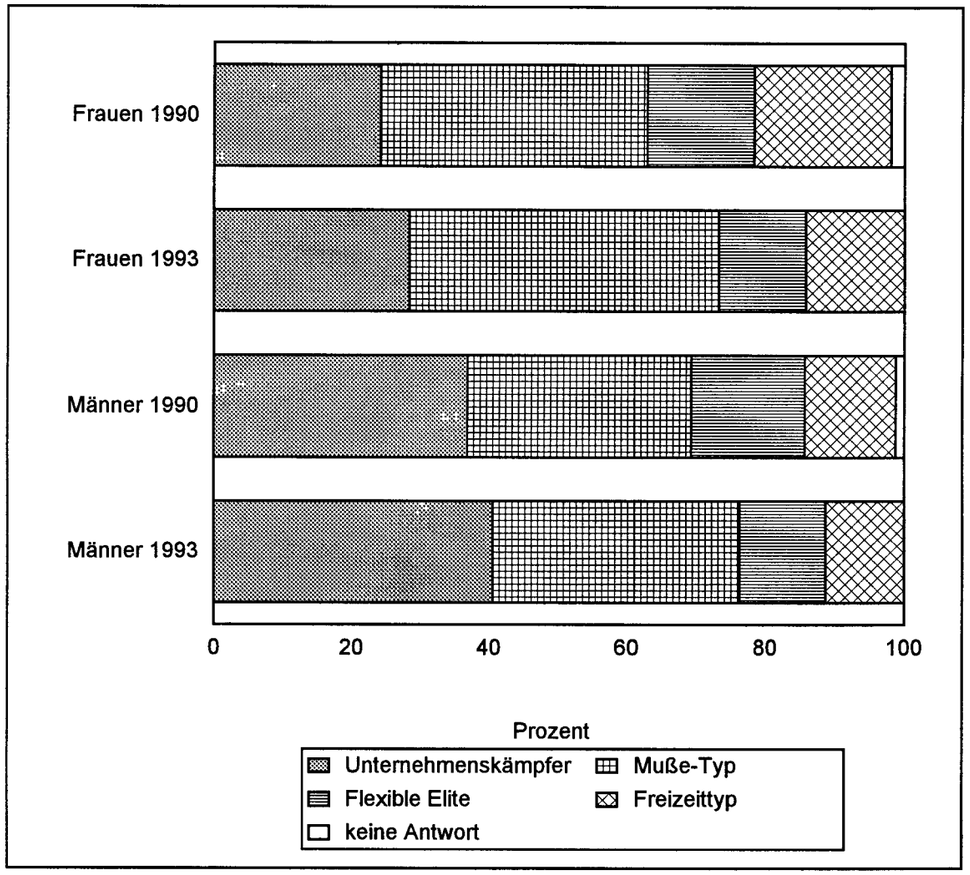
Die beiden anderen Typen sind eher einem Unternehmenswechsel zugeneigt. Hier ist der "Typ der flexiblen Elite"[28] (Typ C) ein tüchtiger Businessman, der die Arbeit wechselt, um Karriere zu machen, während der Typ "Lebensgenießer" Freizeit und Muße wichtiger als die Arbeit nimmt und nicht an einem bestimmten Unternehmen hängt. (Als Ergebnis läßt sich feststellen, daß die Zahl der Typen A und B ansteigt, während die der Typen C und D sinkt. Hieraus wird die Tendenz, daß die Mitarbeiter eine längere Unternehmenszugehörigkeit anstreben, erkennbar, was jedoch konjunkturell bedingt ist; Anm. K.T.).

Abb. 5.30.2: Prozentuale Anteile der verschiedenen Typen



Außerdem sind bei den Männern die Typen A mit 40,6 Prozent und B mit 35,7 Prozent in etwa gleich stark vertreten. Auch die Personen, die antworten, sie wollten "in einem einzigen Unternehmen angestellt sein" lassen sich in die zwei Gruppen, nämlich "den Typen, der die Arbeit wichtig nimmt", und den, "der die innere Gelassenheit" schätzt, einteilen.

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28 Wörtlich: rollende Elite.

Kapitel 6

Karrierestrukturen und Personalmangement in japanischen Unternehmen

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6.1 Entstehung vielfältiger Laufbahnen in japanischen Unternehmen[1]

Rôdôshô (Arbeitsministerium) (Hg.): Fukusengata jinji seidoka ni okeru chingin seido ni kansuru chôsa kekka (Untersuchungsergebnisse: Lohnsystem innerhalb des mehrgleisigen Personalsystems). In: Chingin to shakai hoshô, 1991, Nr. 1063, S. 30-36

Themen: Laufbahnen • Hauptgründe für die Einführung eines mehrgleisigen Laufbahnsystems • Zeitpunkt der Entscheidung • Unterschiede der Laufbahnen

In der vom Arbeitsministerium durchgeführten Erhebung wurde untersucht, inwieweit mittlerweile verschiedene Laufbahnmöglichkeiten in den Unternehmen eingeführt wurden.

In den letzten Jahren wurde von den Unternehmen, zusätzlich zu den normalen Blue- und White-collar-Laufbahnen, eine Differenzierung bzw. Ergänzung oder Umbenennung der **Laufbahnen** vorgenommen, die man üblicherweise als *sôgôshoku* (Laufbahn für qualifizierte Arbeitskräfte in kaufmännisch-administrativen Funktionen), *ippanshoku* (einfache Laufbahn für Arbeitskräfte im Bürobereich), *kanrishoku* (Managementlaufbahn), *senmonshoku* (Spezialistenlaufbahn) usw. bezeichnet. Die Gründe hierfür liegen auf der einen Seite in der Einführung des Chancengleichheitsgesetzes und andererseits in der gestiegenen Anzahl von Universitätsabsolventen, die nicht mehr - wie früher - alle die Möglichkeit haben, in höchste Managementpositionen aufzusteigen.

34,7 Prozent der 536 befragten Unternehmen antworteten, daß sie ein derartiges System bereits eingeführt haben. Die Quote unterscheidet sich jedoch stark nach Unternehmensgröße und Branche. So haben 45,1 Prozent der Unternehmen mit mehr als 3.000 Mitarbeitern mehrere Laufbahnen, während dies in nur 23,8 Prozent der Unternehmen mit weniger als 1.000 Mitarbeitern der Fall ist. In der herstellenden Industrie ist ein mehrgleisiges Laufbahnsystem weniger häufig vorhanden als im Groß- und Einzelhandel und Gaststättengewerbe. In 55,9 Prozent der Unternehmen wurde die Vielfalt der Laufbahnmöglichkeiten innerhalb der letzten fünf Jahre eingerichtet.

Die Hauptkriterien, nach denen die verschiedenen Laufbahnen eingerichtet wurden, sind nach dieser Untersuchung a) Tätigkeitsbereich (Bürotätigkeit, Verkauf, Produktion, Spezialistentätigkeiten, Service usw.), b) Spezialistenkenntnisse, c) ob es sich um administrative Tätigkeiten handelt oder nicht, d) regionale Versetzbarkeit und e) zukünftige Ausbildungsziele, Erwartungen an die Mitarbeiter (Kandidat für Managementpositionen usw.).

---

1 Zusammenfassung von K. Teicher.

Tab. 6.1.1: Vorhandensein eines mehrgleisigen Laufbahnsystems (in Prozent)

	Summe in % (Zahl der Unternehmen)	mehrgleisiges System vorhanden	kein mehrgleisiges System vorhanden
Summe	100,0 (536)	34,7	65,3
mehr als 3.000 MA	100,0 (133)	45,1	54,9
1.000 bis 2.999 MA	100,0 (231)	36,8	63,2
unter 1.000 MA	100,0 (172)	23,8	76,2
herstellende Industrie	100,0 (276)	34,4	65,6
Groß- und Einzelhandel, Gaststättengewerbe	100,0 (106)	40,6	59,4
Sonstige Branchen	100,0 (154)	31,2	68,8

MA = Mitarbeiter

Die drei **Hauptgründe für die Einführung eines mehrgleisigen Laufbahnsystems** waren Personalentwicklung (73,1% aller befragten Unternehmen), Beleben der Organisation (50,5%) und Ergreifen von Maßnahmen gegen veränderte rechtliche Rahmenbedingungen, wie beispielsweise das Chancengleichheitsgesetz von 1985 (41,9%). Andere Faktoren wie "Maßnahme für die veränderte Lebenseinstellung der Angestellten" und "bessere Verwendung für weibliche Mitarbeiter" wurden noch von gut einem Drittel der Unternehmen genannt. Die Werte differieren jedoch nach Branche (vgl. Tab. 6.1.2).

Zeitpunkt der Entscheidung: Der Zeitpunkt, zu dem sich die Mitarbeiter für eine Laufbahn entscheiden müssen, unterscheidet sich natürlich nach dem Niveau der Laufbahnen. So müssen sich die Mitarbeiter der *Ippanshoku*-Laufbahn in 94,1 Prozent der Fälle bereits zum Unternehmenseintritt für diese Laufbahn entscheiden[2]. Auch die Zuteilung bzw. Entscheidung zur *Sôgôshoku*-Laufbahn, der meist männliche Universitätsabsolventen angehören, wird mit dem Zeitpunkt des Unternehmenseintritts gefällt. Demgegenüber fallen Entscheidungen für die Management- und Spezialistenlaufbahn meist erst nach einiger Dauer der Zugehörigkeit zum Unternehmen (vgl. Tab. 6.1.3). Dementsprechend unterschiedlich ist auch die Art und Weise, wie die Entscheidung für die Zugehörigkeit zu einer Laufbahn gefällt wird. Für die *Ippan-* und *Sôgôshoku*laufbahn wird die Entscheidung in je einem Drittel der Fälle so getroffen, daß die "Meinung des Betroffenen wichtig genommen[3]" und bei der Entscheidung zur Rate gezogen wird oder daß der Betroffene sie allein trifft. Bei dem Aufstieg bzw. Wechsel in die Management- bzw. Spezialistenlaufbahn wird die Entscheidung überwiegend (zu 75% bzw. 48,8%) vom Betroffenen allein gefällt.

2 Da es sich hierbei um eine typische Laufbahn für Frauen handelt, werden sie dieser Laufbahn meistens zugeteilt, ohne gefragt zu werden.

3 Hierbei handelt es sich um einen Euphemismus; der Betroffene wird zwar gefragt, aber die Entscheidung wird so gefällt, wie es sich das Management vorher bereits gedacht hat. Das wird auch dadurch deutlich, daß diese Antwort bei der Entscheidung zur Managementlaufbahn nur zu 5,9 Prozent genannt wird.

Tab. 6.1.2: Gründe für die Einführung eines mehrgleisigen Laufbahnsystems (nach Priorität)

Reasons	Total	Manufacturing industry	No. of firms: Retail /wholesale, food	No. of firms: Other industry	Percent: 1st priority	Percent: 2nd priority	Percent: 3rd priority
Human resource development (HRD)	73.1	81.1	74.4	56.3	43.5	20.4	9.1
Vitalization of organization	50.5	51.6	51.2	47.9	10.2	23.7	16.7
Reaction to changing legal framework (e.g. enactment of equal employment opportunity law in 1985)	41.9	33.7	37.2	62.5	12.9	5.9	23.1
Recation towards diversification in employee's view of life	36.0	30.5	44.2	39.6	13.4	13.4	9.1
Utilization of female employees	31.2	26.3	37.2	35.4	7.0	12.4	11.8
Securing of human resources	22.0	26.3	18.6	16.7	3.8	10.2	8.1
Restraint of labor cost	17.2	18.9	9.3	20.8	4.8	4.8	7.5
Utilization of older employees	15.6	21.1	11.6	8.3	2.2	4.3	9.1
Supplying employees with positions	12.4	10.5	16.3	12.5	2.2	4.8	5.4
No. of firms	(186)	(95)	(43)	(48)	100	100	100

Tab. 6.1.3: Zeitpunkt der Entscheidung für eine Laufbahn

	No. of firms	Upon entering	Some time after entering the firm	Upon reaching certain age or reaching some qualifacation
Tracks				
Firms having serveral tracks	(564)	66.7	7.1	26.2
Generalist tracks (sôgôshoku)	(169)	87.6	5.9	6.5
Assistant tracks (ippanshoku)	(153)	94.1	4.6	1.3
Foreman track (kanrishoku)	(68)	1.5	7.4	91.2
Specialist track (senmonshoku)	(84)	34.5	8.3	57.1
Skilled employee track (senninshoku)	(41)	36.6	12.2	51.2
Others	(49)	79.6	12.2	8.2

Tab. 6.1.4: Versetzungswahrscheinlichkeit

Tracks	No. of firms	No transfer	Probability of transfer within commuting area of initial location	Probability of transfer with relocation	Depending on circum-stance	Others
Total	(564)	18.8	16.5	53.5	9.6	1.6
Generalist tracks (sôgôshoku)	(169)	1.2	3.0	89.9	4.1	1.6
Assistant tracks (ippanshku)	(153)	49.0	37.9	7.2	5.9	-
Foreman track (kanrishoku)	(68)	-	1.5	91.2	5.9	1.5
Specialist track (senmonshoku)	(84)	11.9	14.3	54.8	15.5	3.6
Skilled employee track (senninshoku)	(41)	14.6	12.2	51.2	19.5	2.4
Others	(49)	26.5	24.5	20.4	26.5	2.0

Unterschiede der Laufbahnen: Die Laufbahnen unterscheiden sich neben dem Tätigkeitsinhalt und einer geschlechtsspezifischen Unterteilung auch in der Möglichkeit von Versetzungen und der regionalen Mobilitätsbereitschaft. In 89,8 Prozent der Fälle wird deshalb von den *Sôgôshoku*-Mitarbeitern eine Mobilität erwartet, während dies nur für 7,2 Prozent der *Ippanshoku*-Mitarbeiter gilt. Für diese gilt höchstens, daß sie innerhalb ihres Einzugsbereichs wechseln (37,9%), während in 49 Prozent der Fälle keinerlei Mobilität verlangt wird. Bei der Managementlaufbahn wird eine Mobilitätsbereitschaft sogar in 91 Prozent der Fälle vorausgesetzt, während die Spezialisten nur zur Hälfte mit einer örtlichen Versetzung rechnen müssen (vgl. Tab. 6.1.4).

6.2 Personalbeurteilung und Arbeitgeber-Arbeitnehmer-Beziehungen; Beurteilung - Beförderung - Gehaltsentscheidungen

ISHIDA, Mitsuo: Satei to rôshi kankei - satei shôshin - chingin kettei. In: ISHIBAKI, Toshinori: Satei - shôshin - chingin kettei, 2. Kapitel, Yûhikaku, 1992, S. 19-47

Themen: Personalbeurteilung • Gewerkschaften• Gehalt

This research is aimed to know the situation and trend in the *satei* and pay systems. It is superior to many previous researches of the same kind, as Ishida thought hard the contents of questionnaire. In many previous researches, questions were made only of the appearance of *satei* and pay systems and the relation between answers could not be scrutinized, because these systems are different from firm to firm and it is difficult to collect the data to be used for statistical research. Ishida made many questions and changed the answers of them to scores to be used for statistical research. He sent questionnaires to 1,185 firms and received the reply from 187 firms. The number of replies was small due to many questions, but he thought it was enough to know the situation and trend. Many unexpected and surprising facts were found. The surprising relationship between the job regulation by unions and personnel management system was one of the most important facts found there.

(a) The larger the firm becomes, the more objective the way of deciding the amount of monthly pay gets. The degree of objectivity is indifferent with the existence of trade unions, however. Rather, the firms not unionized seem to make the way more objective.

(b) The *satei* influences the larger amount of regular pay increase in a firm when the firm is unionized than it does when the firm is not unionized.

(c) The union functions more or less regulate the numbers of part-time workers and managerial policy of subcontracting both of which relate to the total amount of employment for regular workers, as well as numbers of needed workers in an operation and numbers of workers temporarily transferred (*shukkô*) to another operation both of which relate to the daily amount of labor. The union, however, does not function to regulate the *satei* by management which decides both the amount of pay increase and the promotion speed and which brings about the hard competition among workers.

(d) It has been difficult for unions, particularly unions in manufacturing industries, to regulate or decrease the influence of *satei* on the amount of regular pay increase these ten years.

Ishida concluded that the job regulation by enterprise unions in Japan was equivalent to that in the circumstances of no unionism from the western world or international view. He suggested that enterprise unions in Japan were not trade unions, although people had never doubted they were unions as people knew that they called

themselves unions and believed that they must have regulated jobs and restrained competition among workers, whatever kind of cooperative relationship or partnership with management they had.

6.3 Situation der Personalabteilungen und das Profil von Personalleitern

IMANO, Koichiro: Jinjibu no genjô to jinji buchô no purofairu. Rôdô Hôgaku Kenkyû Kaihô, 1987, Nr. 1655

Themen: Karriere von Personalleitern

The present situation of *jinji-bu* (personnel division) and profile of *jinji-buchô* (general manager of personnel division) were investigated. Questionnaires were sent to the private addresses of 792 *jinji-buchoes* of listed companies in Japan, which can be identified in "Diamond Directory of Employees, 1987." 191 of them replied.

The **characteristics of career path of *jinji-buchô*** are as follows. The average age of them is 51.6 (S.D. 4.1) and the average years of employment with the company is 27.5 (S.D. 5.8). The larger the company size, the older their age and the longer their years of employment.

Table 6.3.1: Years of Experience With Personnel Affairs (mean)

Firm size (no. of employees)	Years of experience with personell affairs (A)	Years of employment (B)	Specialization index (A/B)
~ 999	9.2	26.9	34.2
1.000 ~ 4.999	12.2	27.0	45.2
5.000 and more	15.5	28.9	53.6
Industry			
Constructions and manufacturing	14.2	28.2	50.4
Electricity/gas supplying, transportation and communication	11.0	29.9	36.8
Retail/wholesale business and service	9.4	24.3	38.7
Banking and insurance	6.8	26.7	25.5
Total	12.7	27.5	46.2

Figure 6.3.1: The Present Position of the Chief of Personnel Department (jinji-buchô)

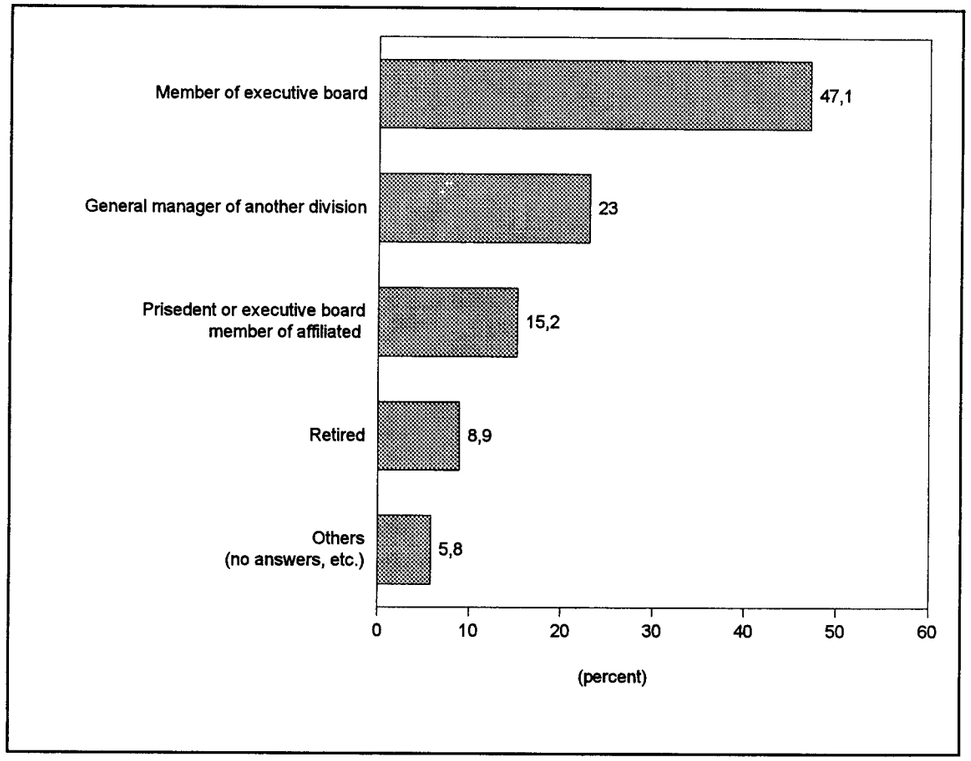


Figure 6.3.1 shows the rate of *jinji-buchoes* that have experienced each job pointed there. Seven jobs of the largest rate are personnel management of head and branch office, labor management of head and branch office, training management and general affairs management of head office, and domestic sales. The combination of jobs that *jinji-buchoes* have experienced is interesting: 21 percent of *jinji-buchoes* have experienced only the personnel management, labor management and training management of the head office and 45 percent have experienced only the above mentioned plus general affairs management of head office.

The average years of experience with personnel affairs such as personnel management, labor management and training management are 12.7, constituting about half of their years of employment. This means the specialization of personnel affairs management. The specialization becomes deeper as the firm becomes larger, as shown in Table 6.3.1. The specialization differs by industry, as also shown there.

The present position of *jinji-buchos* immediate predecessor is shown in Figure 6.3.1.

The rate of *jinji-buchoes* that have been elected as trade union leader becomes higher the larger the firm size is. It is interesting that many *jinji-buchos* have been elected full-time officer in retail and wholesale business, service industry, banking business, and insurance companies. I guess that the experience of full-time union officer is arranged one of "OJT" for promising employees in the specialist track of personnel affairs by some companies.

64 percent of the *jinji-buchoes* reply that the personnel assessment system is the most interesting among the topics of personnel affairs.

6.4 Personalstrategien von Einzelhandelsunternehmen - Kauf häuser und Handelsketten

Sannô Daigaku (Hg.): 21seiki o mezasu ryûtsû shôurigyô no jinji senryaku - hyakkaten/chênstoa 167 sha no ankêto kekka kara (Personalstrategien von Einzelhandelsunternehmen - Kaufhäuser und Handelsketten, Untersuchungsergebnisse von 167 Unternehmen). Tokyo: Sannô University 1991

Themen: Management auf der Grundlage von Seniorität bzw. Leistung • Satei

The present situation and trend of personnel management in the company keeping either department stores or chain stores were researched with questionnaires. The principle of personnel management and the *satei* system were particularly researched. The questionnaire was sent to 446 companies in 1990. 32 companies keeping department stores, and 135 companies keeping chain stores replied. Some of the important research results are as follows.

The principle is clearly written and announced to employees in 75 percent of department stores and is not clear only in 9.4 percent of department stores. However, it is clearly written and announced in 48 percent of chain stores and is not clear in 25.9 percent of chain stores. There seem to be some difficulties with chain stores in the infiltration of principle into employees.

Management auf der Grundlage von Seniorität bzw. Leistung: 53.1 percent of department stores feature the principle of ability-based management and 18.8 percent do the principle of seniority-based management while 12.5 percent cannot present it clearly. However, 47.4 percent of chain stores feature the principle of ability-based management, and 6.7 percent do the principle of seniority-based management while 28.9 percent cannot present it clearly.

93.8 percent of department stores have introduced either the *shokunoshikaku*-system or the *shokunotokyu*-system, both of which are a kind of status ranking system in the company, while 78.5 percent of chain stores have done either of it. The larger the company size, the more company has introduced the *shokunoshikaku*-system.

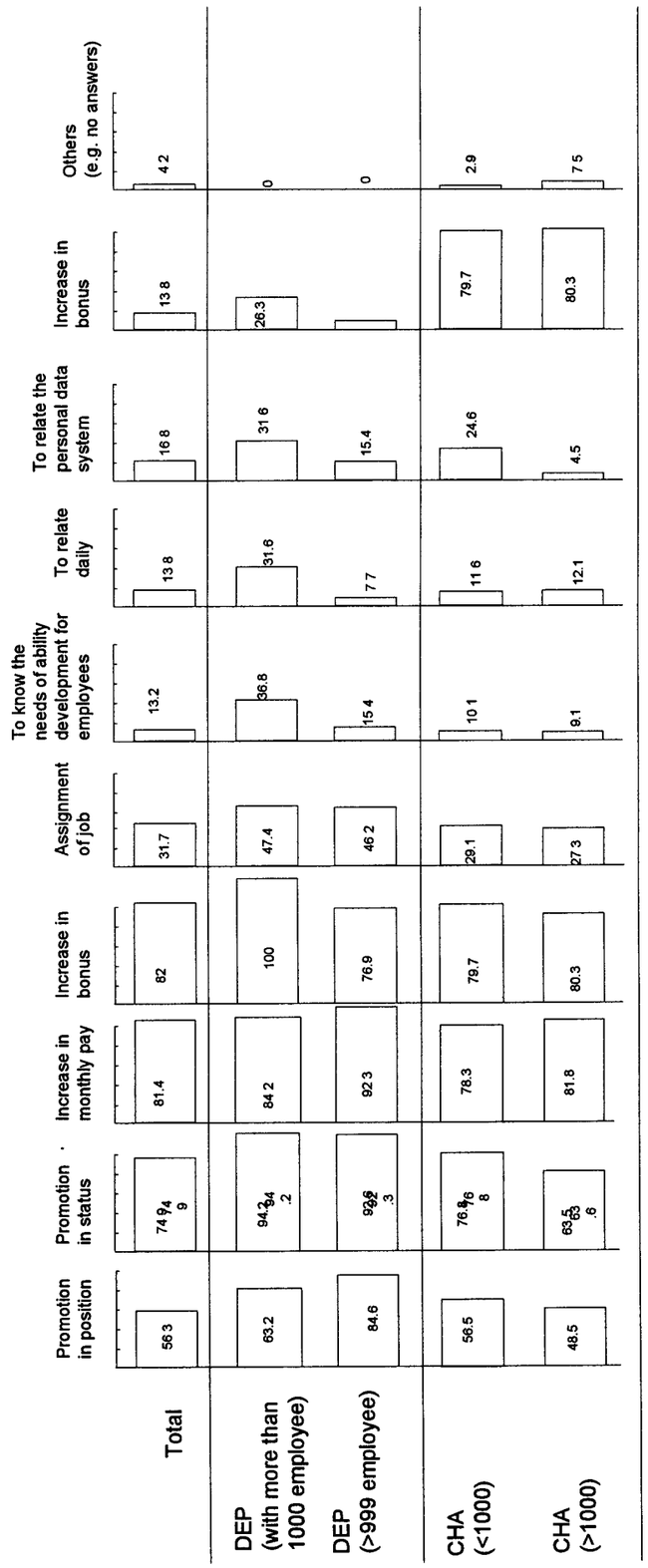


Figure 6.4.1: For What Purpose the Satei Result is Used?

Satei: The report contains data on the degree in publicity of *satei* system, which may be interesting for researchers abroad. Unfortunately, they are not so useful, for the answers to be chosen were ambiguous and it is impossible to know whether the *satei* result for the individual employee is informed of him or her.

The *satei* result is used for many purposes, as shown in the Figure. It is used mainly for the manager to decide the promotion and amount of pay. It is not used so much for the purpose of knowing the needs of employee training, though the manager wishes to use it for this purpose in future.

The training for manager to make *satei* assessment better is carried out in 44.3 percent of the company. To teach managers the system is the first purpose and to unify their value judgement of employee's attitude and behavior is the second. The in-house person is instructing in 74.3 percent of the company. The training usually continues half a day or a whole day.

6.5 Wettbewerbsmodelle in unterschiedlichen Personalsystemen

HANADA, Mitsuyo: Jinji seido ni okeru kyôsô genri no jittai - shôshin/shôkaku no shisutemu kara mita nihon kigyô no jinji senryaku (Wettbewerbsmodelle in unterschiedlichen Personalsystemen - Personalstrategien japanischer Unternehmen aus der Perspektive des Karrieresystems). In: Soshiki Kagaku 21. Jg., Nr. 2, S. 45-53, 1987

Themen: Generalisten ● Karriereverläufe ● Karrierebaum ● Personalmanagement-Politik ● Elite

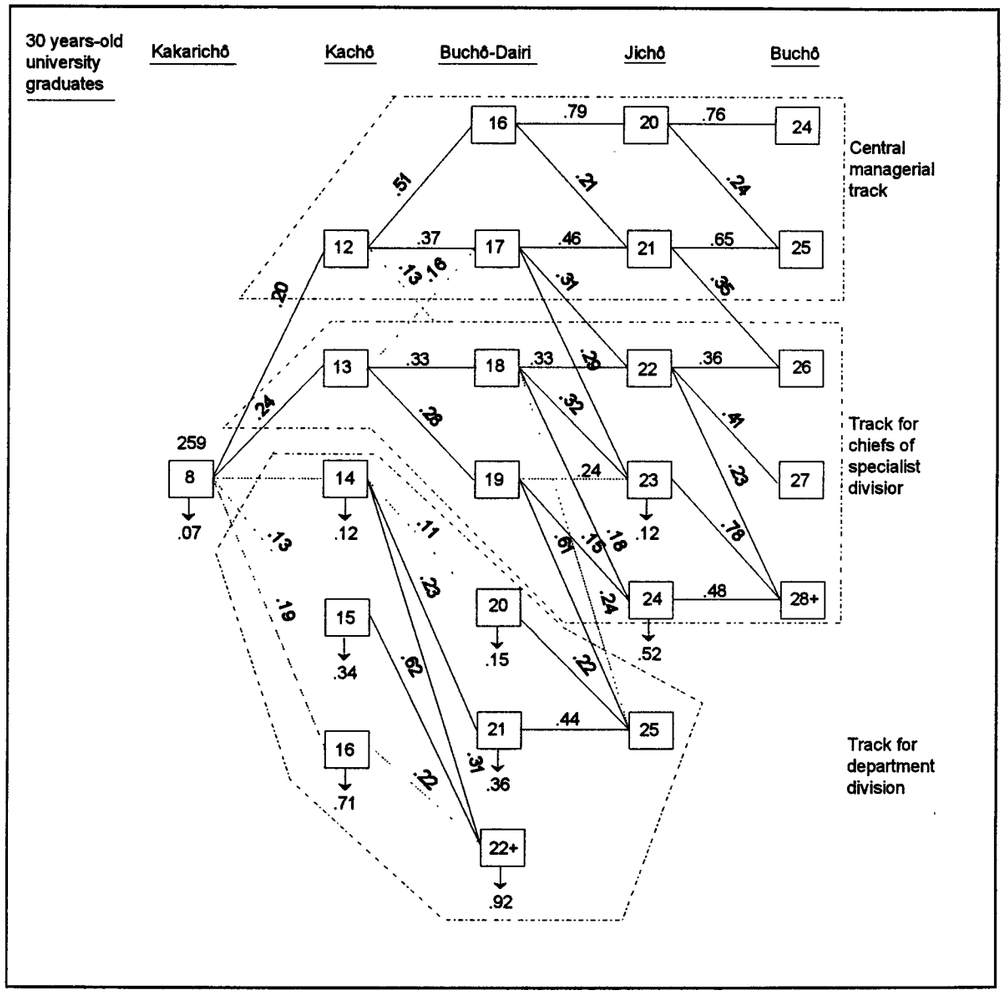
⟶ Siehe auch Rezension Nr. 4.20

This is a follow-up survey about the realities of promotional competition of male university graduate employees who entered a company in a certain year. A career tree method was used in this survey.

Figure 6.5.1 is a 1983 follow-up survey of 269 employees who entered into a company in 1955. Eight years after entering the company, 259 people were promoted to *kakarichô* and 10 (7 percent) had already quit. According to a rule of this company, people must stay at the same position for at least four years for promotion. Therefore, the first and second selection of promotion to a section manager is 12 and 13 years after employment. The highest route pictured on this chart is a fast tracker's route. The fast tracker reaches a position of *buchô* 24 years after employment. The one who is promoted to the position of *buchô* in 24-25 years can follow a central managerial track, according to the company's personnel manager. Most of the people who follow a central managerial track can be found amongst employees in the first selection for promotion to a section manager. They become **generalists** because they are usually assigned to jobs that have nothing to do with their initial specialities or they are rotated among several jobs. The ones who reach *buchô* position after more than 26 years become chiefs of specialist divisions. Most of these employees are in the sec-

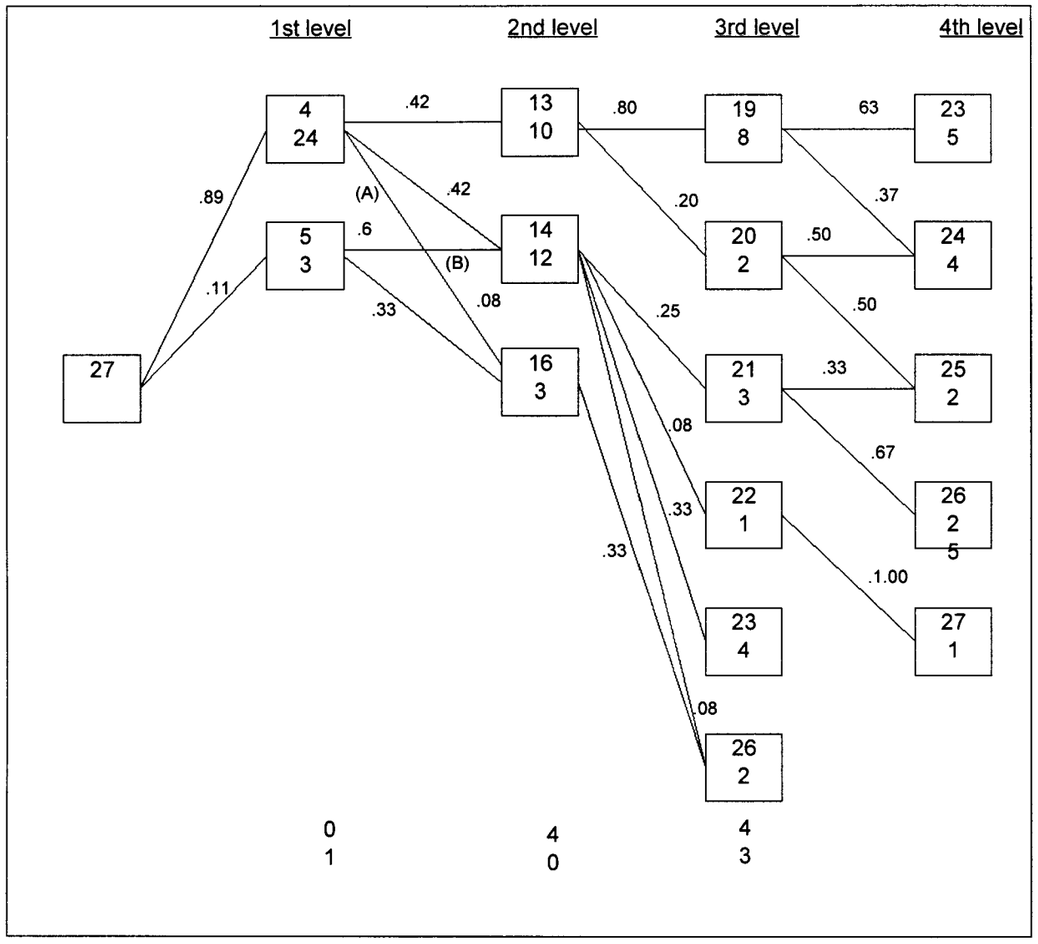
ond selection for promotion to a section manager. They are always transferred among jobs that have some relationship to each other to become top specialists. The remaining employees not selected stay in the position below *buchô*. They are likely to be transferred, loaned (*shukkô* or *tenseki*) to subsidiaries or quit voluntarily.

Figure 6.5.1: Follow-up Survey of 269 Employees



Notes: The number in □ denotes the years that had passed from entering the company to reaching the position.
The number on the line denotes the ratio of employees promoted in the year of □.
The number under ↓ denotes the ratio of employees dropping out before reaching higher position.

Figure 6.5.2: Career Tree of a Company with a Conservative Personell Management Policy



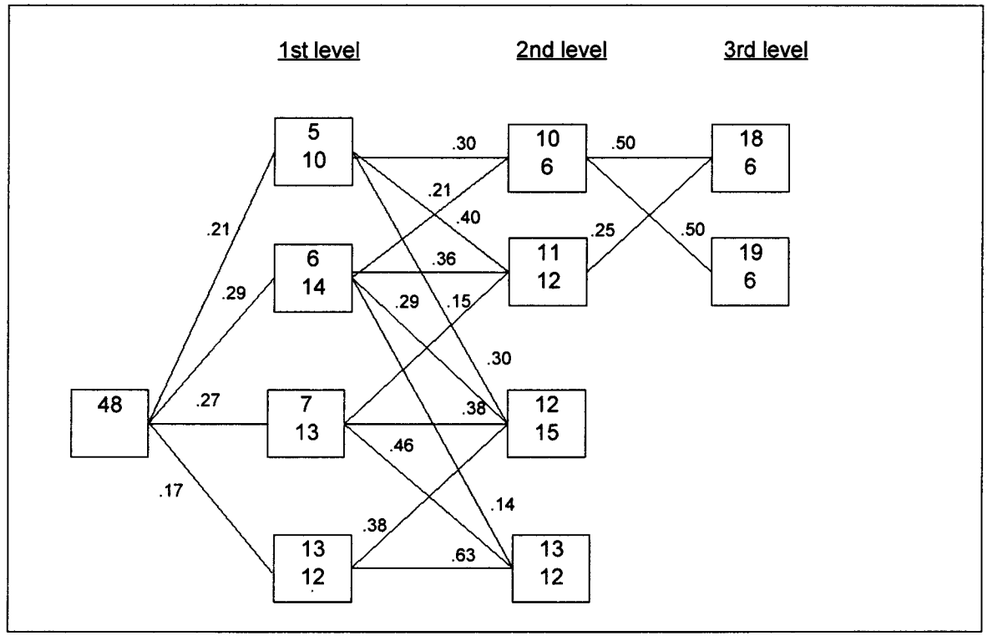
Notes: The number in □ denotes the years that had passed from entering the company to reaching the position. The number in the lower part of □ denotes the number of employees promoted in the year of □. The number on the line denotes the ratio of employees promoted in the year of □.

A pattern of a **career tree** varies depending on the type of company. Figure 6.5.2 shows a career tree of a company with a conservative **personnel management policy**. Its promotion characteristic allows very few possibilities for revival of losers and an existence of a system to identify employees who are not suitable. Another type (not shown here) is a career tree of a company which employs many people with a variety of abilities. Its promotion characteristic is one that identifies **elite** employees. Figure 6.5.3 is a career tree of a company which has a progressive personnel management policy. Its promotion characteristic contains more opportunities than the

others for the career revival of employees who need another chance. A difference of personnel management policy in a career tree pattern is reflected in the employees' attitudes towards their company.

Even in the period of rapid economic growth, when people believed that companies would promote employees on the basis of seniority due to the continuous expansion, there existed keen competition among the employees as described above.

Figure 6.5.3: Career Tree of a Company with a Progressive Personnel Management Policy



Notes: The number in □ denotes the years that had passed from entering the company to reaching the position. The number in the lower part of □ denotes the number of employees promoted in the year of □. The number on the line denotes the ratio of employees promoted in the year of □.

6.6 Unternehmensinterne Selektionsmuster der Beförderung

TAKEUCHI, Yô: Kigyônai shôshin no senbatsu patân. In: Takeuchi, Yô: Senbatsu shakai - shiken/shôshin o meguru "kanetsu" to "reikyaku" (Pro und Contra einer Gesellschaft der Selektion: "Erwärmung" und "Abkühlung" von Prüfung und Qualifikation), 6. Kapitel. Recruit Shuppan: Tokyo 1988, S. 85-110

Themen: Schnelle und langsame Karriere ● Tournament mobility● Elite

Takeuchi made a research of career mobility for **elite** managers.

Using the personnel directory of large firms, 1970, he drew samples of 429 firms at random and picked up the youngest managers from each of the sampled firms. He regarded the youngest managers as elite managers at that time, calling them "fast starters" (total number 1,419) Then, using the personnel directory, 1983, he made a follow-up survey of their promotions. Many of them were promoted but 38.3 percent of them could not be identified.

Schnelle und langsame Karriere: He found out that 34.6 percent of fast starters had died, had quitted voluntarily, had been transferred or loaned to subsidiaries, or had been demoted, excluding 3.7 percent of fast starters that must have reached the compulsory retirement age before 1983 from 38.3 percent. He regarded 34.6 percent as "drop-out" managers. The "drop-out" rate differed by their educational record.

65,4 percent (or 100 percent - 34.6 percent) of fast starters were called "survivors" by him. There existed the difference in promotion speed among survivors. He estimated the difference, using "HI Index", "OI Index", and "GEK index". HI index and OI index were calculated to indicate how far the individual survivors were behind in promotion while GEK index was to indicate how hard the competition among managers in one firm was.

The definition of HI index for survivor A in firm K, for example, is no. of survivors promoted higher than survivor A divided by the total no. of survivors in firm K. HI index is O when survivor A is promoted the highest among survivors. HI index is near 1 when survivor A is behind the other survivors in promotion.

The definition of OI index for survivor B in firm L, for example, is as follows.

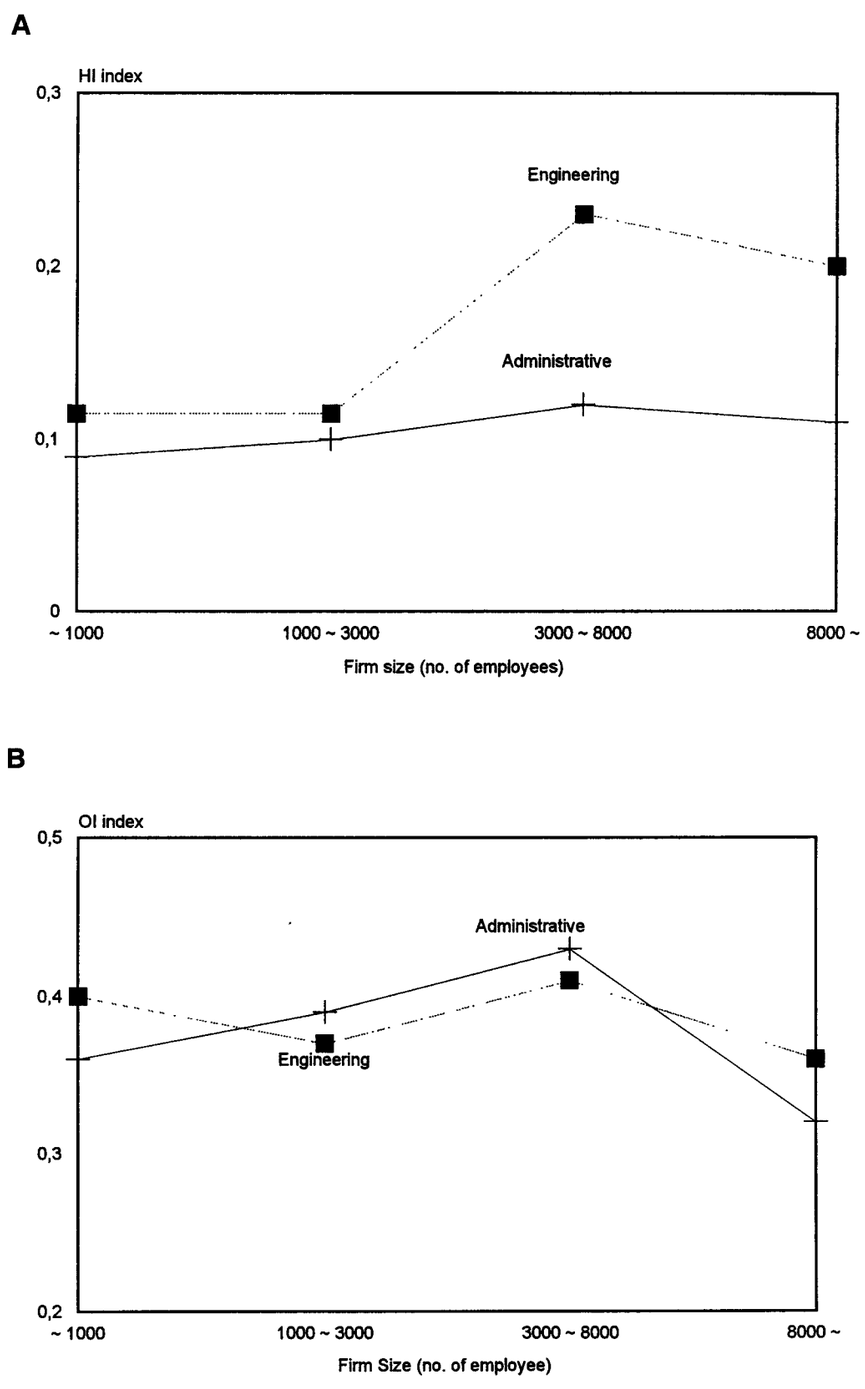
First, he defines "slow starters" as managers who were younger or lower in position than survivors in 1970 and who were promoted higher than survivors in 1983. Second, he finds the survivor who was overtaken by the largest no. of slow starters in firm L and calls him survivor X. Third, he reaches the definition of 0I index for survivor B, which is the no. of slow starters who overtake survivor B divided by the no. of slow starters who overtake survivor X in firm L. OI index is O when survivor B is not overtaken by slow starters. OI index is I when survivor B is survivor X.

The definition of GEK index for firm M, for example, is the number of slow starters who overtake survivors divided by the total number of survivors in firm M.

The more slow starters overtake survivors, the larger GEK index gets.

HI index and OI index differed by firm size and by which section managers were classified in, engineering section or administrative section, as shown in figure 6.6.1. Both indexes also differed by educational record. The point OI index value was small for national and municipal university graduates in administrative section and prestigious university graduates in engineering section. This is the case, regardless of the GEK index of firm.

Figure 6.6.1: HI Index and OI Index by Firm Size, Section Managers Belong to



Takeuchi concluded that the type of career mobility for managers was **Tournament mobility** in terms of Rosenbaum (1984), or it was very difficult for managers to catch up with and overtake their peers once managers got behind of their peers, contradicting the popular understanding that Japanese personnel management featured the egalitarian treatment of employees or there were many consolation matches for underdogs at any stage of their career. Putting it in other words, according to him, employees are treated on a relatively egalitarian basis when they have not been promoted to *kachô* or manager's position, while they are selected distinctly without consolation after they have been promoted to *kachô* or manager's position. He also pointed out that the transformation from less competitive selection to more competitive selection in firms was similar to that in school.

6.7 Mechanismen der Beförderung - Personalbeurteilung und der Einfluß der Dauer der Beschäftigung

TOMITA, Yasubobu: Shôshin no shikumi satei to kinzokunensû no eikyô. In: ISHIBAKI, Toshinori: Satei - shôshin - chingin kettei, 3. Kapitel, S. 49-65, Yûhikaku 1992

Themen: Mechanismen der Beförderung: satei • tôkyû

Using a logistic regression model, Tomita confirmed what employee characteristics were important for promotion of *tôkyû (*or *shokunôshikaku*, status ranking in the firm, the description of it can be read in Endo, 1991), particularly Tomita confirmed which was more important: years of employment or ability. In other words, Tomita applied the method of Abraham and Medoff (1985) to Japanese data.

The data as of April 1, 1975 which was presented by a bank, contained the information such as the existence of promotion for each employee, age, education background, years of employment, years of stay in present *tôkyû*, *satei* (personal assessment) score of the previous year, and result of the interview and test. A small number of employees of this bank were organized by the trade union. One of its members filed a complaint of unfair labor practice of discrimination by the bank's *satei*. The bank presented this data to defend itself against this complaint.

Tomita examined 53 people of *tôkyu* 5, 111 of *tôkyu* 6 except minority trade union members.

The results are as follwos: The workers who have been working for 12 years don't show much difference in rate of promotion, even if they show differences in the result of their *satei*. But beyond 12 years of employment, if the result of their *satei* is different, the rate of promotion is also different. The better the result of the *satei* and the longer their years of employment, the probability of promotion is greater. Years of employment influences the probability of promotion, and it is very different from the study of American corporations by Abraham and Dedoff (1985). In the upper level of promotion, the difference in results of the *satei* means a greater difference in promotion rates. That is to say, one point lower in the *satei* score means 1.40 years delay in promotion from *tôkyû* 5 to 6. In promotion from *tôkyû* 6 to *tôkyû* 7, one point lower in the *satei* score means 2.55 years delay in promotion.

6.8 Karriereentwicklung ins Management - Follow-Up Studie 13 Jahre nach Firmeneintritt

WAKABAYASHI, Mitsuru: Kanrishoku e no kyaria hattatsu - nyûsha 13 nenme no forô appu. In: Keieikôdôkagaku, 1987, Bd. 2, Nr. 1, S. 1-13

Themen: Beurteilung • Beförderung • Karrieregeschwindigkeit

Wakabayashi initiated a longitudinal research in 1972 to track the process of management progress for male employees entering a company keeping several big department stores upon graduating from universities. He conducted a 13-year follow-up research in 1984 and publishes its results here, following the 7-year follow-up research conducted in 1978.

He points seven following factors which may have some effects on the management progress for employees, such as promotion speed, promotion probability, amount of bonus in 1984 and amount of monthly pay in 1984.

fl = university ranking
f2= initial assignment of store
f3 = results of entrance examination
f4 = employee's own evaluation on the relationship with his boss for the first 3 years
f5 = f3 * f4
f6 = assessment of employee's ability to be manager, made by his boss, peers, seniors and juniors in 1974
f7 = personal assessment by boss for the first three types.

He conducts a multiple regression analysis. Dependent variables are the promotion speed, promotion probability, amount of bonus in 1984 and amount of monthly pay in 1984, there being a close correlation among themselves. Independent variables are f1 to f7.

Results are as follows.

(1) Fl to f3 have little explanatory power, although f1 had strong power in the other research (Pucik, 1981 : Pucik & Hanada, 1982) and f3 had strong power in his own 7-year follow-up research.
(2) F4 contributes significantly in 13-year follow-up research as well as in 7-year follow-up research.
(3) F5 contributes significantly in 13-year follow-up research, but less significantly than in 7-year follow-up research.
(4) F6 and f7 have the strongest explanatory power. At the multiple regression analysis, however, only f6 is significant, because there is a close correlation (r=0.66) between f6 and f7.
(5) The total explanatory power of f1 to f7 is 51.5 percent in 13-year follow-up research, higher than 29.9 percent in 7-year follow-up research.

Discussions are as follows. The management progress for employees 13 years after they entered the company is dependent upon the factors for the first 3 years, particularly f4, f6 and f7. This suggests that Japanese personnel management features "early evaluation and deferred promotion", instead of "deferred evaluation and promotion" which has been asserted by Ouchi & Johnson (1978).

Im Gegensatz zu der gängigen Meinung, daß Beurteilung und Beförderung in japanischen Unternehmen spät erfolgen, kommt Wakabayashi also zu dem Schluß, daß zwar die Beurteilung früh, die Beförderung allerdings spät erfolgt.

6.9 Personalentwicklung von White-collar-Arbeitnehmern mit Universitätsabschluß

KOIKE, Kazuo: Daisotsu howaito karâ no jinzai kaihatsu. Tôkyô Keizai Shinpôsha: Tokyo 1991

Themen: White-collar-Arbeitnehmer • Personalentwicklung • Weiterbildung • Karriereplanung • Spezialisierung • Generalist • OffJT • OJT

⟶ Siehe auch Rezension Nr. 4.21

The ability development of **white-collar** workers who graduated from the university and work for Japanese corporations is considered. What kind of skills are required? How are their skills formed during employment? What kind of strategy is used to improve their skills? These questions are examined in this report.

The long-time OJT in the cluster of related jobs is called "career" by Koike, and the following four points are taken into consideration: 1) the vertical length of career or promotion route, 2) the horizontal width of career, or mobility among jobs, 3) the contents of skill, 4) the method of skill formation and the relationship between OJT and OffJT. Four researchers including Koike interviewed employees and analyzed the information.

The following results were found:

(1) The employee's career is planned irrespective of the kind of industry, the size of company or occupation (ranging from office employee to engineer).

(2) In many case studies career specialization follows later. Before or after the promotion to *kachô* level which usually occurs 15 to 20 years after having entered the company, their career specializes into three categories: central manager course, department manager course and the other. A second stage begins after this specialization. Late specialization seems to be a characteristic of Japan after World War II. In Europe, Southeast Asia, and Japan before World War II, career specialization was as early as one to two years after entering the company. However, currently career specialization continues to take place early in two cases: the first is a traditional big corporation and the other is a car dealership.

The merit of late career **specialization** is to promote competition among employees and promote their skill improvement. The drawback is its tendency to not effectively develop a leader required for a big organization.

(3) In many case studies, even if there is a specialized area in employees' career, they experience a variety of jobs in the area. For example in a department store these jobs include planning, buying and selling merchandise. The merchandise areas are further divided into such categories as men's clothing, women's clothing, furniture, etc. In men's clothing there are subcategories such as suits, overcoats, shirts, and

men's general merchandise. The employee must experience all of the activity in these subcategories, the planning, buying, and selling of products within his speciality. Yet the above two case studies are exceptional. In traditional big corporations, white-collar employees with a university degree experience pass through several specialized areas to become a **generalist**. In car dealerships, on the other hand, the employee is responsible for the sales of one area, and this assignment remains permanent. However, the smaller the company the more the job variety in a specialized area seems to become limited. Therefore, according to the opinion of both managers and employees, this job variety should be increased in the future.

(4) The reason why employees experience various jobs is to train them to be able to deal with customer needs, product technology and product change. Experience in a variety of jobs trains the employee to apply skills acquired in one job over into another job. To be able to deal with this change and to apply one skill to another job is a requirement for white-collar workers with a university degree.

(5) **Spezialisierung:** The skills are divided into three levels: (a) elementary level of speciality, (b) advanced level of speciality, and (c) the level necessary for the second stage. The elementary level (a) is when the worker can do one job in a specialized area. This independence in one job takes two to four years after he starts the job. The next level (b) occurs when the worker experiences several different jobs in succession, each lasting for a few years.

(6) According to Koike, in any level, **OJT** is a center of skill formation. At level (a) OffJT is also organized. But, at level (b) formal OffJT is very rare, while there is an informal OffJT which is done during operating hours and is not recorded.

(7) The strategy we propose to a company is to let the white-collar worker with a university degree experience various jobs in one specialized area instead of several jobs in several specialized areas. The strategy proposed to government and public organizations is that they should describe a real example of careers in the major industries' main occupations. And it should be proposed to a company as a source of information. The formal OffJT of level (b) should be established. We also recommend the OJT and OffJT for workers outside of manager courses to be established in (c), the second stage development.

The completed case studies are listed below. Career of engineers (by Koichiro Imano), ability development for employees of business departments (by Kazuo Koike), careers for office workers in trading companies, banks and manufacturing companies (by Megumi Nakamura), career for employees of personell management departments (by Atsushi Yashiro).

6.10 Ausblick auf die Personalverwaltung unter Berücksichtigung der fortschreitenden Überalterung der Gesellschaft

Kônenreisha Koyôkaihatsu Kyôkai (Hg.): Kôreika shakai ni okeru jinji kanri no tenbô ni kansuru chôsa kenkyû hôkokusho. Tôyô Keizai Shinpôsha: Tokyo, 1985

Themen: Alterung der Bevölkerung • Betriebliches Rentenalter • Unterschiede nach Unternehmensgröße • Spezialistenpositionen • shokunôshikaku • Versetzungen und frühe Pensionierung • Personalmanagement-Arten

The **aging of the population** is accelerating, therefore it is necessary to extend the mandatory retirement age to 60 years or more. The trend of personnel management and its problems under this situation is studied by questionnaires and case studies. The results of study by questionnaires are described below.

Unterschiede nach Unternehmensgröße: Depending on the firm size, there is a difference in the extension of the **mandatory retirement age**, systems related to the extension, and problems brought about by the extension. 78.3 percent of large companies (more than 5,000 employees) currently have a mandatory retirement at the age of 60, compared to only 38.7 percent of medium and small-sized companies (less than 300 employees). 50 percent of the large companies have put a specialist position system into operation and 39 percent of those have a policy of age limits for managerial positions before mandatory retirement. But, both systems exist in only 20 percent of medium and small-sized companies. Large companies point out problems for using older employees: few suitable tasks and company positions, and difficulty in introducing a job after retirement age. However, medium and small-sized companies report that there is no particular difficulty except a decline in productivity.

Spezialistenpositionen: In specialist positions, there are compensatory specialist positions as well as genuine specialist positions. Compensatory specialist positions are made for employees who are unable to get managerial positions. Statistical analysis shows that the compensatory specialist position system does not work as well as the genuine one. Also the specialist position system works well when it is related to *shokunoshikakuseido* (status ranking system).

Shokunôshikaku-System: 3) *Shokunoshikakuseido* was put into operation earlier than the specialist position system. More than 50 percent of the companies which have this system put it into operation before 1975 and about 1/3 of the companies put it into operation after that time. Its purpose is: (a) to increase employee's motivation, (b) career development, (c) compensation for employees who are unable to get managerial position, (d) defining employees' ranking inside the company. Recent changes of the system are: (a) loosening the corresponding relationship between the *shokunoshikaku* (status ranking) and position, (b) strengthening the relationship of the *shokunoshikaku* to the wage amount, (c) segmentation of the *shokunoshikaku*.

Versetzungen und frühe Pensionierung: 90 percent of companies with more than 1,000 employees in our study transfer or loan employees. The number of transferred employees constitutes six percent of all employees. This percentage is increasing in 2/3 of the companies. There are two purposes for transferring older employees: (a) to improve relations between a parent company and a subsidiary, (b) to open up an upper position in the parent company for easier promotion. According to statistical

analysis, transfer with purpose (a) is not related to the extension of mandatory retirement age, nor to the systems for older employees, such as better arrangement for early retirement or flexible age limit. Transfer with purpose (b), on the other hand, is not related to mandatory retirement age limit, but is correlated to the systems for older employees.

Cluster analysis reveals 4 **types of personnel management**. Type A: It strongly resists the decline of employee motivation, a sense of belonging, and self development. This type aims at radical reform such as equal employment opportunity. 26.3 percent of all companies are categorized in this type, especially among large companies (average employees number is 3,657) and their employees are relatively older.

Type B: This policy of management accepts a decline of employee motivation, but strongly denies equal employment opportunities, and so on. It is conservative, being opposite of type A. It is found in 20.5 percent of all companies and is concentrated in medium and small-sized companies (average employees number is 1,073). The growth rate of their business is the lowest of those in the sample.

Type C: It accepts long working hours, and prefers independent employees to company-oriented employees. It strongly resists providing systems for older employees. Its number is 18.0 percent of all companies. It is concentrated in non-manufacturing, middle and small-sized companies (average employees are 1,221). Its business growth rate is the highest and average employee age is the youngest of the companies in this study.

Type D: It strongly resists independent employees and equal employment opportunity, while accepting systems for older employees. It is conservative, being opposite of type C. We can observe this type in 36.2 percent of all sizes of manufacturing companies (average employees number is 2,092). The employees average age is the oldest of the companies in this study.

The order of enthusiasm for extension of mandatory retirement age and introduction of the systems for older employees is A, D, C, B.

Case studies were done in Mitsubishi Trust Bank, Hitachi Co. and Nippon Keizai Newspaper Co.

6.11 Die japanische Software-Industrie - Management und Ingenieure

TOTSUKA, Hideo; NAKAMURA, Keisuke; UMEZAWA, Takashi: Nihon no sofutouea sangyô - keiei to gijutsusha. Tôkyô Daigaku Shuppankai: Tokyo 1990, hier: S. 91-159

Themen: Software-Ingenieure • Japanisches Management • OJT • OffJT

The number of companies, which develop software and undertake data processing is increasing rapidly. Totsuka and his colleagues studied these companies' administrative and personnel management and labor-management relations, through the use of questionnaires and case studies in 1987. They published their report in 1990. A summary of the report on in the personnel management of software engineers is

given below: 1,067 companies responded to their questionnaires, which is a response rate of about 26 percent. Large companies are more likely to respond to questionnaires.

Software engineers who are working in these companies are relatively young with a few years of employment, highly educated, and composing the majority of employees. The engineers with these characteristics are increasing rapidly. They work as members of a project team, the team is formed by each project, therefore the team leader and the members are unsettled and transferred. These characteristics result in various problems for personnel management.

Factors as their past performance and performance ability are of greater importance In the *satei* system for software engineers than in other industry's *satei* system. This is because there is no significant difference in their age, years of employment and educational background. But it is doubtful that the assessment is done properly, partly because performance as a team makes it difficult to evaluate individual members of the team and partly because the person in charge of evaluation is not familiar with the individuals, because he is either a manager from another area or a team leader who is often transferred from team to team. In software companies, the introduction rate of *shokunoshikakuseido* (a status ranking system) and *senmonshokuseido* (specialist tracking system) is twice as high as in all other companies.

A major part of ability development of software engineers is done by **OJT**, both programmer level and system engineer level employees are trained together in one team. The method to train both levels of employees in one team is believed to increase the company's productivity. The method of separating them does not work well in some companies. There is also OJT outside the company. **OffJT** is also used. But, OJT and OffJT are not provided equally and effectively to every software engineer, because the team is not permanent.

The long working hours of software engineers are well known. But, according to the study, 41.9 percent of companies answer that working hours have decreased within the past five years, and 36.2 percent state that there is no change. According to case studies, the reason is that the production planning becomes much easier as they have improved production management and increased the reception of orders at an early stage of development. The so called **Japanese-style personnel management** consists of the following factors: 1) hiring the newly graduated, 2) presupposing their long employment, 3) training firm-specific skills by OJT, 4) deciding on their wages and promotions based on their seniority. This type of management is preferably applied to software engineers. But it is not always adaptable. Temporary team members restricts "3)". Above all, strong independence of software engineers from their managers does not fit in Japanese-style personnel management. But personnel management suitable to software engineers is not found yet.

6.12 Aktivierung von Organsation und Ausbildungsförderung in der F&E-Abteilung

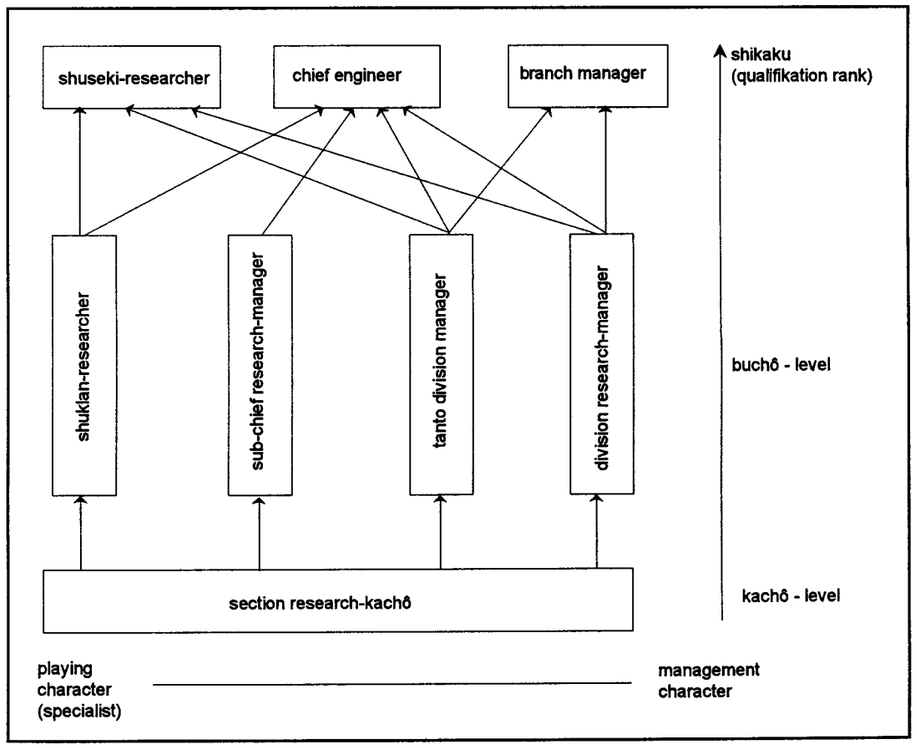
YOSHIMI, Kôichi: R&D bumon ni okeru jinzai kaihatsu to soshiki kasseika. In: Business Research, 1992, Nr. 3, S. 60-65.

Themen: Forscher • Spezialisten • Personalbewertung

This is not an academic research report, but a summary of a speech by Yoshimi, deputy chief of personnel division, NEC, regarding the ability development and career model of researchers in NEC.

The initial "OJD: On the Job Development". The newcomer is assigned to be a "trainee" member of a certain research group upon entering NEC, and must make a presentation of his or her research result two years after. The assignment is adjusted with the assessment of presentation and interview with him or her.

Figure 6.12.1: Career Route for Researchers



Junior **researchers** holding the title of a sub-section or section research-manager are reassigned between the long-term R&D divisions and the short-term development section of production divisions. The experience of re-assignment qualifies the section research-manager to be promoted to the position of division research-manager or their equivalent positions.

Some of the research jobs may be opened for applicants within NEC. The opportunity of one or two years of research abroad may be given to researchers.

There is a **specialist** position system. The title of specialist position is *shukan*-researcher, which is equivalent to the title of division manager, and *shuseki*-researcher, which is equivalent to the title of a branch manager (see Figure 6.12.1). The ratio of *shukan*-researcher to division manager is 30 percent and the ratio of *shuseki*-researcher to branch manager is 25 percent. They can move among specialist positions, managerial positions and intermediate positions.

The **personnel assessment system**: The researcher fills in a form every year to state his or her own goal of the coming year and hope of re-assignment and so on and hands it to his or her superior. The superior reviews the statement and adds his assessment of his or her performance, ability and so on. The result of the assessment is not given to the researcher, but is used as a material when the superior interviews him or her.

6.13 Versetzungsmuster von Oberschul- und Universitätsabsolventen

INOUE, Shozo: Naibu rôdô shijô no keizaiteki sokumen - howaito karâ no jirei kara (Der interne Arbeitsmarkt aus wirtschaftlicher Perspektive - am Beispiel der White-collar-Arbeitnehmer). In: Nihon Rôdô Kyôkai Zasshi, Sept. 1982, Nr. 282, S. 2-13

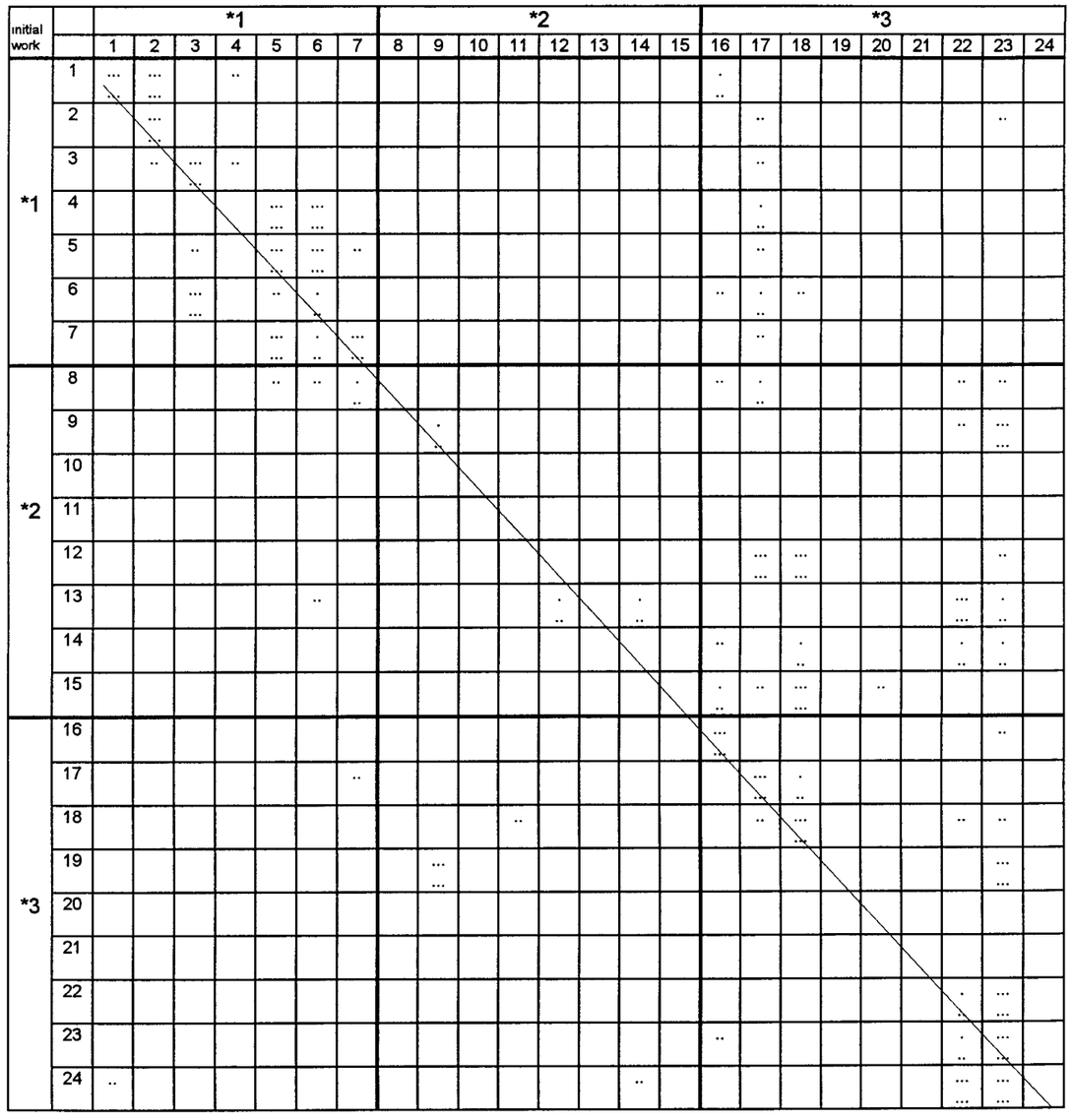
Themen: Unternehmensinterne Mobilität • OJT • Interner Arbeitsmarkt

⟶ Siehe auch Rezension Nr. 4.19

The **mobility** of white-collar workers among occupations in the **internal labor market** is examined. Inoue regards mobility process as a "Markov chain" and describes the mobility process using a transition probability matrix. References which are used are mobility records of 1,115 male white-collar workers from their entry to the company until the end of 1976 at one site of an iron and steel manufacturing company.

Figure 6.13.1 shows the mobility probability for high school graduates. Figure 6.13.2 shows the same for university graduates. Numbers identified with each occupational category are listed below. The diagonal line shows the mobility among the same occupations.

Figure 6.13.1: Mobility Probability for High School Graduates



*1=administrative and office work; *2=production work; *3=engineer

1:	General Affairs	2:	Personell Management	3:	Accounting
4:	Business	5:	Raw Material Procurement	6:	Facility Planning
7:	Transportation	8:	Pig Iron Making	9:	Steel Making
10:	Slab Making	11:	Casting	12:	Pipe Making
13:	Track - Making	14:	Cold Strip Mill	15:	Hot Strip Mill
16:	System Engineering	17:	Production Control	18:	Quality Control
19:	Plant Engineering	20:	Maintenance	21:	Technology Dev.
22:	Environment Technology	23:	Service Engineering	24:	Research & Dev

Notes: Pii denotes the average value of transition probability on the diagonal line.

Figure 6.13.2: Mobility Probability for University Graduates

initial work		*1							*2								*3								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
*1	1	... ...	. ..	..	..																				..
	2		... ...					..																	
	3			... ...			..																..		
	4		..		... ...	..		..									..	..							
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	22																		..				.. ...	. ..	
	23																..						. ..	.. ...	
	24								..												..		... ...	. ..	

*1=administrative and office work; *2=production work; *3=engineer

1:	General Affairs	2:	Personell Management	3:	Accounting
4:	Business	5:	Raw Material Procurement	6:	Facility Planning
7:	Transportation	8:	Pig Iron Making	9:	Steel Making
10:	Slab Making	11:	Casting	12:	Pipe Making
13:	Track - Making	14:	Cold Strip Mill	15:	Hot Strip Mill
16:	System Engineering	17:	Production Control	18:	Quality Control
19:	Plant Engineering	20:	Maintenance	21:	Technology Dev.
22:	Environment Technology	23:	Service Engineering	24:	Research & Dev

Notes: Pii denotes the average value of transition probability on the diagonal line.

Results:

(a) The pattern of movement from one occupational category to another for both high school graduates and university graduates is similar in this company.

(b) There is a lot of movement on and near the diagonal line. That is to say the movement in the same occupation or similar occupations is frequent.

(c) But we still can see frequent mobility outside the diagonal line among different occupations. The only case where we don't see any mobility is from office work to production staff. This can be interpreted as excessive investment in **OJT**.

6.14 Karriere und unternehmensinterne Arbeitsplatzwechsel von technischen und kaufmännischen Arbeitnehmern

Denki Rôren (Hg): Jimu-/gijutsu rôdôsha no idô to kyaria keisei ni kansuru ankêto. Tokyo, 1992 (= "Chôsa Jihô" hôkokusho; 258)

Themen: Berufs- und Unternehmenswahl • Unternehmensinterne Mobilität/Rotation • Empfehlungen von Professoren

⟶ Siehe auch Rezension Nr. 4.22

Denkirôren (now Denki Rengo, Japanese Electrical Electric Information Union) made a questionnaire research for the first time to know the career model and mobility of white-collar union-members in their industry. They distributed questionnaires to white-collar union-members of 19 locals, and received 1,665 replies in 1991. The rate of reply is not specified in the report. 1,073 male members having graduated from colleges or institutions higher than these, such as universities and graduate schools responded. Some of their attributes are shown in Table 6.14.1. The following is the list of interesting research results[4].

There are ten occupation categories roughly specified in the questionnaire and report, as shown below:

(1) Management and planning for office employees
(2) Accounting and financial affairs for office employees
(3) General affairs for office employees
(4) Business and sales for office employees
(5) The others for office employees
(6) Research for engineers
(7) Development and design for engineers
(8) Production technology for engineers
(9) Information processing for engineers
(10) The others for engineers

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4 Vgl. hierzu auch Rezension Nr. 4.22.

Berufs- und Unternehmenswahl: There is a difference between engineers and office employees, on whose advice they took into consideration to enter the company. As for engineers, 30.0 percent of them reply the advice of seniors and friends in the school, 26.6 percent that of teachers, 10.0 percent that of parents/family. As for office employees, 31.0 percent of them reply the advice of seniors and friends in the school, while only 7.8 percent reply that of teachers and 19.8 percent that of parents/family. The high rate of teacher's advice for engineers illustrates the popular phenomenon that the professor in charge of advising them in their school days strongly advised them which company they should enter.

There is also a difference between engineers and office employees in the way how the initial assignment was decided when they entered the company. Engineers: 36.8 percent of them reply that they presented their wish, talked it over with the company, and reached the decision (way (a)). 30.4 percent reply that the company presented its plan, interviewed them, and decided it (way (b)). 32.4 percent reply that the company decided unilaterally (way (c)). Office employees: 19.0 percent of them reply way (a), 39.7 percent reply way (b), and 40.5 percent reply way (c).

Their **mobility** from the time of entering the company to the present is shown in Table 6.14.2. The engineers assigned to the occupation category 1), research, are the stablest, while office employees move some times.

To what extent they feel their hope for assignment considered by the company is shown in Table 6.14.3. The engineers assigned to the occupation category (1) also feel it most highly among employees of all occupation categories. Employees other than them feel it not so highly. It is very interesting that we can read a lot of their opinions of dissatisfaction and discontent regarding the assignment, which are supplemented to the report. I think it is rare that a lot of obvious dissatisfactions regarding the assignment are shown in the reliable research report.

Table 6.14.1: Attributes of Surveyed Employees by Occupation Category (percentage)

Kind of work	Male total	Male, by age: Technical	Office	Female	20 ~ 24	25 ~ 29	30 ~ 34	37 ~ 39
Office								
Planning and control	7.0	-	32.3	9.5	6.0	6.4	8.5	3.0
Accounting and financial affairs	1.8	-	8.2	-	3.0	2.7	1.0	-
General affairs	0.7	-	3.4	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.5	1.0
Sales	10.3	-	47.4	4.8	15.0	11.6	9.0	3.0
Others	1.9	-	8.6	2.4	2.0	2.4	1.3	-
Technical								
Research	31.8	40.6	-	38.1	12.0	29.1	40.1	38.6
Research and development	32.9	42.1	-	25.0	47.0	32.9	29.2	37.6
Production technology	3.1	3.9	-	2.4	3.0	2.7	2.6	4.0
Data processing	5.4	6.9	-	9.5	4.0	6.7	3.9	6.9
Others	5.0	6.4	-	7.1	6.0	4.7	3.9	5.9

Table 6.14.2: Mobility of Surveyed Employees Within the Company (Frequency of Reassignment After Entering the Firm)

	Frequency of reassignment, with job reassignment in the same occupation category counted				The number of experienced departments/sections			The number of experienced location		
	none	once	twice	3 times or more	one	two	4 or more	one	two	5 or more
Technical										
Research	73.3	15.2	7.0	3.2	82.4	14.4	2.1	83.3	14.1	1.5
R & D	68.0	15.9	8.2	6.8	79.3	16.7	2.8	80.7	14.7	3.4
Production technology	48.5	27.3	6.1	15.2	57.6	27.3	12.1	72.7	24.2	-
Data processing	58.6	15.5	15.5	10.3	82.8	5.2	12.0	70.7	24.1	5.2
Others	44.4	29.6	14.8	11.1	53.7	38.9	7.5	61.1	31.5	7.4
Technical total	67.2	16.9	8.6	6.2	78.3	16.8	3.8	79.5	16.6	2.9
Office										
Planning	41.3	36.0	12.0	10.7	48.0	45.3	6.7	68.0	28.0	4.0
Sales	66.4	20.0	9.1	2.7	81.8	17.3	-	78.2	19.1	1.8
Office total	54.7	27.6	10.3	6.5	70.3	25.9	3.0	72.4	23.3	3.4
Male total	64.6	19.2	8.9	6.2	76.6	18.7	3.6	78.0	18.0	3.0

Table 6.14.3: To what Extent they Feel their Hope for Assignment is Considered by the Company
(Satisfaction with Assignment, Male, by Occupational Category)

	Research	R & D	Production technology	Data processing	Others	Technical total	Planning	Sales	Office total	Male total
I feel that my hope is almost considered	36.1	17.0	9.1	13.8	14.8	24.1	13.3	18.2	16.4	22.4
I feel that my hope is rather considered	49.0	51.3	54.5	46.6	42.6	49.6	42.7	46.4	47.4	49.1
I feel that my hope is almost and rather considered	85.1	68.3	63.6	60.4	57.4	73.7	56.0	64.6	63.8	71.5
I feel that my hope is rather not considered	9.7	20.1	21.2	25.9	20.4	16.3	22.7	15.5	16.4	16.4
I feel that my hope is almost not considered	3.8	8.8	12.1	8.6	20.4	7.6	12.0	12.7	11.6	8.5
I do not have any particular hope	0.9	2.3	3.0	3.4	1.9	1.8	9.3	3.6	6.5	2.8
Satisfaction index	103.9	47.6	27.3	31.1	11.0	66.3	22.6	41.9	40.6	60.5

Satisfaction index=(#1 rate)*(+2)+(#2 rate)+(#4 rate)*(-1)+(#5 rate)*(-2)

6.15 Karrieremuster von Ingenieuren

Koyô Shokugyô Sôgô Kenkyûsho (NIEVR) (Hg.), 1989: Gijutsusha no kyaria keisei ni kansuru chôsa kenkyû hôkokusho, Shokken Chôsa Kenkyû Hôkokusho Nr. 99, Tokyo 1989, S. 107.

Themen: Mobilität • Spezialisten

The career formation of technical experts in capital intensive industries such as textile, chemical and steel making industries was investigated. 15,573 technical experts in the managerial positions of listed companies in these industries, who can be identified in "Diamond Directory of Employees, 1988," were sent questionnaires in 1988. 4,802 experts aged 44 to 49 compose 31.4 percent of all experts and experts aged 50 to 54 compose 33,9 percent. 91,1 percent of all experts graduated from universities, 17,8 percent holding MA degree and 0,9 percent Ph.D degree. Among the experts aged 44 and younger, 28,7 percent hold a MA and 4,8 percent a Ph.D degree.

Figure 6.15.1: Rate of Experts Belonging to Different Departments at Present

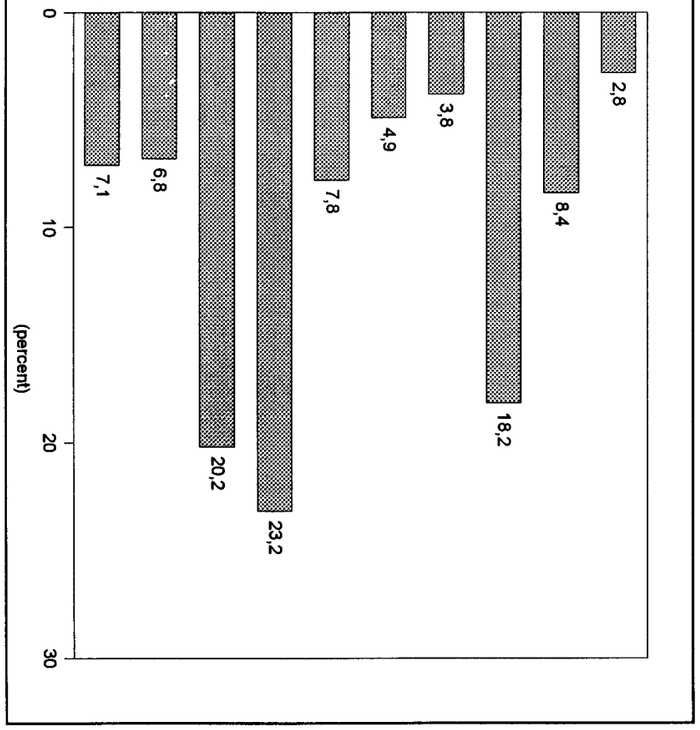


Table 6. 15.1: Experience of Mobility between Departments

		Experience of mobility									
	No. of experts	from 1) or 2) to 3)	from 1) or 2) to 6) or 7)	from 3) or 6) to 7)	from 3) to 1) or 2)	from 6) or 7) to 3)	from 6) or 6) to 1) ot 2)	to 9)	to 8)	to organisation outside	no mobility
Present department											
Fundamental research	130	26.9	22.3	5.4	20.8	9.2	13.1	9.2	17.7	14.6	34.6
Applied research	393	23.9	22.4	9.2	7.9	11.2	26.2	12.2	16.8	8.9	35.4
Product development	856	31.9	14.7	22.0	5.1	38.0	9.6	22.28	23.6	9.3	15.8
Software development and data processing	180	6.1	7.2	5.0	1.1	6.1	2.8	15.6	23.9	13.3	48.9
Design	231	3.9	6.1	10.8	1.7	17.3	2.6	13.9	13.4	7.4	47.6
Production technology	366	7.4	23.8	23.5	1.6	24.0	9.3	13.4	21.0	10.7	27.6
Production management	1056	4.4	22.3	27.6	1.0	20.0	7.4	17.2	26.2	9.5	25.7
Planning and technology management	940	17.2	18.5	18.0	3.3	20.3	8.9	18.4	70.7	11.9	13.0
Engineering service and sales	319	11.6	14.1	14.1	1.9	22.6	4.7	70.2	28.5	11.3	15.7
Others	111	11.1	16.9	16.0	3.3	21.7	6.9	22.3	41.0	11.4	23.5

*1 no. of experts
*2 from 1) or 2) to 3)
*3 from 1) or 2) to 6) or 7)
*4 from 3) to 6) or 7)
*5 from 3) to 1) or 2)
*6 from 6) or 7) to 3)
*7 from 6) or 7) to 1) or 2)
*8 from ? to 9)
*9 from ? to 8)
*10 from ? to organization outside
*11 no mobility

Mobility: Only 12,2 percent of all experts have changed the company they work for. The major reason for changing it in their young days is their motivations such as displaying their ability and improving the working condition. The major reason for changing it in their middle-aged and older days is company's influence on them such as head-hunting and loaning. As they become older, they get to move to a smaller company.

The rate of **experts** belonging to each department at present is shown in Figure 6.15.1. The names of the departments, shown below, have already been specified in the questionnaires.

(1) fundamental research
(2) practical research
(3) product development
(4) software development and data processing
(5) design
(6) production technology
(7) production management
(8) planning and technology management
(9) engineering service and sales
(10) others

The rate of those belonging to fundamental and practical research departments decreases with the rising age of the experts.

Their mobility between departments is shown in Table 6.15.1. It is interesting that many experts have not moved in the department of software development, data processing and design.

6.16 Personaleinsatz in Unternehmensgruppen

Koyô Shokugyô Sôgô Kenkyûsho (NIEVR) (Hg.) 1987a: Kigyô gurûpunai jinzai katsuyô ni kansuru chôsa kenkyû hôkokusho. Shokuken Chôsa Kenkyû Hôkokusho, Tokyo, 1987, Nr. 65

Themen: Externalisierung von Arbeit • Verleih überflüssiger Arbeitskräfte • Satei • Versetzung (*tenseki*) • Entsendung (*shukkô*)

The present situation of integrated personnel management, or personnel management not within a company but within the company group, was investigated. 1.366 companies with more than 499 employees which are listed on the stock markets in Japan and 2.634 companies with more than 499 employees which are not listed there (i.e. 4.000) were sent questionnaires in 1986. 763 of them replied.

Verleih (überflüssiger) Arbeitskräfte: There are two ways in which the company moves jobs outside. One is building up new subsidiaries or affiliates to do jobs and the other is finding appropriate companies to do jobs. The extent of moving jobs outside is different by company size, division within company, etc.

The integrated personnel management consists of three factors such as (a) the management by the parent company for loaned or transferred employees to subsidiaries, (b) the unified or adjusted management of all employees within the company group, and (c) management by the parent company for employees hired by subsidiaries from the beginning.

(a) 49.8 percent of the surveyed companies monitor the ***satei*** result and promotion rate of loaned employees decided by the subsidiaries. 22.7 percent consider the mobility and promotion of loaned employees not in a subsidiary but within the company group. 38.2 percent are eager to find appropriate companies to loan their redundant employees.

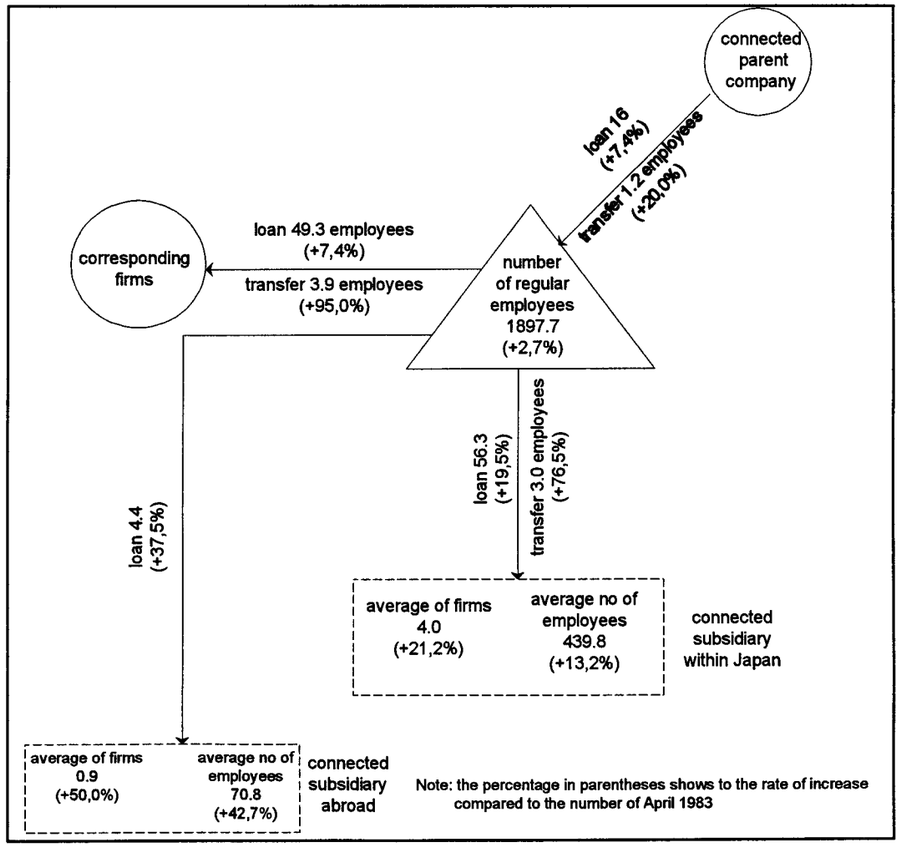
(b) 42.3 percent of the surveyed company adjust the system and level of pay within the company group, 27.3 percent adjust the *satei* system, and 17.2 percent reply the unified recruit.

(c) 31.3 percent of surveyed companies carry out the OffJT for employees hired by subsidiaries. 15.5 percent give OJT within the company to employees hired by subsidiaries.

Loan and Transfer *(shukkô* and *tenseki):* The average numbers of employees are shown in Figure 6.16.1, illustrating the extent of loan or transfer within the company group. In this figure, loan is defined as mobility of employees from parent to subsidiary with their continuation of employment relationship with parent, while transfer is defined as quitting parent and entering subsidiary of employees.

The situation of employment adjustment was also investigated, but both the summary and the text copy of this part are omitted.

Figure 6.16.1: Extent of Loan or Transfer Within the Company Group as of November 1986



6.17 Beschäftigungsanpassung und Personalverwaltung

Koyô Shokugyô Sôgô Kenkyûsho (NIEVR) (Hg.) 1987-b: Kôiki jinji kanri to koyô chôsei ni kansuru jittai chôsa hôkokusho. Shokken Chôsa Kenkyû Hôkokusho, Tokyo, 1987, Nr. 70

Themen: Loan and Transfer (*shukkô/tenseki*) von Arbeitskräften • Befreundete Unternehmen

This is a study of worker's loan and transfer (transfer for short). It studied the number of transferred workers inside of company groups, the purpose of transfer, analyzation of transfer problems etc. Questionnaires were mailed to 1.843 companies, with 410 companies responding, most of which are listed in Japan's stock market. The following results were found.[5]

Befreundete Unternehmen und Transfer von Arbeitskräften: (1) 88.3 percent of responding companies have affiliated companies. The larger the company, the higher this rate. All large companies in this study with more than 5.000 employees have affiliated companies.

(2) 83.7 percent of responding companies have transferred workers to their affiliated companies in Japan. 40.5 percent of responding companies have transferred workers to their affiliated companies abroad. Transferred workers are accepted, however, from related companies in 33.7 percent of responding companies.

(3) The transferred workers older than 49 years represent 32.8 percent of all transferred workers. In the companies which are transferring workers, the percentage of employees over 49 years is 14.8 percent. This means employees over 49 years old are likely to be transferred.

(4) In more than half of the companies, transferred worker's conditions such as monthly pay, bonus, overtime premium, and paid leave are decided by the standards of the sending company. Business trip costs, paid holidays, and working hours are decided by the receiving company's standard in more than half of the companies.

(5) Irrespective of age of transferred workers, the major purpose of transfer is managerial or technical guidance.

(6) The major problems for transferred workers more than 49 years old is that the receiving company cannot accept any more workers.

(7) 40.5 percent of responding companies have regulations or a practice of setting an age limit for managerial positions. The percentage of companies with these regulations or practice increases with the size of the company. 55.8 percent of large companies with more than 5,000 employees have these regulations or practice. Under these conditions, more workers are transferred before they reach mandatory retirement age.

In addition to the above, an canalization is done about one affiliated company's characteristics, and relationship between 4 types of responding companies and transfer by the factor analysis.

The report of this study was written by Hitoshi Nagano. Nagano (1989) is compiled from the research reports he has written, including the summary of this report.

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5 Dies ist die Zusammenfassung zweier Studien des NIEVR zur Personalpolitik in Unternehmensgruppen, insbesondere zu *shukkô* und *tenseki*. Eine davon wird in 6.16 rezensiert.

6.18 Wandel bei den Angestellten, die von der Familie getrennt arbeiten (tanshin funin)

TANAKA, Yuko: Tanshin-funinsha no suij. In: TANAKA, Yuko: Tanshin funin no kenkyû. Chûôkeizaisha 1991, S. 3-51

Themen: Tanshin funin

It is recently said that not a few employees relocate to work separated from their family, when they are ordered to relocate by the firm. Working separated from ones family is called *tanshin-funin* in Japan. Tanaka (1991) was the first book on research on this problem. The major part of her research focuses on psychological aspects. Her book, however, gives interesting information from the view of personnel management researchers. They are as follows.

Tanshin funin: *Tanshin-funin* occurs mostly among male employees aged 40's, as shown in Figures 6.18.1 and 6.18.2. Three major reasons of tanshin-funin make moving for the families of male employees aged 40's so difficult.

Reasons for the existence of *tanshin funin*: (a) Problem of child education. For example, their child going to junior high school, aged 15, cannot move because he or she has already been permitted to enter a senior high school and cannot enter it at another area easily.

(b) Problem of housing costs: To sell their house when leaving and to buy a house when returning is very expensive.

(c) Problem of parent nursing. Their wife must take care of their parent(s) who cannot move sometimes.

Relocations are related little to promotions. About 40 percent of firms reply that relocations are still promotions, while about 50 percent reply that there is no relation between relocation and promotion and about ten percent reply that relocations are related little to promotions.

There is a small number of firms with rules or practices for reassignment of jobs, which may result in relocations. More than 60 percent of the firms have a rule saying only that employees may be reassigned to another job.

Figure 6.18.1: Rate of "tanshin funin" Employee by Age (percentage)

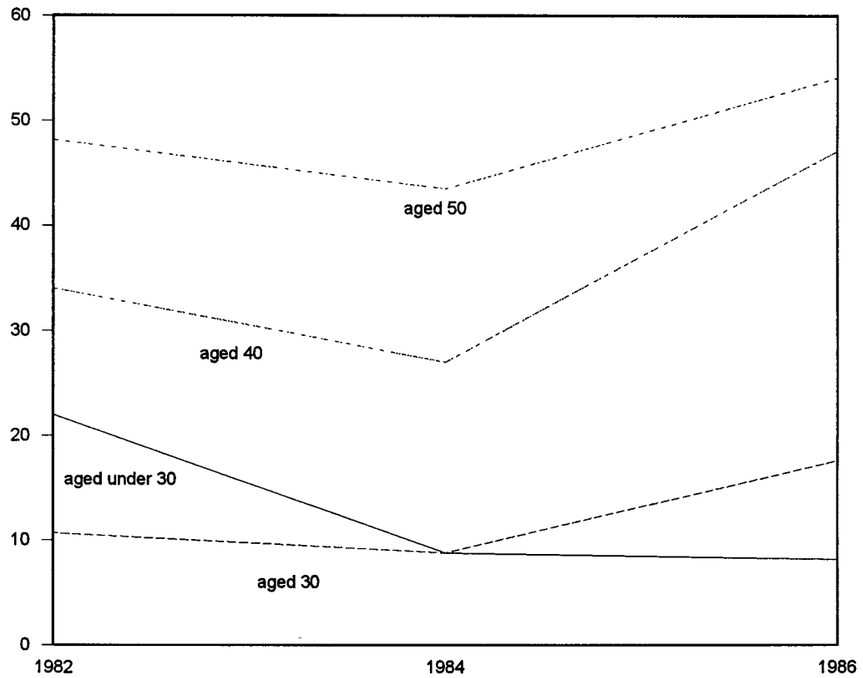
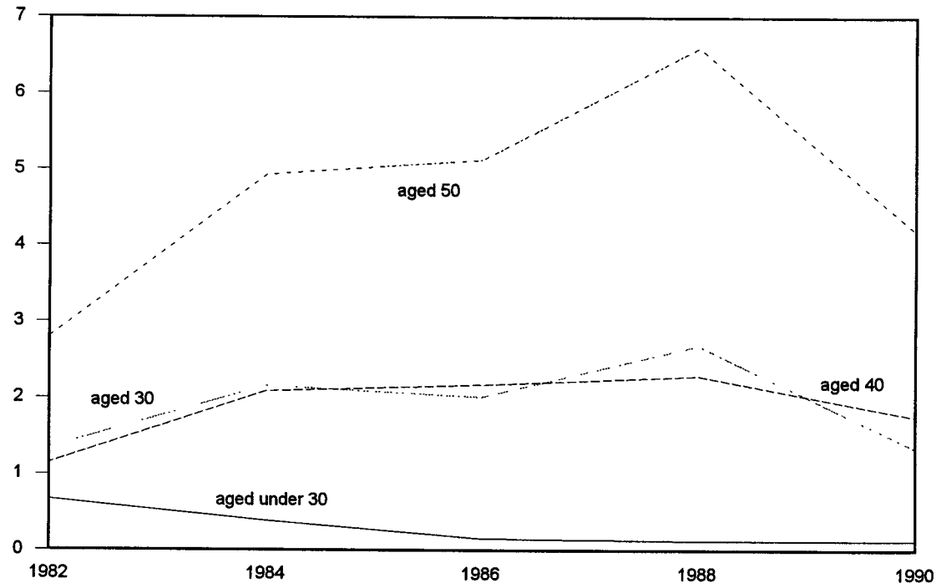
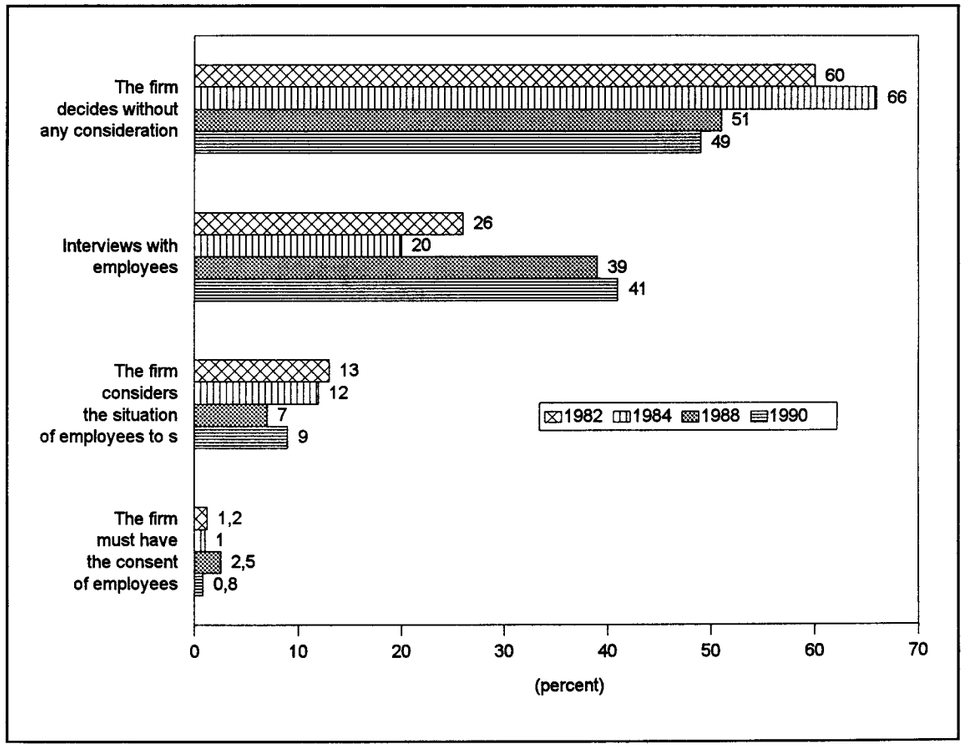


Figure 6.18.2: Average Number of "tanshin funin" Employee by Age per Firm



Participation in the decision: The firms take the family situations of employees little into consideration when they order them to relocate, as seen in Figure 6.18.3. The firm usually punishes an employee in some way up to disciplinary discharge, if he or she rejects the order of relocation. The firm does not usually lose the civil suit, even if an employee files it in a court. There seems to be a small change in management between 1984 and 1988. I guess that this results from a shocking event that took place in 1984 when a wife killed three children and herself because of her stress while her husband was in *tanshin funin*.

Figure 6.18.3: How much the Firm Considers the Family Situations of Employees, Particularly Employees with Managerial Positions, when the Firm Orders them to Relocate



6.19 Auswahlkriterien für Übersee-Entsendungen und firmeninterne Karrieregestaltung

NAKAMURA, Megumi: Kaigai hakensha no senbatsu to kigyônai kyaria keisei. In: Nihon Rôdô Kyôkai Zasshi, 1989, Nr. 357, S. 3-12

Themen: Arbeitsplatzzuweisung • unternehmensinterne Mobilität • Auslandsentsendungen • White collar

This case study was carried out originally to know how white-collar employees in the clerical field were trained and selected to work for the offices or plants abroad. But, it also told us the initial assignment and mobility of them several years after they had entered the company. In 1988, Nakamura obtained the career data of 74 employees having entered the company "I" from 1977 to 1981, and he used them to show the above. All of them seem to be university graduates.

Company I is a large manufacturer with six domestic plants, employing about 10,000 people. The automobile parts supplied for Toyota compose 95 percent in sales of its products, while the sewing machines and beds do five percent.
The titles of division in Table 6.19.1 and 6.19.2 are as follows:

1) accounting
2) procurement from subcontractors
3) management planning
4) total planning
5) information system
6) personnel management
7) public relations
8) international planning
9) production management
10) plant I-1
11) plant I-2
12) plant I-3
13) plant I-4
14) plant I-S
15) plant 1-6
16) sales of auto parts, 1
17) sales of auto parts, 2
18) planning for auto parts
19) sales of beds
20) planning/management of beds
21) home apparatus
22) planning of home apparatus
23) sales of domestic sewing machines
24) housing apparatus
25) sales of industrial sewing machines
26) machines for apparel
27) cost (control) center
28) trading
29) auto bodies
30) quality assurance
31) (Maybe a subsidiary established for sales of products.)

Table 6.19.1 shows their initial assignment. The points are as follows. 34 began to work with the plant. It seems to facilitate them to understand the production process and technology. 13 began with accounting. No newcomer was assigned to the divisions of procurement from subcontractors and sales of auto parts (for Toyota). The jobs there require employees to have the knowledge of production conducted outside their company and the high ability of negotiation (under the pressure of „just in time"), being regarded as difficult.

Table 6.19.2 shows all of their **mobility** - within the company - from the time of their entering the company to 1988. There are three characteristics in the mobility of employees initially assigned to the jobs in the plant. First, many have moved within the plants. Second, many have moved from the plants to the division of procurement from

subcontractors or of sales of auto parts. Third, many have moved within both of the above division after they moved from the plants to the both.

Table 6.19.1: The Initial Assignment of 74 Employees

	Year of entering the company					
Division	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	Total
Accounting	1	3	3	3	3	13
Procurement from subcontractors						0
Management planning			1	1		2
Total planning	1	1			1	3
Information system						0
Personal management		1	1		1	3
Public relations			1			1
International planning						0
Production management						0
Plant I-1	1	1	2	2	2	8
Plant I-2		1	1	2	2	6
Plant I-3	1	1	2	2	2	8
Plant I-4		2				2
Plant I-5		1	2	1	2	6
Plant I-6	1	1	1	1	2	6
Sales of auto parts I						0
Sales of auto parts II						0
Planning for autoparts						0
Sales of beds			2		1	3
Planning/management of beds				1	1	2
Home apparatus				1		1
Planning of home apparatus			1			1
Sales of domestic sewing machines						0
Housing apparatus						0
Sales of industrial sewing machines				1		1
Machines of apparel					1	1
Cost (control) center			2			2
Trading				1	1	2
Auto bodies					1	1
Quality assurance	1					1
Subsidiary established for sales of products	1					1
Total no. of employees entering the company in the indicated year	7	12	19	16	20	74

Table 6.19.2: Mobility matrix of 74 employees

to / division	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
accounting	18	3											1
procurement from subcontractors		5											
management planning				1		5		1					
total planning				3									
information system						2							
personal management	1	2					3						
public relation				1				1					
international planning													
production management									1				
plant I-1		3				1				5	1		
plant I-2											4	1	
plant I-3		2							1			9	
plant I-4													6
plant I-5		2	1										
plant I-6						1			1				
sales of auto parts, I													
sales of auto parts, II													
planning for autoparts													
sales of beds			1										
planning/management of beds		1									1		
home apparatus													
planning of home apparatus													
sales of domestic sewing machines													
housing apparatus													
sales of industrial sewing machines													
machines of apparel													
cost (control) center												1	
trading	1												
auto bodies		2											
quality assurance												1	
Subsidiary established for sales of products.													
plants abroad													

Auslandsentsendungen: The employees initially assigned to the jobs of accounting division have mostly moved between the jobs in the same division. Three out of 13 employees initially assigned to the accounting division have already been sent abroad.

The employees initially assigned to the jobs in the division of sales or planning/-management of beds have mostly moved between the jobs in the same division.

Four out of seven employees who have already been sent the plant abroad were initially assigned the jobs in the plant I-5 and I-6, where transmissions were being produced. They were selected to move the trading division and learned there the routine work of trading business. Then, they were sent to the plant recently built abroad to produce the transmissions.

6.20 Gewerkschaft und Karriere[6]

YAMAMOTO, Kiyoshi: Jidôsha sangyô no rôshi kankei (Arbeitgeber-Arbeitnehmer-beziehungen in der Automobilindustrie). Tokyo Daigaku Shuppansha, Tokyo, 1981, S. 129-167 und S. 261-277

Themen: Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeit in der Gewerkschaft und Karriere ● Blue-collar ● White-collar

Diese Untersuchung ist die erste über die Beziehung zwischen unternehmensinternen Aufstiegspfaden und der Karriere von Gewerkschaftsfunktionären[7] sowie über den Einfluß der Gewerkschaften auf die Beförderung von Blue-collar-Arbeitern bei Nissan in den späten 70er Jahren. Als Informationsquellen dienten Unternehmensperiodika, Gewerkschaftsveröffentlichungen und Interviews mit Mitarbeitern. Die Kooperation zwischen einem Unternehmen und einer Gewerkschaft wurde nicht mit einbezogen. Eine Nissan Gewerkschaft zu jener Zeit hatte eine spezifische, sehr enge Beziehung zum Unternehmen.

Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeit in der Gewerkschaft und Karriere: Yamamoto beschäftigt sich mit der Frage, wie sich die Tätigkeit in der Gewerkschaft auf die Karriere derjenigen auswirkt, die später in der Personalabteilung beschäftigt sind, und kommt zu folgenden Ergebnissen:

1. Mitarbeiter mit wirtschaftlichem oder juristischem Universitätsabschluß der Tokyo Universität werden nach rund sieben Jahren Betriebszugehörigkeit beurlaubt, um für vier bis zehn Jahre hauptamtlich Gewerkschaftsfunktionär zu werden. Danach steigen sie im Personalwesen in Managerpositionen auf.

2. Mitarbeiter anderer Abteilungen und Absolventen ingenieur- oder naturwissenschaftlicher Studiengänge arbeiteten nur für rund zwei Jahre in der Gewerkschaft und wurden dann wieder ihrem Arbeitsplatz zugewiesen.

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6 Zusammenfassung von K. Teicher.

7 In Japan gibt es Betriebsgewerkschaften, so daß nur die jeweiligen Unternehmensmitarbeiter Mitglied dieser Gewerkschaft werden können. Aus diesem Grund werden die Gewerkschaftsfunktionäre aus den Reihen der Belegschaft gewählt.

3. **Blue-collar**-Arbeiter werden für zwei bis zehn Jahre für Gewerkschaftsarbeit beurlaubt und steigen danach zum *kakarichô* (Unterabteilungsleiter) auf, wobei die Gewerkschaftstätigkeit Voraussetzung für die Beförderung ist.

Die **White-collar**-Mitarbeiter wollen häufig nicht lange in der Gewerkschaft arbeiten, so daß die Arbeit in der Gewerkschaft als ein Teil ihrer beruflichen Karriere aufzufassen ist, der der Ausbildung dient[8].

Oberschulabsolventen und Absolventen weniger berühmter Universitäten können in den Unternehmen oft nicht bis ins Management aufsteigen und verfolgen daher eher eine Karriere in der unternehmenseigenen Gewerkschaft.

6.21 Arbeitgeber/Arbeitnehmerbeziehungen und leistungsorientiertes Management in Klein-Mittel-Unternehmen

Tôkyô Toritsu Rôdôkenkyûsho (Hg.): Chûshôkigyô ni okeru nôryokushugiteki kanri to rôshikankei sono 1; sono 2. Tokyo 1988, S. 204/20 (Anhang) und S. 127/19 (Anhang)

Themen: Personalmanagement-Arten • Klein-Mittel-Unternehmen • Seiteneinsteiger

This research focuses on ability-based personnel management in **medium and small-sized companies**. A definition of ability-based personnel management in this study is systematic personnel management in which the *shokunoshikaku* system and personnel assessment system are incorporated to determine the salary, promotion and training of employees according to their abilities. 1.350 companies were randomly selected from the Tokyo area. They are either manufacturing companies with less than 300 employees or retail/wholesale business and service companies with less than 100 employees. Questionnaires were mailed in 1986 and 442 of the companies responded. Four **types of management** were identified using cluster analysis.

<Type A> This type's ability-based personnel management is relatively systematic. The companies recruit mostly new graduates from school and develop their ability by OJT and OffJT inside the company. Consequently these companies expect them to remain for many years with their employer. The companies emphasize such factors as educational background, age, and years of employment when they determine their employee's wages. Many manufacturing companies use type A with satisfactory results. These companies have about 100 employees and their number is increasing. The companies with type A management represent 18 percent of the study's total. Type A is similar to the management style of large companies. But only 40 percent of the companies with type A management have *shokunoshikakuseido* (the status ranking system), which is prevailing among large companies. There is a significant difference in employee's wages, which is the same as type B described below.

<Type B> These companies have partial systematization of personnel management. Most of the employees are **mid-career recruits** and few new school graduates are present. The companies emphasize employees' performance to determine their

8 Vgl. hierzu die Rezension von Imano (Rezension Nr. 6.3). Imano stellt fest, daß viele Personalleiter Erfahrung als Gewerkschaftsfunktionär hatten.

wages with a large dispersion of wages among employees. This helps to recruit mid-careers. The companies with type B management tend to be from the retail/wholesale business and service industry and their business is almost satisfactory. The companies' average size is 60 employees and this number is increasing. The companies with type B management constitute about 27 percent of the total companies in this study. Those beginning to recruit new graduates from school regularly are considering to change to type A management.

<Type C> Personnel management is not systematic. Many of the employees are seniors with the company. Most of them entered the company when they were young and stayed with the company for a long time. Few young people enter the company. The companies put great importance on factors such as educational background, age, and years of employment to determine employee's salary structure. Therefore the salary difference among individuals in the same company is small. Many companies using this type are in the retail/wholesale business and service industries. Their business is not satisfactory. The companies average size is 60 employees and is increasing slightly. About 29 percent of the companies in this study use type C.

<Type D> Personnel management is not systematic. Most of the employees are mid-career recruits few are new graduates from school. The companies put importance on employees' performance to determine their wages. The degree of difference of employees' salary varies depending on companies. Type D management exists in each industry and their business is not satisfactory. The average number of employees in these companies is 45 and stable. 27 percent of the companies in this study practice type D.

6.22 Förderung und Karriereformen für weibliche Manager[9]

NOHATA, Mariko: Josei yakushokusha no kyaria keisei katei to sokushin shôyônin. In: Shakaigaku Hyôron, 1986, Jg. 36, Nr. 4, S. 438-456

Themen: Gründe für die Förderung von Frauen

Üblicherweise beziehen sich die Untersuchungsergebnisse der Studien auf männliche Angestellte in Großunternehmen. Für die meisten weiblichen Arbeitnehmer ist eine Karriere nicht vorgesehen. Das liegt einerseits daran, daß es nur wenig weibliche Stammarbeiter gibt, die lange Zeit in einem Unternehmen arbeiten, da viele Frauen bei Heirat oder Geburt eines Kindes ihre Erwerbstätigkeit unterbrechen. Bei einer späteren Wiederaufnahme der Berufstätigkeit erhalten sie meist nur Zeitarbeitsverträge oder eine Teilzeitarbeit. Andererseits müssen Frauen, auch wenn sie zu den Stammarbeitern zählen, häufig einfachere Arbeiten durchführen und können sich nicht weiterqualifizieren.

Gründe für die Förderung von Frauen: Nohata bezieht sich auf verschiedene ökonomische Faktoren, wie beispielsweise das Unternehmenswachstum während der Hochwachstumsphase von 1955-1973, Verschiebungen zum tertiären Sektor, in dem viele Frauen eine Anstellung finden können, sowie die Unternehmenskultur. Neben

9 Zusammenfassung von K. Teicher

diesen recht populären Faktoren stellt sie einige weitere interessante Aspekte vor: Das Bild des Vorgesetzten, der Frauen fördert. Vorgesetzte, die egalitär eingestellt sind und risikofreudig neue Wege gehen, fördern Frauen. Informelle Netzwerke oder Treffen von Frauen in Managementpositionen: Dies hilft dem Informationsaustausch, der Fähigkeitsentwicklung und der gegenseitigen Hilfe.

6.23 Firmenmodell für Frauen - Karriereengpaß und Lebenszyklus

WAKISAKA, Akira: Kaishakata josei - shôshin no nekku to raifukôsû. Dôbunkan 1990

Themen: Frauen

A research was done on the realities and difficulties of promotion for white-collar female workers and a strategy is proposed to reduce its difficulties. The proposed strategy is extraordinary and surprising.

Wakisaka considers that promotion is strongly related to skill formation and emphasizes OJT as the center of skill formation. The research on skill formation was carried out through interviews with managers and workers. This method is the same as used by Koike.

Case studies are done in four kinds of occupations. These occupations are supermarket and department store salespeople, bankers, and researchers in a pharmaceutical company. Wakisaka examined whether there is a difference in skill formation between male and female workers. Though there is no difference by sex in supermarket salespeople's skill formation, there is an apparent difference by sex in that of bankers. As for skill formation of salespeople of department stores and for researchers in pharmaceutical companies, sometimes there is a difference by sex and sometimes not.

According to Wakisaka, a theory of statistical discrimination can explain the difference in promotion among male and female workers. Because female workers are more likely to quit the job due to marriage and birth of their children, employers would not invest in female worker's skill formation. Therefore they wouldn't promote female workers.

Wakisaka concludes that a program is needed which gives female workers child care leave in order not to quit the job due to marriage and child birth. This program would to establish a more equal promotion of male and female workers. Companies can apply the system to select qualified female workers for this program and prevent unqualified female workers from abusing it.

It is also desirable that personnel managers introduce qualified female workers as marriage partners to suitable workers in the company or to a male from the community who doesn't have to be transferred to another area. This helps to encourage qualified female workers to remain within the company.

ZU DEN AUTOREN

Kôshi ENDO: Geboren 1950. Studium der Wirtschaftswissenschaften an der Universität Tôkyô. B.A. 1974; M.A. 1977. Promotion 1990. Wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am Institut für Sozialwissenschaften der Universität Tôkyô 1981-1984; danach zunächst Associate Professor, dann ordentlicher Professor an der Universität Yamagata. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Personalmanagement, v.a. Entgelt- und Personalbewertungssysteme sowie Arbeitszeitpolitik und ihre Auswirkungen auf das Leben der Beschäftigten.

Takehiko KARIYA: Geboren 1955. Studium der Erziehungswissenschaften an der Universität Tôkyô und an der North-Western Universität (Postgraduiertenprogramm) in den USA. Promotion in Soziologie. Wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am National Institute of Multimedia Education, seit 1993 zunächst wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter, dann Associate Professor an der Erziehungswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Tôkyô. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Übergang vom Bildungs- in das Beschäftigungssystem, Bildungsentscheidungen.

Reiko KOSUGI: Geboren 1952. 1975 Abschluß des Studiums der Soziologie des Fachbereichs Kulturwissenschaften der Universität Tôkyô. Seit 1978 wissenschaftliche Angestellte des Japan Institute of Labour (*Nihon Rôdô Kenkyû Kikô*). Seit 1991 Mitglied der Beratungskommission für berufliche Ausbildung der Präfektur Tôkyô. Lehrbeauftragte an der Saitama Universität (1994). Zahlreiche Veröffentlichungen zu beruflicher Ausbildung und Karriere.

Hiromitsu MUTA: Geboren 1946. Studium der Erziehungssoziologie an der Universität Tôkyô. B.A. 1971, M.A. 1973. Promotion 1990 am Tôkyô Institute of Technology. Von 1974 bis 1986 wissenschaftlicher Angestellter am National Institute for Educational Research, ab 1985 Associate Professor, seit 1989 Professor für Erziehungswissenschaften am Tôkyô Institute of Technology. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Qualifikationsentwicklung, Bildungsökonomie und -planung.

Kerstin TEICHER: Geboren 1967. Studium der Betriebswirtschaftslehre und der Japanologie an der Freien Universität Berlin; 1992 Diplom-Kaufmann, 1993 M.A. (Japanologie), Promotion 1996. Seit 1993 wissenschaftliche Mitarbeiterin am Wissenschaftlichen Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule Kassel im Rahmen des Projektverbundes "Beziehungen zwischen Bildungs- und Beschäftigungssystem in Japan in vergleichender Perspektive".

Keiichi YOSHIMOTO: Geboren 1954. Studium der Erziehungswissenschaft an der Universität Tôkyô. Von 1985-1992 wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am National Institute of Employment and Vocational Research (NIEVR), jetzt Japan Institute of Labour (Nihon Rôdô Kenkyû Kikô (JIL)). Seit 1992 Associate Professor am National Institute of Multimedia Education. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Tertiäre Bildung und Beschäftigung; Fragen der Bildungsreform und der beruflichen Ausbildung; Probleme des Zusammenhangs von Bildung und beruflicher Karriere.