての発展促進の役割を果たしていると思いますか。

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Yes-はい
No-いいえ

If the answer is no, do you think the company should offer Japanese language classes?
答えが「いいえ」であれば、会社は日本語を習得する機会を与えた方がいいと思いますか。
Yes-はい
No-いいえ

Please select all the phrases that you have ever used in your workday conversation.
日本語の会話の中で使ったことがあるもの全てを選んで下さい。
Greetings-挨拶

Talk about personal and every day topics using complete sentences, questions, and answers in Japanese.-日本語の文章を使って個人あるいは日常の話題を話す

Talk about abstract topics using detailed narration and descriptions in Japanese.-日本語で抽象的な話題について詳しく説明と表現をする
Talk about technical industry topics in Japanese.-日本語で工業技術の話題について話す

Use a level of Japanese equivalent to an educated native speaker of Japanese.-教養のある日本人と対等な日本語を使っての会話

Please select everything you have used in your conversation.
日本語の会話の中で使ったもの全てを選んで下さい。
Good morning(ohayoo)-おはよう
Good morning (polite)(ohayoo gozaimasu)-おはようございます
Good afternoon(konnichiwa)-こんにちは
Good evening(konbanwa)-こんばんは
Good-bye(sayonara)-さようなら
Good night(oyasuminasai)-おやすみなさい
Thank you(arigatoo)-ありがとう
Thank you (polite) (arigatoo gozaimasu)-ありがとうございます
Excuse me; I’m sorry(sumimasen)-すみません
How do you do? (hajimemashite)-初めまして
Nice to meet you(doozo yoroshiku)-どうぞ宜しく
See you (let., I’m leaving ahead of you)(osakini shitsurei shimasu)-お先に失礼します
You must be tired after working so hard(otsukaresama deshita)-お疲れ様でした
How are you?(ogenki desuka)-お元気ですか
I’m fine.(hai, genki desu)-はい、元気です

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Now, please identify from these greetings the ones you use on a daily basis.
下記の挨拶の中で毎日のように使う言葉を選んで下さい。

Good morning(ohayoo)-おはよう
Good morning (polite)(ohayoo gozaimasu)-おはようございます
Good afternoon(konnichiwa)-こんにちは
Good evening(konbanwa)-こんばんは
Good-bye(sayonara)-さようなら
Good night(oyasuminasai)-おやすみなさい
Thank you(arigatoo)-ありがとう
Thank you (polite) (arigatoo gozaimasu)-ありがとうございます
Excuse me; I’m sorry(sumimasen)-すみません
How do you do? (hajimemashite)-初めまして
Nice to meet you(doozo yoroshiku)-どうぞ宜しく
See you (let., I’m leaving ahead of you)(osakini shitsurei shimasu)-お先に失礼します
You must be tired after working so hard(otsukaresama deshita)-お疲れ様でした
How are you?(ogenki desuka)-お元気ですか
I’m fine.(hai, genki desu)-はい、元気です
No Answer

Do you think it is possible for non-Japanese salaried employees to learn Japanese?
現地（日本人以外の）社員は日本語を習得することが可能だと思いますか。
Yes-はい
No-いいえ

If the answer is yes, what level of Japanese language do you wish for them to have?
答えが「はい」であれば、あなたが現地（日本人以外の）社員に期待するレベルはどれですか。

Level 1(Have an integrated command of the language sufficient for life in Japanese society.)
レベル1（社会生活をする上で必要な総合的な日本語能力）

Level 2(Be able to converse, read, and write about matters of a general nature.)
レベル2（一般的なことから日常生活の会話、読み書きができる能力）

Level 3(Be able to take part in everyday conversation and to read and write simple sentences.)
レベル3（日常生活に役立つ会話ができ、簡単な文章が読み書きできる能力）

Level 4(Be able to engage in simple conversation and to read and write short, simple sentences.)
レベル4（簡単な会話ができ、平易な文、又は短い文章が読み書きできる能力）

What is your reason for choosing this level?
その理由はなんですか。

167
If the answer is no, what is your reason?
答えが「いいえ」であれば、その理由はなんですか。

What do you feel are the most important skills and attributes of a new non-Japanese salaried employee in your company?
あなたの会社での現地（日本人以外の）新入社員にとって一番大切な能力と特質は何だと思いますか。

Additional Comments (optional):
その他にコメントがあれば、ご記入下さい。

Clicking on the "Next" button below will submit your responses to the survey administrator. Therefore, please review your answers, if needed, before clicking on the "Next" button. "Next"のボタンを押すと自動的に調査機関へ送られますので、今一度ご確認の上、"Next"ボタンを押して下さい。
Appendix F

Phase Tree: Round Two Survey Comments
Round Two

Comments 1 (Language)
The reason I answered "no need" for Japanese competency is that our company has explained English as our global language.
Personally, I think Japanese fluency is very useful, but that is a little different than the "should be able to" questions.
In the US we have not or do not put an importance on learning a different language other than English. Ch. 5

日系企業で現地の自律化を目指す為に、日本人は英語でのコミュニケーションをとろうとしているが、米国側は英語のみである。双方の歩みよが必要と思う。
従業員が挨拶やちょっとした自己紹介ぐらいができると日本人にも親しみがわきやすいと思う。

Competence in Japanese language is not so important unless the non-Japanese member was hired for their language skills. Having basic comprehension, and even limited language ability, is a benefit. Applying those skills in daily conversation is welcomed by the Japanese - it is seen that you are making an effort.

American society is where Japanese to say is important, even if it is not necessarily important to learn Japanese. Ch. 5

Need to know polite introductions and ask simple questions. Very helpful to read katakana.
Should be able to talk in a way that Japanese can understand (English) use this one in ch.5 understanding the culture is more important than proficiency of the language
Can be helpful at times, but basically not needed.

Executive need to speak Japanese to discuss about the thinking, the idea, the strategy...
Because, Japanese English skill is lower than American expectation.
Even though it is not necessary to conduct business, learning the Japanese language shows a courtesy towards the Japanese expatriates because they have already taken the time and trouble to learn English. Learning the language is not the only lesson needed. Since Japanese communication, culture, and education methods are significantly different from American, language is not the only barrier to good communication.

Much time is lost due to incorrect translation.
Could be valuable, but the current business environment and English speaking ability of Japanese staff does not constitute a great need.
The Japanese believe they are the only ones who can truly effectively use the Japanese language so it is somewhat futile to bother to learn the proficiency that would be needed if they were to accept your opinion. Ch. 5

It would be helpful for local associates to be able to communicate somewhat in Japanese.
Perhaps a very small vocabulary would be helpful.
Although high level skills are valuable, only a basic understanding is necessary. The trend is toward Japanese people to communicate in English instead.
It certainly would be a convenience but since our company conducts business in English, it is not a requirement.

Japanese language competency is important in my position as I communicate daily with Company A Japan. This communication is in the form of e-mail, phone calls and periodic video conferences. To work efficiently my method is to write most e-mails in English but I agree to receive replies in Japanese. This allows each side to write in their own native language to save time and clearly express their opinions.

Although it is not important, having the skill is better.

Not necessary to meet the business objectives of a truly global company.

that side-bar conversation in Japanese during discussions of important topics, the more likely that US staff will feel like they are being closed out. There are work-arounds to this but they are not often handled well either.

**Comments 2 (communication)**

A person needs to know the differences between US and Japanese cultures. I do not think that a non-Japanese associate should have to learn the Japanese language.

The best way to learn cross-cultural communication skills is to have a Japanese mentor to review all communication to get the "Japanese" perspective and understanding of the content.

Conversely, the "American" perspective and understanding can be shared of communication from Japan.

文化は異国間では必ず違う。それは、理屈ではないので、その違いを受け入れる姿勢は必要だが、理解は難しいと思う。

Should be able to communicate with pictures and charts

Cross-cultural communication skills in Japanese are as important as verbal skills. That is, verbal skill without cross-cultural communication is nearly worthless.

The most basic skill needed is the ability to make communication easy by using a format that properly summarizing information for the receiver. In the case of cross cultural communication the use of tables or charts to summarize data or information is best. Using simple sentences with bullet points rather than long complicated paragraphs is also preferred.

Everyone needs to improve their skills.

**Comments 3 (culture)**

It is often hard to grasp another country's culture and cross-cultural thinking unless you have lived in an environment where you were immersed in it. More companies should invest in employee exchange programs (1-2 years) for long-term growth benefits.ch.5

We must make a combined culture to be able to make the best company.

Company A should teach this every year.

Should also insure Expat know Am. culture.

Japanese culture has a large impact on the organization and decision making process. Learning to carefully consider the proper direction at each step of a project and presenting ideas in a well organized and thoughtful manner may be one difficult point for local staff. Also, openly
acknowledging problems and the need for improvement (even when applied to oneself) is a sign of strong leadership which may be uncomfortable for many local staff.

**Comments 4 (Business)**
それは、日本人に対しての限ったことではなく、ビジネスの中では、全世界の人々と協調する必要あり。
In spite of the importance of all of the above, it is not possible to break the "rice-paper" barrier to become anything more than a "symbol" of management. Real decisions are made without the non-Japanese involved.

These business skills are very important for my position. The most difficult area involves strategic planning. These type of discussions are complicated and sometimes difficult to begin especially when local staff doesn't understand the key decision making process in Japan or cannot communicate their own ideas effectively.

The typical or normal business styles are in my opinion so different that this transition is painful and often the cause of malcontents. It's neither easy nor fun.

**The most important skills**
Knowing how to approach Japanese members before explaining or negotiating.....
Listening very deeply to Japanese members' English to confirm your understanding before answering them.....
Speaking very slowly and expressively to Japanese members in English.....
Attention to details and can resolve problems in a timely manner. Strive to be the best at what you do.

Japanese business and personal culture
積極的に自分のものにしてやろうという心構え
コミュニケーション能力
Willingness to learn and a respect for other cultures different than theirs.
真面目さと何でも受け入れる感受性
業務を的確にこなすこと
素直さ
人の意見を聞き、前向きに取り組む、縫い代のある仕事をする。
物事に固執し、執着を持って問題を分析し解決する気持ち

Kissing butt
Communication skills and the ability to work within a team structure.
The ability to communicate in writing to Japanese members in a concise and effective presentation through the use of data and facts.
willingness to learn & patience & flexibility
collaboration and patient
Technical competency and good communication skills
Understand culture
Be willing to learn the non-verbal parts of communication, and have patience
Intelligence, Willingness to work long hours, and communication skills
Technical experience as well as liaison to domestic suppliers.
Understand Japanese culture. Speak slowly so they can understand
I assume you mean communication skills. Obviously, I would require many skills depending on
the opening. I think they need to be open to learning a cross-cultural way of thinking and not try
to force the Japanese to do everything their way.
Business skills the person has to be able to do the job they were hired to perform.
patience, test for understanding, to assure proper communication. Detail oriented, good problem
solver. Good communicator.
コミュニケーション
Curiousity for learning and Kaizen mind
To develop oneself.
Open minded, good work ethic, and flexible with change.
knowledge of their field,
patience,
courteous in all situations,
handle stress well
Non-verval communication in a multi-culture environment and ability to understand the impact
doing different cultural styles.
Professional Competence
Flexibility and diversity
Have an open mind and be willing to adapt quickly to change. Realize that the Japanese business
culture and American business culture are not the same.
Challenge mind.
Indipendent out side of the box thinking
Work ethic/Cross-cultural open mindedness
Respect different culture. Understand second language speaker's difficulty
Flexibility and the willingness to conform (open mindedness).
Planning ability and critical thinking skills.
Attribute: be able to work in a strongly structured company.
Patience
Understand Japanese culture/ways
knowing the Japanese cultures and nuances
Basic understanding of the cultural difference.
Ability to understand and tolerate other cultural styles.
Enthusiasm and patience. All communication issues can be overcome if we are dedicated to
working together and feel a common bond. It takes work--effort--and a sense of importance.
Morale for job, communication skill and logical thinking
問題意識
問題解決能力
やる気
To understand the differences in culture and be willing to adapt their thoughts processes and work habits to suit the cross-cultural environment. The Japanese employee will greatly appreciate this willingness and most likely try to improve their own communication ability. It will also foster a stronger work relationship and trust between both sides.
自ら学ぼうとする姿勢を持つ
listening, patience
As regards cross cultural communication the main requirement is curiosity, respect and an open mind.
Patience, patience, patience especially if they have to deal with Japanese staff with limited English skills on a regular basis AND to cope with the decision making style differences. Additionally, a good sense of humor, very good English skills of your own and a strong work ethic are also necessary. The Japanese learn the internals of the English language better than we do . . . they know sentence structure, various grammar rules, etc. better than us. Hell, most new grads can't spell because of too much "spell check".

Comments 5 (Opportunities)
None

Additional comments
The willingness of responders to be completely honest is suspect when their salary is dependent on the company being interviewed and/or they are "token" management.
Thanks and God Bless you all!!!
My views developed after 16 years of working at a Japanese company and living in Japan. For most local staff without this kind of experience it is difficult to understand the importance of cross-cultural communication. This area is the biggest challenge for any education program because it requires a lot of effort and commitment from both Japanese and non-Japanese employees.
What are you planning to do with the results of this survey. I may have read the answer previously but if so, I don't recall nor know how to find it again.
Appendix G

Pair-wise comparison (Table 10)
### Table 10 Pair wise comparisons

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Appendix H

Pair-wise comparison (Table 12)
Table 12 American pairwise comparisons

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Appendix I

Pair-wise comparison (Table 14)
Table 14 Japanese pairwise comparison

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VITA

Asami Segi received her Ph. D. in Education with a concentration in English, Foreign Language, and ESL from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, December 2008. She earned a Master of Science degree in Foreign Language/ESL Education from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in May 1999, and a Bachelor of Arts degree in English and Mass Communication from Tennessee Wesleyan College in 1993. (She received a full academic scholarship to study at Tennessee Wesleyan College.) Being outside of her home country, Japan, for the first time in her life was incredibly exciting and an excellent learning period of her life. This is the experience that she truly treasures, and she likewise highly encourages her students to enroll in exchange programs.

Whereby her most recent research interest is in the field is linguistic and cultural competence in the global business arena, over the years, Asami has focused on the pedagogy necessary to effectively teach languages and on the importance of being an enthusiastic language teacher---something she learned and espouses in her current classrooms.

For the past decade, Dr. Segi has been teaching Japanese in both the post secondary and business arenas. She taught Japanese language as a Graduate Teaching Assistant at The University of Tennessee, August 1997 through May 2008 and was then hired as a Lecturer in August 2008, based on the strength of her classroom work. She has taught Japanese language as an adjunct instructor at Maryville College since August 2007. These academic experiences have given her the opportunity to practice the pedagogy she studied in her master’s program. In the business arena, she has taught Japanese to English-speaking employees at Denso Manufacturing Tennessee, Inc., since April 1995 and at Toyota Tsusho America, Inc., since August 2005. The 1 to 3 years and helping enhance local employees’ direct communication with headquarters in
Japan. Her unique experiences of teaching Japanese in both academic and business fields have developed her pedagogical approach to one that includes active communicative interaction and creative language practice promoting cultural understanding.

Asami Segi has also taught elementary students and special education at the Blount County Japanese School from 1996-2001. She had previously learned a teacher’s license in Japan; therefore, it was a great experience for her to practice what she had learned in Japan. She has also taught Japanese at the Foreign Language Academy (a private language institute) and at Pellissippi State Technical Community College in Knoxville from 1996-1998. These teaching experiences were a valuable foundation of her career. While studying at Tennessee Wesleyan College, she started teaching at the Tennessee Meiji Gakuin Culture Center where she continued to work after her graduation, teaching Japanese language, culture and art. This experience was a very precious one and inspired her to pursue higher degrees in world language education. In other words, in her career, she has always sought for a bridge between the two countries of Japan and the U.S. This is still her ambition: to be a good world ambassador herself and to help educate others to be good ambassadors as well in an increasingly globalized world.