

STUDY OF JAPANESE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

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B. Development of an Education Programme for Management

1. *Recent Developments in Managerial Education.*

It should be noted that managerial education was introduced early in the first half of the 1950's in large firms as MTP and TWI methods were introduced from the United States. In the first half of the 1960's, management education spread to the smaller firms as well. Some idea of the objectives currently being sought in management education is given in Table IV. 11.

Seen over time, the concern with communications and human relations has gradually declined as attention has been shifted to problem-forming and problem-solving. However, leadership training is still deemed as the most important objective. The methods used in training managers is also shown in Table IV. 11. Formal or systematic approaches such as rotation or on-the-job training are not yet fully utilized in Japanese firms. However, off-the-job training and the practice of sending managers to seminars is rather common. Reflecting the relatively lower costs involved, these are the most frequently used methods of manager education. Although rather new, the self-development approach is the fourth most popular method. This approach is not standardized, and usually depends upon the individual's initiative.

As the most popular approach to management education, off-the-job training will be examined in a little more detail. It is clear that scheduled training such as MTP or CCS have declined in popularity. Imported methods such as Business Games, Sensitivity Training, Programmed Study and Leadership Grid-Style Seminars had once been popular,

TABLE IV. 11. THE OBJECTIVES AND METHODS
OF MANAGEMENT EDUCATION: 1974

Area of Concern	Percent*	Method of Education or Training	Percent**
Leadership	80.9	Off-the-Job Training	78.8
Management Perspective	64.9	Seminar within the Firm	68.1
Problem-forming and		Seminars outside the Firm	66.4
Problem-solving	57.4	Self-Development	49.6
Communications and Human		Correspondence Courses	30.1
Relations	57.2	On-the-Job Training	28.1
Decision Making	51.3	Rotation and Transfer	16.8
Work knowledge and Skills	27.8	Study at Overseas Institute	16.8
Industrial Relations	27.5	Number of Firms	437
Number of Firms	437		

* Percentage of firms for which there is a real concern in the programme for management education.

** Percentage of firms using the method.

Source: Japan Recruit Center, Kanri Kantoku Sha Kyōiku Kunren no Jittai (A Survey of the Education and Training of Managers and Supervisors), *Monthly Recruit* (Tokyo: JRC) (Vol. 74: January, 1974).

but their use too has since decreased. Newly imported methods such as Family Training and Leadership Development Programmes have just been introduced, and they too will likely experience brief popularity. Although each of these programmes makes its impact, most Japanese firms have over the years worked out their own programmes. Most of those programmes are centered around group discussion, which suits quite well the group orientation being promoted by the Japanese firms. Kawakita Jiro is a cultural anthropologist who often visits unknown area where the group members visit the residents and collect information. He developed a special method to arrange the information through discussion so as to grasp quickly its meaning and inter-relatedness. This method is called the KJ method. It is quite suitable for management education because it requires participants to explore new kinds of managerial roles in an unknown environment and has become widely used.

Looking at the major difficulties which prevent off-the-job management education from progressing further, one must first cite the fact that managers are very busy and often do not have sufficient time for such education. Moreover, there is also a keen shortage of staff members who are definitely prepared to conduct such educational programmes. Finally, there are difficulty of measuring the effects of education. Concerning the measurement of the effects, the following methods are widely used. First is the report of the trainees who record their impressions about the programme. Second, trainees are often asked to submit a short essay on the role of education. Such papers are then examined. Third, trainees are asked to give their opinions on a gathering of trainees held at the firm.

2. Examples of Managers Education.

As long as the emphasis in management education is on giving managerial candidates the most comprehensive view possible of their firm's activities, no simple training with one or two nights in a lodging will achieve the objectives. There are two approaches to management education currently enjoying widespread use in Japan. One relies on off-the-job training to develop competent managers over the long run. The other attempts to integrate off-the-job training and on-the-job training. Some examples will be given below.

a. *Off-the-Job Training for Managers.* The most representative approach to management education is off-the-job training. Such courses are frequently used for new middle management personnel after promotion. As shown by the example in Chart IV. 1, courses usually extended over several days, with the trainees all staying in a central training institute run by the firm. The central objective in most courses is the development of problem-solving capabilities. In recent years, lectures have been cut as much as possible, with drills and discussion being increased. This shift in emphasis reflects the effort of the firm to better integrate managers scattered around in various plants and offices. The aim is to promote discussion among managers working in different divisions at different place, thereby deepening their mutual understanding of the complexities of big business.

The curriculum emphasizes the need for each manager to present his views with the guidance of competent senior managers. The participants have to prepare reports in advance and read them to others, after which their presentations are evaluated by the other members.

Courses for the upper grades of middle management are in most firms the highest programmed course. At the higher levels individual presentations of reports and group activities are emphasized. Lectures on general topics increase, and discussions with top management are emphasized. The time schedule for all such courses is quite rigorous, often continuing from eight-thirty in the morning until nine or ten in the evening.

b. *Paid Educational Leave.* Recently a new approach to educating managers has appeared. Though only a few firms are currently using it, the number seems to be growing rapidly. This is the paid educational leave for managers. One example can be found at Morinaga where a paid educational leave of up to six months was introduced for department heads in early 1974. After returning, managers are expected to submit a report to the head of personnel division on how they spent their leave. Another is the programme of the TDK Electronics Company. It is designed for all managers including division heads and department heads as well as professionals and specialists. One-third of all managers and specialists are annually given the one month leave by turns. Managers are allowed to do anything they desire, and top management has encouraged them to do something totally unrelated to their work. Incidental expenses are born by the individual, but all travel inside the country and half the travel abroad are paid by the firm. One person entered a hospital for a complete health check; another person attended an English school in the United Kingdom; a third person practiced "Zen" in a temple. All submitted reports to the personnel division on how they spent their leave.

The same company also implemented an overseas study programme in 1973. While the overseas study plan has also been introduced in many other firms, the plan at TDK is more complete than the others. Managers, specialists and managerial candidates in their 'thirties qualify for the plan. Under the plan, TDK has taken pains to send all applicants abroad. It is hoped that within a period of three years all initial applicants will have been able to participate.

c. *Combinations of Off- and On-The-Job Training.* An integrated programme of off-the-job training and on-the-job training has been used in many firms since ability development has been systematically introduced. Two such programmes will be summarized briefly below. One programme for management education calls for off-the-job training which is then enforced with training in the company. In 1973 the newly appointed director in

charge of personnel management at Daihatsu Automobile Manufacturing Company found that one of the most serious problems in the company was organizational slack and poorly designed personnel practices. Because of serious business difficulties and the need to have all employees on the job, he sought to promote a kind of change which would not upset the present routine of the firm. After elevating the education department to a division, he set up three off-the-job training courses for newly appointed deputy division heads, department heads, and section chiefs. All three courses were composed of four two-day sessions with the night being spent together. Each session followed a rather tight schedule. Time and expenses for training were thus minimized.

The curriculum was carefully designed by the leaders, a managing director and a university professor. Each participant was required to submit a report in advance, giving his impressions about the assigned textbooks. These sheets were collected by the education division and were distributed before the group discussion began on the first subject. The leaders listed several problems for the first discussion which was related to the firm. After each six-man group completed its first discussion, it submitted a report to the leaders. With coordination of the leaders, the participants were to work out solutions based on the first discussion. The textbooks used in each session were different, each package being chosen for theoretical and practical content. On the next day the outcome of each group discussion on the second subject was presented, and then discussed at the plenary session.

Progress made in the courses was fully relayed to the managing director of the firm's executive committee. After completing all the courses, the newly appointed managers tried to implement the recommendations coming out of the course. They then gathered again after six months of experimenting and exchanged opinions before drawing up their final concrete recommendations for the organization. The new managerial recommendations were presented to the executive committee which decided to gradually work them into the firm's new long-range development plan.

d. *Integration of On-the-Job Training and Off-the-Job Training.* In contrast to the preceding approaches, Toshiba might be cited as a firm trying to connect off-the-job training with on-the-job training. Focusing on the shop-level, department heads distribute questionnaires concerning the problems in the department to those under his management. The department head and section chiefs gather with the staff of the education division, and together analyse the answers using a specially designed shop check list. After going over the map, the department heads establish shop development targets. Every section chief takes these back his own section for further discussion. Three representative from each section then join in on a departmental meeting at which the department head and section chiefs are also present. Through these two-step-meetings, the most important topics are discussed and effectively related. After all the members have received a systematic training in problem-solving from the firm's educational division, each department head and his section chiefs gather for a final problem-solving session, spending two days and one night together. The session formulates proposals for improving current activities related to meeting the shop's overall development objectives. The department heads returned to their job implement the proposals. The Toshiba's experiment with this programme has become well known, and a regular course for bringing up shop leaders in a similar fashion is now being conducted by a management consulting company on a commercial basis.

V. *Support and Assistance from Government and Private Organizations for Management Development*

A. Government Support For Management Development in Japanese Firms

1. *The Background.*

Since 1948 the Liberal Democratic Party has been in power. Many Party members have been high officials in the government bureaucracy, top management in private firms, leaders of private business organizations such as the agricultural cooperatives, associations for small and medium sized firms, doctors and landlords. The two main political factions exist within the Party. The "city caucus" is close to the Ministry of Finance and MITI, with big business being well represented. The "farmers caucus" is close to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and represents the landlords. While these two groups have struggled for the leadership of the Party, they have both consistently sought to promote the rapid economic growth which has been a major priority for the Liberal Democratic Party since 1948. One corollary has thus been the priority given to the expansion of business activities in the private sector, meaning economic assistance for private firms.

A good example of how this arrangement works can be seen in 1961. To implement the ten-year "Income Doubling Plan," the Economic Advisory Council to the Prime Minister established a detailed programme in various industrial sectors beginning in 1961. In 1962, the Council took up the problem of human resources and recommended that a manpower policy be established. This was the first time that manpower policy had been discussed at the national level. While the plan was integrated into the Income Doubling Plan, it was soon clear that the policy was highly economic, with manpower being regarded only as an economic resource. The main focus of the policy was to increase the number of young technicians by increasing the number of public occupational training institutes, junior technical colleges, and departments of technology at the universities.

It may thus be concluded that the basic aim of the government was an increase in supply of technically trained people for the private sector. While this increase contributed greatly to improved management techniques, it did not contribute directly to the development of top managerial types. Nevertheless, despite the government's emphasis on the development of techniques, a few examples of direct administrative assistance in management development in the private sector will be given in the next two subsections.

2. *The Ministry of International Trade and Industry.*

MITI has been one of the major government offices contributing to improved management in Japanese firms. As noted above, MITI played a major role in introducing new managerial methods into Japan. However, since 1955 it has been concerned with more specific areas. Besides promoting policies to improve Japan's technical manpower, the ministry has worked to compel management development in smaller firms through its Smaller Enterprise Agency. As early as 1952 MITI established a system for licensing consultants for small enterprises. The qualification standards were set up for industrial and commercial sectors. The qualification examination has been conducted annually under the administration of the Smaller Enterprise Agency since then. Many of the consultants got jobs in local

government offices, chambers of commerce, industrial associations, and various other business organizations. They have made significant contributions to improve management in small and medium-sized firms. In many cases, consultants have even become managers of such firms. As the number of licensed consultants increase, MITI established the Small Enterprise Promotion Foundation. Financed by the government, it was to integrate all firms of assistance provided to small firms by MITI. In 1974 MITI proposed that the government establish a Small Enterprise Academy where all the licensed and non-licensed consultants—such as small enterprise consultants, book-keeping consultants and licensed tax accountants—could be trained.

MITI also gives indirect assistances to the Japan Productivity Center. When the Center was formed, MITI complemented the assistance of the U.S. Government in making additional financial outlays and lending staff assistance to the Center. Although the assistance of MITI decreased as the Center grew, various forms of indirect control are still exerted. The Japan Productivity Center has contributed remarkably to the development of managerial skills in Japan. The activities of the JPC can roughly be divided into three categories: (1) management development, (2) the improvement of industrial relations and (3) international liaison. As for the improvement of industrial relations, the Labour Academy and the Labour-Management Productivity Conference were also organized and have greatly assisted management in this field. The movement to increase productivity in the late 'fifties and throughout the 'sixties owes much to the efforts of these bodies.

Although it has not attracted much attention, the Management Development Academy has also played a major role in management development. The Academy currently has nine courses including its Decision Making Course, the Competency Development Course and the Personnel Management Course. Each course is composed of a one-year curriculum including two sessions where trainees "live-in." The trainees are mostly managers except for the Top-Management Course in which new directors at the large firms are enrolled. Forty students participate annually in each course, and these courses are currently ranked as graduate courses in management development.

MITI has also worked in other ways to improve Japanese management. Since 1955 MITI has received a number of managerial candidates in large firms for training. They were assigned to administrative projects, and while they were working, they were taught what MITI thinks and how the MITI administration works. They have also played a liaison role in coordinating the policy in their firms with that of MITI. Finally, another contribution of MITI has been the supply of retired high-ranking officials to private firms. While the Ministry of Finance has supplied such officials to the private banks, MITI's supply has been channelled to the large industrial firms. Almost all of the major private firms have one or two former high-ranking officials from MITI among their top management. They are expected to serve as liaison officers with the government bureaucracy.

3. *The Ministry of Labour.*

The Ministry of Labour has also made great contributions to the manpower policy of the government in developing human resources. In 1958 the Occupational Training Act was enacted and the Employment Promotion Public Foundation was established to enforce the Act through the Public Vocational Training Institutes at various industrial areas scattered throughout the country. In 1959 the Ministry of Labour set up the Trade Skills Test which was incorporated in the Occupational Training Act, and the annual Skills Contest

was begun by the Ministry in 1962.

The Ministry of Labour launched its management development programme for small firms in 1957 when it announced its guideline for personnel management in small firms. Its main activities were transferred to the Japan Institute of Labour when it was established by law in 1958. Through the Institute the Ministry of Labour has worked to improve managerial practices in the small firms in the area of personnel management and industrial relations. However, MITI and the Ministry of Labour has not been able to coordinate their programmes. As a result some overlapping and friction has resulted.

B. Management Federations and the Universities

1. *The Role of Management Federations in Management Development.*

There are various kinds of management federations in Japan. First are the national federations or management organizations. The Federation of Economic Organizations (Keidanren) is perhaps the most representative. The Japan Federation of Employer's Associations (Nikkeiren) is organized for dealing with personnel management and industrial relations. The Industrial Club of Japan (Nihon Kōgyō Club) is an exclusive organization of presidents from the large businesses. The Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry (Shōkō Kaigisho) is a management organization for smaller firms, and has played an important role in developing managerial skills at the local level. The Japan Federation of Smaller Enterprises (Chūshō Kigyō Dantai Renmei) is yet another organization for medium-sized and smaller firms. Finally, mention should be made of the Japan Committee for Economic Development (Keizai Dōyūkai). It is an organization similar to Keidanren, and it claims to be a voice for the more progressive elements in Japanese big business.

A second category of associations is the huge number of industrial associations such as the Trust Companies Association, the Japan Federation of Bankers' Associations, the Japan Association of Electric Machine Manufacturers Industries, the Japan Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers, and the Petroleum Association of Japan. Small-scale firms also have their local cooperatives such as the Tokyo Knitting Goods Cooperative and the Tokyo Retail Stationer's Cooperative. A third classification includes the international trade organizations such as the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO), the Japan Foreign Trade Council, and the Association for the Promotion of International Trade.

It should be noted that the majority of these management or industrial federations have established some management development programme. Even local organization of these federations have established one or two regular management development courses. For example, the Niigata Employers' Association completed its 195th management course at the end of 1973. The first one had been conducted in 1950. The Ibaragi Employers' Association has held a regular management development seminar since 1960 and established another course for managers in 1969. Many of those management development programmes are designed to help managers of small firms in the outlying areas.

2. *Federations' Management Development Activities.*

The federations of Keidanren and Keizai Dōyūkai represent the interests of those planning for industrial development at both the national and local level. The Central Area Federation of Economic Organizations (Chūkeiren), which is organized by the firms in the central part of Japan's mainland, has eight special committees to deal with finance, trade,

industry, environment, local development, transportation, labour problems and economic affairs. Each committee gathers monthly to discuss and examine a particular subject which is chosen as the annual theme. Outside experts are often invited to lecture on the subject. At the end of the year, each committee brings its recommendations to the general assembly of the organization, thereby forming the policy positions of the organization. Since the committee members are restricted to top management in the area, the committee activity also serves the function of developing top management. Therefore, the activities of these two organizations are of considerable importance in shaping top management.

Japan Federation of Employers' Associations (Nikkeiren) is organized around local employers' associations and industrial associations. At its annual general assembly the executive committee is elected. It is the central body representing employers in their dealings with the government concerning problems and personnel management. Policy proposals are made by the various special committees of the Federation. Each committee is composed of senior managers and is headed by the president of a large firm. The activities of the committees parallel those of the local federations such as the Central Federation of Economic Organizations. Managerial candidates are often asked to participate in the Federation's activities, and serve as secretaries for the various committees.

The Federation also conducts many training courses for employers at member firms. The three-day Nikkeiren Top Seminar is the best known among these. Along with the Top Seminar at the JPC, it is deemed the best brain-refresher seminar for top management in Japan. Table V. 1. lists Nikkeiren's seminars and courses designed especially for managers. The Human Resource Development Center was founded by Nikkeiren in 1967, and it has been mainly used for conducting courses and seminars in management development. In 1973, the Center received around twenty-eight thousand trainees in its educational programmes.

TABLE V. 1. COURSES AND SEMINARS OFFERED
BY NIKKEIREN: IN 1973 FISCAL YEAR

Course and Seminar	Period	Place
Study Course for Managers in Charge of Pollution	6/12-6/13, 7/10-7/11, 8/7-8/8	Human Resource Development Center of Nikkeiren (HRDC)
14th Study Course for Staff Members at Local Employer's Associations	7/23-7/24, 8/3-8/4, 8/10-3/11	HRDC
16th Education Course for Senior Managers	8/12-8/17	HRDC
Special Seminar on Wage Administration	8/22-8/25	HRDC
Study Seminar on Work Rules	8/27-8/29	HRDC
Study Seminar on Industrial Relations for Managers at Non-Unionized Firms	8/29-8/31	HRDC
16th Personnel Management Course	1/23-2/23, 1974	Industrial Club of Japan
Meetings for Educational Staff at Local Employers' Associations	1/24-1/26, 1974	HRDC
7th Seminar on the Stabilization of Industrial Relations	2/7-2/9, 2/21-2/23, 1974	HRDC

Source: Nikkeiren Business Report. 1973.

Local organizations of the Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry have been enthusiastically promoting management development programmes since 1961. Both the Tokyo and Osaka Chambers of Commerce and Industry established management schools in 1961 and top management academies in 1963. The Management School of the Tokyo Chamber, for example, completed its fortieth Management Course in 1974. The curriculum included nineteen subjects with twenty two-hours lectures each. The Top Management Academy of the Osaka Chamber offers a seven-day course including seventeen lectures, some movies and several discussions. The curriculum of Management Schools are specially designed so that managers at the smaller firms can learn the basic principles of management and fully understand important developments in the world of business.

3. *The Contribution of the Universities.*

In 1959 Keizai Dōyukai proposed that industry and the universities be better coordinated in order to promote economic development. It was the first time in postwar Japan that the cooperation of the university was officially requested by the business community. However, Japanese universities, especially the first-class ranked universities have been very cool to the proposal because the universities have tried to remain neutral from any outside influence. Many still remember the prewar tragedy when they lost their autonomy. Therefore, few universities have made an effort to cooperate openly with management.

The Keio Business School is one notable exception. In 1955 the Japan Industrial Training Association introduced a course from the Business School of Harvard University for the first time in Japan, inviting a professor from that school to teach in Japan. In 1956, Keio University founded its own Keio Business School with the direct assistance of the Harvard Business School. The Japan Industrial Training Association cooperated with the School. The Keio Business School has become familiar to managers in Japanese firms, and recognized as being a good course for management development.

The Industrial Efficiency Junior College (Sangyō Nōritsu Tandai) is another example. The founder, Ueno Yōichi, was a famous advocate of Taylor's Scientific Management in the early 1910's. After the war, he established this junior college for bringing up rational managers. The curriculum now includes management, computerization, production efficiency, office efficiency, and sales efficiency. The number of day time students annually enrolled is 630. Many managers register for night schools.

Generally speaking, nevertheless, although the departments of technology and natural sciences at many universities are closely connected with private firms, there has been little coordination between industry and the university as far as management development is concerned.

C. The Development of Private Educational Institutions

1. *Correspondence Courses For Management Development.*

Many private educational institutions have appeared since 1958 when the Japan Management School opened its correspondence management course with the approval of the Ministry of Education. The success of the Japan Management School has been followed by the mushrooming of various private educational institutions. First are the institutions which specialize in holding rather spontaneous seminars on location. Some estimate that there were as many as 3500 such institutions in 1972. A second type of institution is that with

a well-scheduled lecture-discussion course. These courses usually continue for from three months to one year. The Nihon Management School (Nihon Keiei Gakuin) is the most representative example. Finally, there is a third group of institutions whose business is to conduct both lecture-discussion courses and correspondence courses. Most institutions belonging to this classification are incorporated associations. Their one or two correspondence courses are officially approved by MITI, the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Labour. Correspondence courses and seminars are often combined together for a management development programme.

The Japan Management School (JMS) was organized in 1958 to give extension courses for *Dōyūkai*. The board of directors is composed directors from the national management federations, including twenty-six presidents from large firms. Since the installment of the Middle Management Course in 1958, the JMS has offered as many as twelve correspondence courses. The current number of courses is ten. The uniqueness of the JMS courses lie in their comprehensiveness. After the students read a text-book, they must write a paper in response to the problems sent by the JMS under separate cover. The JMS sends a guide-book for those exercises. The papers are reviewed and corrected by a number of tutors working with the JMS, and are then returned to the students. The JMS currently employs one hundred tutors. Moreover, the JMS conducts a three-day training programme in various parts of the country. Authors of the textbook give lectures to the participants, and a couple of case studies are introduced by the tutors. The most important courses include the Middle Management Course (MMC) for department heads, the Pre-Management Course (PMC) for section chiefs, the Basic Management Course (BMC) for managerial candidates and the Foreman Course (FC) for foremen and supervisors. The MMC, the PMC and the FC are one-year courses. The BMC, the Managerial Mathematic Course and the Problem-solving Training Course are six-month courses.

There are many other correspondence courses for management development. The better known courses include the Top Management Course (six months) and the New Managers Course (six months) of the Japan Management Association, the Managers Correspondence Course (ten months) at the Japan Consultant Association, the Manager's Course (one year) and the Management Leader Course (one year) of the Management Correspondence School. The Japan Productivity Center and the Japan Institute of Labour also offer correspondence courses.

2. *The Evaluation of Seminars and Correspondence Courses.*

So many seminars and educational institutes have appeared since 1955 that any comprehensive catalogue of all the different programmes would be the size of telephone directory. According to one survey by the Industrial Labour Research Institute (Sangyō Rōdō Chōsa Sho) in 1972, top management, managers and technical specialist were asked to evaluate these seminars. Although only eleven percent of the firms had their own educational programme for top management, personnel at eight percent of the firms attended outside seminars. Sixty-three percent of the firms attended outside seminars. Sixty-three percent of the firms surveyed conducted ordinary manager education, and forty-six percent of all expenditures for manager education were spent for outside courses or seminars. The survey also shows that the expenses of participating in outside seminars or courses, including transportation and lodging, are paid wholly by the firm. In other words, time spent for outside education is often classified as paid educational leave. Seventy-nine percent of the surveyed

firms replied that the objective in attending these courses was completely educational, with no direct return expected. However, seventy percent require that employees sent to outside seminars write up a report, and twenty-three percent require an oral presentation to a seminar manager and the personnel department.

Another survey concerning outside seminars by the Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry in 1962 showed that seventy-one percent of the surveyed firms considered outside seminars and courses useful. It is interesting that while eighty-four percent of the large firms employing more than 3000 persons and the same percent of the small firms employing less than 100 persons felt them useful, only sixty percent of the medium-sized firms felt so. The courses and seminars conducted outside of the firm have largely been designed for either the large firm or the small firm. Very few courses are tailored for managers in the medium-sized firms.

As for correspondence courses, there are few surveys on their reception. However, the Japan Management School has periodically conducted a comprehensive survey to evaluate its own correspondence courses. Surveying both the participants and the educational departments of firms which sent the students, it was found in the early 'sixties that long-term courses were highly evaluated by management because they helped participants to acquire the general theory and principles of management in as comprehensive a fashion as possible. However, since the latter part of the 1960's, the needs of management have changed remarkably. They now require rather short courses on general management theory and annual refresher courses on changes in the Japanese economic and social environment. Therefore, the JMS has recently been shortening its courses. Its one-year course has also been cut in half. While many other private institutes have sought to change their curriculum in keeping with the JMS, the high cost of annually publishing new textbooks is considerable for many of the smaller management training organizations, and may in the end be an insurmountable difficulty.

D. Concluding Remarks

In concluding this brief survey, several general comments on the management development in Japan are in line. First, there is something Japanese in the theory and practice of management development in Japan. This reflects the need to work within the Japanese approach to organization and management. There are thus certain common elements which can be found in firms in all industries. Although typically Japanese practices have been criticized, and a systematic introduction of Western practices proposed, fundamental changes will not likely occur in the near future. Many experts have frequently contended that the wants and attitude of the younger Japanese have become more Western, but many surveys and much research provide a solid base for denying that position.

Second, there is a need for better coordination of programmes for management development offered by various organizations. This need will no doubt become more evident as the concept of life-long education for each person in industrial society comes to be accepted. However, a look at what has already occurred in Japanese society and what is actually going on in management development suggests that the proposals are not promising. Private firms continue to compete vigorously with each other, and one part of this competition is the organization of distinctive management training programmes which will emphasize among

other things the personality of each institution. The company-oriented personality which management seeks to foster has been particularly ingrained in those who become management. It is said that management will take the toughest stand on defending the enterprise against the grievances of nearby residents who have suffered from pollution caused by the firm. Moreover, since middle management has generally been more stubborn than top management and even more committed to the enterprise ideal, it will not be easy to integrate these company-oriented managers into a coordinated programme for management development which might stress societal goals. It may be concluded that this propensity reflects both the weaknesses and the strengths of the Japanese managerial system.

(End)