

**MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES, ETHICS
AND
FOREIGN LABOUR**

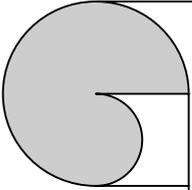
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of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy*

VOLUME I

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STILL THEY COME – grape-pickers and bricklayers, nannies and schoolteachers, computer programmers and sex workers, these and millions more head for foreign lands in search of work, or higher pay, or just the opportunity to make a better life. Around 150 million people are ‘foreign-born’, living outside their country of origin, and every year they are joined by two to three million more emigrants. This number also includes 12 million or so refugees, driven from their homes by war, or famine, or persecution.

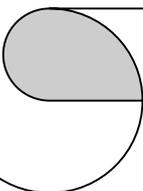
These 150 million people may only represent three percent of world population. But they generate controversy and debate out of all proportion to their modest numbers, largely because as they travel, migrants expose many of the social and political fault lines – of race, gender, social class, culture and religion – that underlie the seemingly settled terrain of modern nation states.

- Peter Stalker (2001, p. 8)

On a technology campus off the bustle of the Hosur Road in Electronics City, Bangalore, engineers are fiddling with the innards of a 65-inch television, destined for American shops in 2006. The boffins in the white lab coats work for Wipro, an Indian technology company.

McKinsey looks at possible shifts in global employment patterns in various service industries, including software engineering, banking and IT services. Between them, these three industries employ more than 20 million workers worldwide. The supply of IT services is the most global. Already 16 percent of all the work done by the world’s IT services industry is carried out remotely, away from where these services are consumed, says McKinsey. In the software industry the proportion is 6 percent. The supply of banking services is the least global, with less than 1 percent delivered remotely.

- Edwards (2004, p. 3-5)



ABSTRACT

The phenomenal increase of foreign labour employment (FLE) in the last three decades has brought about numerous socio-economic problems for receiving, sending and hosting nations of foreign workers. As a consequence, these have triggered many clamours for justice and equity for foreign workers from less developed countries especially. These circumstances have provided an opportune setting for a cross-cultural investigation into prevailing FLE attitudes and ethics (teleological or deontological) among managers from three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia), two race/ethnic (Caucasian and Chinese) groups and three religious (Christian, Buddhist and Malay Muslim) denominations.

Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were employed to enable cross-data reliability checks among random and quota samples. The qualitative interview random sample consisted of managers from 36 Australian-owned Melbourne-based companies. The case study sample composed of two Singaporean-born expatriates in Melbourne. The quantitative survey sample comprised 120 randomly selected and 83 quota selected respondents from Australia (105), Singapore (55) and Malaysia (43). Procuring “suitably qualified” respondents was difficult and this probably explains the response rates of 34 and 24 percent among random samples.

Even though the responses of managers were very favourable towards FLE (foreign skilled particularly), they had their reservations about FLE *in other countries* (company relocation especially). Job and wealth losses were their foremost concerns. The degree of support for FLE correlated with the ethical stances. Singaporeans were entirely teleological and the most favourable of the three country groups toward FLE. Conversely, Australians were totally deontological and the least favourable of the three country groups toward FLE.

Consistency was achieved in responses across samples and with cross-references between attitudes and ethics, along with other considerations such as companies' employment practices, residence preferences and views on profit. Partial support was found for the two hypotheses. Generally speaking, the results highlight that among individuals from various groups, culture does bring about differences in attitudes, ethical stances and even behaviours. These have implications for commercial activity. More importantly, they indicate that managers, whether in business or in government and not just those involved with human resource management, need to be cognisant of the importance of cultural differences when they conduct negotiations or make policy changes. This is the first step to avoid conflict and to exhibit a trustworthy effective corporate leadership.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

“I, Aster Yong, declare that the PhD thesis entitled ‘Managerial Attitudes, Ethics and Foreign Labour’ is no more than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work”.

Signature:

Date: 5 July 2005

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACA	Australian Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian
ACH	Australian Chinese
ACR	Australian Christian
AB	Australian Buddhist
B	Buddhist
CA	Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian
CH	Chinese
CR	Christian
CMD	Cognitive Moral Development
DIMA	Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs, Australia
EDM	Ethical Decision Making
EPZs	Export Processing Zones
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FLE	Foreign Labour Employment
FTZs	Free Trade Zones
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLC	Government-linked Companies (Singapore)
HRM	Human Resource Management
MB	Malaysian Buddhist
MCA	Malaysian Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian
MCH	Malaysian Chinese
MCR	Malaysian Christian
MDS	Malaysian Department of Statistics
MM	Malay Muslim
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
NES	Non-English-speaking
NIEs	Newly Industrialising Economies
SB	Singaporean Buddhist
SCA	Singaporean Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian
SCH	Singaporean Chinese
SCR	Singaporean Christian
SDS	Singapore Department of Statistics
TNCs	Transnational Corporations
US	United States

GLOSSARY [refer to pages 283-284]

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My thanks for all He has done and seen me through
This work is to His glory.*

Who would have thought that I could go on to university and complete a PhD? I had missed the opportunity back in Singapore where I grew up and was educated till pre-university. Yet, a year after I migrated to Melbourne, I was engaging in undergraduate studies in Western Institute, which later merged with Footscray Institute of Technology to become Victoria University of Technology (VUT). My greatest thanks to Australia and Australians, who through their generosity have demonstrated that this indeed is the land of opportunities, where dreams do come true, when you work hard and believe.

Going back to studies after a good 14 years was not an easy thing to do. I am grateful to the teaching staff at VUT and Monash (where I undertook my Masters) for they have not only encouraged but equipped me well to go on and face the challenges of a PhD.

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A PhD ought not to be seen as the contribution of a sole individual. The contribution by the respondents has been most important and valuable to the thesis and I do sincerely thank them for their time and for sharing their thoughts on foreign labour employment with me. Finding “suitably qualified” participants for the study was like trying to find “a needle in a haystack”. Try “I am looking for an Anglo-Australian who is a Buddhist” and “I need to find a Caucasian who is Buddhist and working in Singapore or in Malaysia”. My appreciation to associates of the Buddhist, Muslim, Christian and various other organisations that responded to my appeal and assisted with locating respondents who have the necessary prerequisites. Needless to

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A

BIG

THANK YOU

to one and all
for what you have given
to making my dream
a reality!

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT - THE RESEARCH ISSUE

Foreign labour employment (FLE) has been gaining significance as ‘the new international division of labour’ as more and more businesses increasingly alter their work practices to remain competitive in today’s fast growing global economy. Foreign nationals serving as an alternative or back-up resource of labour, whether as slaves, indentured labour or economic migrants, are by no means new or recent (Stalker 1994). Most certainly, the spread of internationalisation and the global integration of economies since the latter half of the twentieth century, have opened up many more opportunities for businesses to tap into the human resource pool of countries other than their own (Rodrik 1997).

Traditionally, businesses within a country have taken on foreign nationals already in the country or brought them from another country. Whilst foreign workers from these avenues have been growing in large numbers, particularly since the mid-eighties, businesses are also increasingly out-sourcing work to companies located in other countries or employing ‘locals’ in their subsidiaries located across national and transnational borders (Castles & Miller 2003; Debrah & Smith 2002). The employment of foreigners as a labour resource thereby has not been limited to those within the country but included those from other countries as well.

These developments have brought to the fore numerous ethical debates. At the heart of these debates are two issues. The first is the fear of escalating social and economic problems, including high unemployment rates, occurring in labour receiving and sending countries. The second is with the poor remuneration and work conditions experienced by “foreign” workers employed by multinationals (Bhagwati 2004; Moran 2002; Rodrik 1997; Stalker 1994, 2000). These issues raise several questions. How have these discussions affected the views of managers toward FLE? What are their ethical considerations? Is FLE looked upon differently by managers from different countries? If so, what are the factors that contribute to these differences?

1.2 FOREIGN LABOUR DEFINED

FLE comes under the umbrella term of ‘international labour movement’ (Smart & Casco 1988, p. 8), which considers not only the different types of labour migration (eg contract/guest/seasonal, professionals/skilled, unskilled) but also those related to settlement, refugee, irregular and undocumented migration (ibid). Most publications tend to refer to FLE as ‘international labour migration’ (Stalker 1994) or the ‘new international division of labour’ (Kaur 2000, p. 3; Stalker 1994, p. 159; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 37; Castles 1989, p. 116). Castles (1989) identifies the employment of foreign workers as the ‘international mobility of labour’ (p. 1). This probably can be ascribed to the labour market’s fast growing image as a ‘global cultural interchange’ (Castles & Miller 2003, p. 4).

As a concept, *foreign labour* has been perceived also as *migrant labour*. Given labour’s close association with migration, authors like Castles (1987, 1989) and Stalker (1994, 2000) amongst others, have tended to look upon employment by foreigners/foreign nationals as *migrant labour*. This latter term does, however, convey the idea that the foreigner has intentions of not only working but also of taking up a more permanent residency, even citizenship, in the country of employment.

Foreign labour in this thesis will pertain only to the employment per se and not to the settlement considerations of nationals from other countries. The term will refer to any worker who is either a non-national in the country of employment or employed by a company set up away from its country of origin.

In the first instance, the workers are non-nationals employed within the resident country. These foreign workers have been

- brought in by the company/recruitment agency or
- individuals job seeking whilst already resident in the country.

Whilst this happens in most cases, it is not uncommon to find foreign workers employed in one country and residing in another when cross border employment occurs. Stalker (1994, p. 4) provides five classifications for the pool of international migrants that can contribute to the foreign labour force of a country according to their length of residence, skill level and status (eg. economic or non-economic, legal or illegal). The classifications are

- [i] *settlers* or people who come to live permanently in a country.
- [ii] *contract workers* or people who enter a country to work for an arranged and limited period. Stalker (1994) has suggested that these transient residents could either be short-term (staying for a period of less than one year) or long-term (staying for a period of more than one year). In the main, they tend to be unskilled or semi-skilled and include seasonal workers commonly employed in tourist-dependent and agricultural type of industries.
- [iii] *professionals* or people with a higher educational or training level (including academics and students) whose skills can be transferred from one country to another.
- [iv] *illegal immigrants* or people who have come into the country illegally or overstayed on their visas or taken on work when they have only tourist visas. Should these people be employed, they will be regarded as “undocumented workers” (Stalker 1994, p. 4).
- [v] *asylum seekers and refugees* or people who have had to leave their home country because of political persecution, war or famine, represent the only group of ‘non-economic’ migrants.

In the second instance, the FLE is in other countries. Workers are classified as “foreign” labour if employment is

- work that has been outsourced/subcontracted to the company by a company from another country, or
- through a relocated “foreign” company or subsidiary of a multinational overseas.

1.3 THE CYCLE OF FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

FLE is a phenomenon that is affected by the interplay of a large set of variables. Figure 1.1 exhibits all the key factors and explains how they interact with one another in the cycle of FLE. Interaction of these factors occurs at four different levels – global, country, organisational and individual.

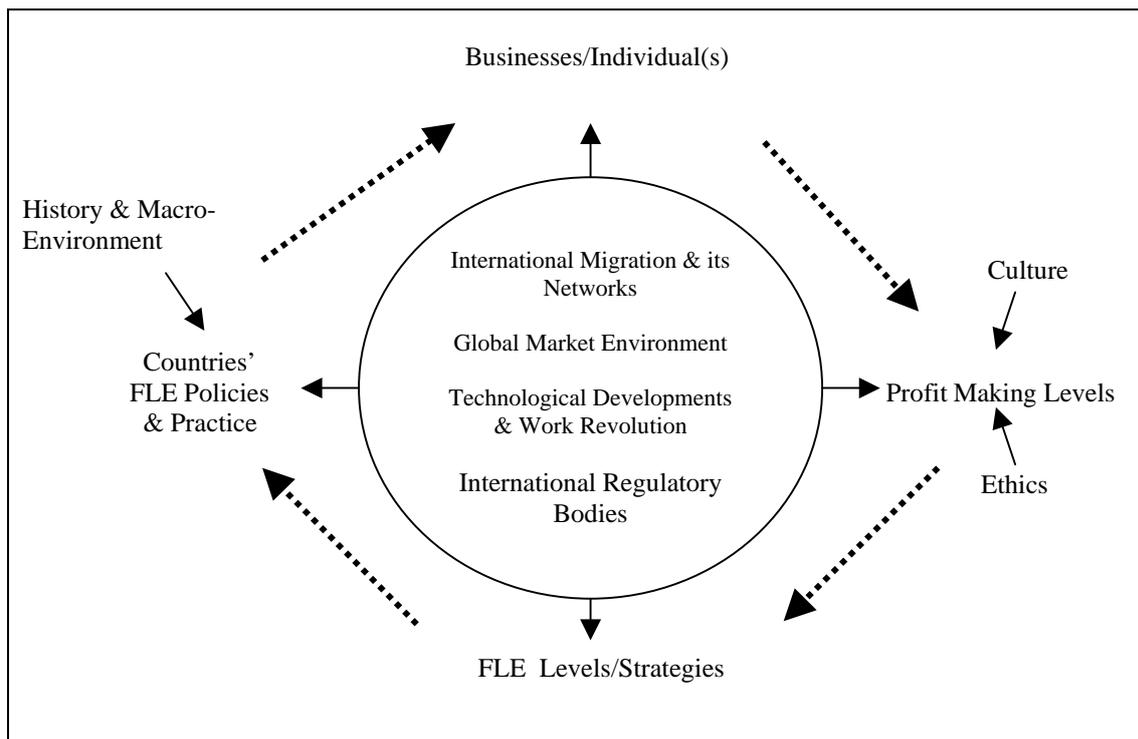


Figure 1.1: The Cycle of Foreign Labour Employment

At the global level, international migration and its networks (formal and informal) mediate with the global market environment, technological developments/work revolution and international regulatory bodies to affect fluctuations in the overall FLE cycle. These four global factors simultaneously influence the FLE levels/strategies at the country, organisation and individual levels.

At the organisational level, the decision to employ foreign labour (or not) is dependent on profit, amongst other factors. Profit making levels determine the extent to which the business will engage FLE as well as the strategies that will be utilised. Castles (1987) and Moran (2002) mentioned that profit making levels tend to vary with time periods, company locations and types of organisations. Whether it is to meet shortfalls in worker numbers or skill, the decision on the extent of foreign labour to be engaged, in terms of the number, type and area, would depend on the organisational culture and ethics of the business (Papastergiadis 2000, p. 63; Stalker 2000, p. 133). Fritzsche's (1991) ethical decision model, for example, demonstrates that the decision alternatives have to be evaluated against a set of criteria concerning economic, political, technological, social and ethical issues. Economic issues involve short and long term profitability. Political issues take into consideration the impact of current public policy upon the political power and negotiating capabilities of the

organisation with respect to stakeholders and future public policy. Technological issues relate to present and future decisions regarding feasible technological employment. Social issues concern the potential impact of the decision on the local community and society at large. Ethical issues are focused on the general moral standards of behaviour (ibid).

At the individual level, two kinds of persons are involved: those contemplating the decision for FLE and those considering employment as foreign labour. An individual's cultural and ethical attributes (discussions in Chapter IV) would become central to either outcome.

The levels/strategies of foreign labour employed at the country level can lead to either positive or negative responses from the government (as discussions in Chapter III reveal), which ultimately will ascertain the number and type of foreigners permitted into the country via immigration policies. Policies pertaining to the exit or entry of workers are used to regulate FLE not only by receiving/hosting countries but also by sending countries of foreign labour (Castles 1992; Castles & Miller 2003; Hugo 2001a & 2001b; Hui 1998; Kanapathy 2001; Kassim 2001a; Low 1995; Ruppert 1999; Turnbull 1980). These policies will in turn require businesses and individuals to re-evaluate their FLE levels/strategies.

FLE policies are influenced to a large extent by the history and macro-environment (physical geography, economic, political/legal, socio-cultural, demographic and technological factors) of countries, emigrant as well as immigrant (Kotler 2003). Triandis and Suh (2002) suggested that history and ecology are linked to the maintenance system and to the shared elements such as attitudes, norms and values, which reflect the predominant attributes of a nation's culture (eg. individualistic or collectivistic). History takes into account factors like migrations, wars, revolutions and inventions. Ecology consists of the terrain, climate, natural resources, flora and fauna, which invariably affects the level of cultural diffusion. For example, large mountains and expansive seas reduce the probability of cultural diffusion. The maintenance system is made up of subsistence and settlement patterns, social structures and means of production (agriculture, manufacturing, services).

Understanding what the key factors are and how they impact the FLE cycle is central to the objectives of the study.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The first objective of this thesis was to investigate the current perceptions of managers regarding the employment of foreigners as a labour resource in seven various categories. It would include the reasons for their preferences of these seven categories of FLE and wherever possible, the practices of businesses to add insight into contemporary managerial thinking and organisational behaviour concerning FLE. The seven categories of FLE are as follows:

- [1] Skilled foreign workers brought in
- [2] Unskilled foreign workers brought in
- [3] Hire of skilled foreign workers already in the country
- [4] Hire of unskilled foreign workers already in the country
- [5] 'Work sent' to other countries
- [6] Foreign workers employed in offshore branch
- [7] Foreign workers employed in relocated company.

These seven categories of FLE could be looked upon as two broad classifications of foreign workers, with the first four referring to those employed *within the country* and the remaining three concerning those employed *in other countries*.

The second objective was to find out what ethical stance present-day managers would take in regard to each of the seven categories of FLE. In other words, would their ethical considerations toward FLE be based on the teleological (consequential) or deontological (duty) type of ethics.

The third objective was to determine the impact of culture on managerial attitudes and ethics towards FLE in its seven categories. Although the investigation would involve eight cultural variables, the focus rested mainly with three main variables – country, race/ethnicity and religion - to ascertain how these could account for variations in attitudes and ethical stances of managers. Respondents were obtained from

- [1] three countries – Australia, Singapore and Malaysia;

- [2] two race/ethnic groups – Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian¹ and Chinese;
- [3] three religious denominations – Christian, Buddhist and Malay Muslim.

1.5 JUSTIFICATION FOR OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

Foreign nationals have become an important labour resource for today's businesses engaging in a global economy that is competitive and fast changing. As a research topic, FLE has been of interest to scholars through the centuries (Stalker 1994). In the last thirty years or so, the trail of research conducted on FLE and its corollaries has been prolific. To a large extent, this has been fuelled by the growing commissions from governments (Castles 1987, 1989; Nayagam 1992; Pang 1988) and international regulatory bodies such as International Labour Organisation (Abella 1989, 1991, 1997; Bohning 1996; Stalker 1994, 2000), International Organisation for Migration (Appleyard 1991), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (Appleyard 1989; Kassim 2002; Pang 1993; Wickramasekara 2001), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (Appleyard 1988; Stahl 1988) and The World Bank (Ruppert 1999).

According to Castles and Miller (2003), Papastergiadis (2000), Stahl (1988) and Stalker (1994, 2000) amongst other authors, the interest has been sparked also by the magnitude of population movements worldwide resulting from post-World War II globalisation amidst political upheavals in the former Soviet Bloc, South Africa, Latin America and China. More importantly, it has become a cause arising out of concern [1] for the discrimination, exploitation, mistreatment and abuse of foreign workers in labour receiving countries and [2] to improve the welfare of foreign workers in third world nations.

The research on FLE has been extensive in covering various domains (individual, gender, occupational, organisational, community/national, regional and international), with empirical and theoretical explanations on the totality of the FLE phenomenon taking inter- as well as multi-disciplinary approaches. Incorporated in

¹ The Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (2001) refers to the term *Caucasian* as the 'white' race or people from Europe, North Africa and Western Asia. Whilst 'Caucasian' is the general term employed in countries such as Singapore and Malaysia, further distinctions based on country of origin are made in Australia. According to Price (1991), the reference to 'Anglo-Celtic' is synonymous with Anglo-Australia as it expresses recognition of homogeneity among all people who come from or are descended from the United Kingdom and Ireland.

the research also have been agents such as multinational corporations, international labour regulatory bodies, labour recruiting networks and trade unions. However, prior studies bear mainly upon the advantages and disadvantages of FLE from the economic, political or social viewpoints, focusing on foreign workers in receiving labour countries or on (local) workers in hosting countries of multinational corporations.

From the beginning, this thesis had aimed to consider FLE in its entirety. It is important to understand the changes that have taken place in FLE and the impact it has made on work, the workplace environment and individuals, on the personal as well as on the organisational, societal and global levels. These effects have to be considered in terms of receiving/hosting² as well as sending nations of foreign labour. Because of this, it became necessary for FLE to be defined as a construct that took into account foreign workers employed not only within the country but also in other countries. Those employed *within the country* refers to skilled and unskilled foreign nationals who had either been brought in or hired whilst they were already in the country. Those employed *in other countries* pertains to (local) workers of that country hired for (a) out-sourced work (b) offshore branch operations (c) relocated foreign companies, within their country. In all, FLE is characterised in seven different categories.

The growing attention from both the public and academia directed at the shortfalls in the morality standards of business conduct has made pertinent a survey of prevailing attitudes and ethics amongst managers. There has also been the growing call for cross-cultural research and a greater cultural sensitivity for issues related to business ethics in recent times. All in all, these circumstances have made this an opportune time to investigate the FLE attitudes and ethical stances of managers from distinctly dissimilar cultures such as those recognised between the east and west. This has not been canvassed before as a topic of investigation even though research done on FLE is not only expansive but also very comprehensive.

The main sample in the study was sourced from three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia), two race/ethnic groups (Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian and Chinese) and two religious denominations (Christian and Buddhist) to enable a

² Labour *receiving* countries are those which employ workers from other countries whereas labour *hosting* countries are those that have their local population employed by foreign subsidiaries located within their borders.

factorial analysis of a cross-combination of seven variables [see Figure 1.2 & app. I.1]. These three countries were selected because they share some common features. All three were former British colonies and subsequently inherited the same legal, political and education systems. With early beginnings as migrant settler colonies, these three countries have now become multicultural nations (Baker 1999; Castles 1992; Chiew 1995; DIMA 2001a; Leggett 1993; Turnbull 1980). Despite these similarities, Australia is known as a western cultured society whereas Singapore and Malaysia represent eastern cultured societies. Although the latter two nations comprise three major people groups of similar race/ethnic and religious origins, Singapore is recognised as predominantly a Chinese Buddhist country whilst Malaysia is acknowledged as a Malay Muslim country (Baker 1999; Lian 1995; MDS 2005a; SDS 2005a; Turnbull 1980). Australia is regarded essentially an Anglo Christian nation (Milner & Quilty 1996; Yearbook Australia 2005).

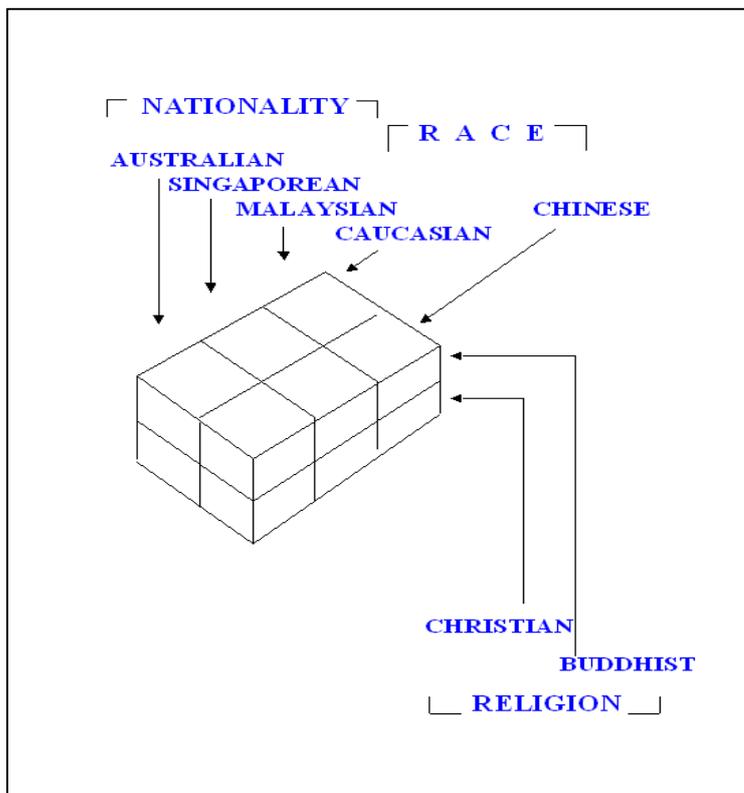


Figure 1.2: Factorial Design of the Combination of Seven Variables

At the initial stage of investigation, the plan was to gather from two countries (Australia and Singapore), samples comprising cross-combinations of three race/ethnic (Caucasian, Chinese and Malay) and three religious (Christian, Buddhist and Muslim) groups. This was abandoned when participants of Malay and Muslim cross-combinations could not be obtained from both countries. The study proceeded with two race/ethnic (Caucasian and Chinese) and two religious (Christian and Buddhist) cross-combination variable group samples from three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia) instead. A small Malay Muslim sample was also obtained from Malaysia given that this race/ethnic and religious group forms the majority in the country.

Executives (for example, Managing Directors) and Human Resource Managers were the choice of participants because of their direct experience with labour employment. Even though these participants were assessed on their ethical perceptions concerning FLE, Burns and Brady (1996) contended that these would be more reliable than those obtained from a sample of respondents with no personal experience of the situation they were being questioned about, for example, students. It is important to note also that judgements of responsibility tend to be influenced by role expectations based on professional as well as organisational rank/position (Akaah & Riordan 1989; Ferrell & Gresham 1985). That is, these individuals at higher hierarchical levels might be held to stricter moral standards (Trevino 1992). Therefore, it could be inferred that their responses on the subject of FLE would carry a greater degree of reliability as well as validity.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH

1.6.1 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The subject of FLE has captured the interest of academia as well as national and international regulatory bodies concerned namely with trade, employment and migration issues. As a consequence, research on FLE of recent years has been substantive with the majority of publications focusing on the issues and problems associated with foreign worker employment. However, no attempts have as yet been made at investigating contemporary attitudes or ethics concerning FLE. This thesis

was aimed at filling this gap by its comparative cultural investigation of managerial attitudes and ethics among three countries, two race/ethnic groups and three religious denominations in the employment of seven categories of foreign workers.

It has been said that attitudes cannot be relied on for determining behavioural outcome because people might not always do, as they believe. Nonetheless, they can give an indication of people's predisposition to act in a certain way to a given situation (Allport 1937; Mann 1969; Oskamp 1991). According to Alreck and Settle (1995), attitudes are 'psychological predispositions' (p. 13) because they can affect the way individuals will act. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) viewed attitudes as 'learned' (p. 113) response tendencies whilst Eagly and Chaiken (1998) stated that they function to facilitate adaptation to the environment. To top it all, Oskamp (1991) and Rajecki (1990) indicated that attitudes have significant effects on how situations are perceived and consequently the stances and evaluations corporate individuals form will guide decision-making and behavioural outcomes, ethical or otherwise. Knowles (1990) stated that the judgements and decisions play a pivotal role in affecting the effectiveness of the organisation, which in turn can create ripple effects within the immediate society and its surrounds.

The concept of culture acknowledges that individuals from different backgrounds are exposed to different traditions, heritages, rituals, customs and religions. These factors establish and provide various learning environments and histories and contribute in turn to significant variations in moral standards, beliefs and behaviours (Lu, Rose & Blodgett 1999). Studying the issue of foreign employment in a comparative cultural setting provides for a better understanding of differing cultural and ethical values which is necessary for improving the general mentality and for fostering a spirit of tolerance essential for international harmony. In view of the growing trade with Asia and rising employment numbers of Asian workers by companies from Western countries, this is important. As Kluckhohn (1961) stated, 'only those who are both well-informed and well-intentioned will have the understanding necessary for the building of bridges between different ways of life' (p. 209).

1.6.2 CONCEPTUAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Lu et al. (1999) stated that cross-cultural differences in ethical beliefs have become an important emerging area of research. Current studies, however, suffered from two limitations. Firstly, these studies have been utilising nationality as a proxy for culture. In so doing, there is no overall framework for determining which particular dimensions of culture cause differences in ethical decision-making (EDM). Without this framework, these researchers contended that it would not be possible to make generalisations (ibid). Goodwin and Goodwin (1999) found that ethical attitudes were affected not just by nationality but also by ethnic origin and religion.

Secondly, with the notable exception of the study by Nyaw and Ng (1994), previous investigations have failed to take into consideration the stakeholder group(s) that were affected. This in itself would not place EDM in its proper context whilst making assessment and comparison of the degree of ethical/unethical behaviour across cultures impossible. Nyaw and Ng (1994) argued that measuring ethical beliefs in terms of stakeholder groups makes for better validity because respondents' perceptions toward specific issues such as bribery and fraud tend to depend, *inter alia*, on who was affected by the behaviour. Lu et al. (1999) suggested that it could well be that individuals would be more willing to undertake unethical behaviours toward a competitor or an employer but less willing to do so if such behaviours affected a fellow employee or a customer.

These two limitations were taken on board and the present empirical investigation sought to make its main contribution by firstly, examining the attitudes and ethics of managers toward an important stakeholder group - foreign workers. Secondly, the empirical investigation aimed at making a conceptual contribution by focusing on the three main variables of country, race/ethnicity and religion (as suggested by Goodwin & Goodwin 1999) for cross-cultural analysis. These three main variables along with other socio-biographical variables such as gender, age etc. have been noted in several EDM models and they support the theory, which proposes differences in attitudes, ethics and behaviours are attributed to culture.

1.7 GUIDE TO THE THESIS

In this first chapter, FLE was introduced as an alternative source of labour supply that has fast been gaining popularity in a growing and changing global economy. Owing to this and the vested interests amongst local, national and international business, government and non-government associates, it has also become a significant research topic with scholars and non-scholars alike. Whilst these two reasons could have contributed to the birth of this thesis, the objectives were not to add on more research to the ever-increasing volume of investigation on FLE (as outlined in this chapter). Instead, this thesis was geared towards a new perspective of looking at how culture might affect managerial attitudes and ethics on FLE. The findings could serve to improve our cognisance of the cultural differences that exist in attitudes and ethics and these include those not related to FLE as well.

Chapter II describes the forces that affect the cycle of FLE. Beginning with global migration history and colonisation in the sixteenth century, FLE had been mostly 'forced and coercive' (Stalker 1994). It has since progressively become more voluntary, economic related employment. International migration, the global market environment, international regulatory bodies, technological development and its impact on work and the workplace operate at the global level to affect FLE at the country, organisation and individual levels. FLE affects individuals not only in labour receiving and hosting countries but also in labour sending countries. These effects can be positive as well as negative. The unsavoury aspects of FLE, most unfortunately, tend to be experienced more by individuals of the fairer sex, the unskilled and the illegals.

Chapter III reviews the three countries of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia with regards to country population and labour force, religion, immigration policy and FLE.

Chapter IV makes a comprehensive examination of the literature on ethical decision models to discuss the contingency factors that impact on ethical decision making in the individual with regards to FLE. The contingency factors, derived from the individual, organisation and environment, operate in a symbiotic manner and can bring about necessary changes in attitudes, ethical stances, decisions and behaviour outcomes. Ethical theories pertinent to the thesis are reviewed.

Chapter V introduces a theoretical framework proposing that attitudes and ethical stances of managers toward FLE can differ because of culture operating at eight different levels. The research questions and hypotheses are also introduced.

Chapter VI presents the research methodology and empirical results in a single chapter because of the complexities involved in this multiple stages study. In three separate sections, Part One focuses on the qualitative interview sample of Australians, Part Two is on the two case studies of Singaporeans and Part Three concentrates on the quantitative survey sample comprising respondents from Australia, Singapore and Malaysia.

Discussion of the empirical results takes place in Chapter VII and is followed on by conclusive statements on the research in Chapter VIII.

CHAPTER II

FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT – FORCES AND EFFECTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

FLE can be seen as an occurrence involving people (or business) movement from one country to another for economic-related employment. But individuals (or organisations) by themselves represent only one level of factors engaged in the cycle of foreign worker employment. Global, country, organisational and individual factors interact to simultaneously ‘force’ a greater or lesser movement in the overall FLE cycle (discussion in Section 1.3).

This chapter will discuss the corollary factors and their effects on FLE by a review of [1] the theoretical models that explain migration and [2] the impact caused by globalisation, technological development and international migration. The effects of FLE are also important and these will need to be considered in regards to work and the workplace environment, individuals as foreign workers, labour receiving, sending and hosting countries.

2.2 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT AND MIGRATION – THEORETICAL MODELS

Never before our time have so many people been uprooted. Emigration, forced or chosen, across national frontiers or from village to metropolis, is the quintessential experience of our time.

- Berger (1984), *And Our Faces, My Heart, Brief as Photos*

Migration is an essential forerunner of FLE. That is, FLE cannot happen without emigration on the part of the individual (or organisation) and this in itself can explain the conception of the term *migrant labour*, which is so much more favoured by present day authors. As a concept, FLE is in strict reference to the employment of nationals of other countries. Migrant labour, on the other hand, has been a concept that includes employment together with settlement, which could be temporary or permanent, of the individual who has emigrated.

Many theoretical models have been developed within the social-scientific disciplines to explain migration. These can be categorised into three main perspectives: [1] voluntarist, [2] structuralist and [3] systems. Despite their limitations, the relevant contribution given from each perspective will be discussed in order to foster a better understanding of the relationship between migration and FLE and amongst the key players: migrants, business organisations and the sending and receiving nations.

The voluntarist perspective views migration as the consequence of ‘twin and counterbalancing forces’ and is thus best characterised by the ‘push-pull’ model (Papastergiadis 2000, p. 30). According to Castles and Miller (2003), migration alone can hardly ever be simply an action on the part of the individual to move from their area of origin. Stalker (2000, p. 131) suggested that migration might be the decision-making by family or household members rather than by individual choice. Whatever the case may be, individuals get ‘pushed’ out because of

- [1] underlying forces (eg. overcrowding, low living standards, lack of economic opportunities, political repression or ecological disasters);
- [2] medium-term crises (associated with the downward turn of economic cycle);
- [3] enabling components (including technological changes, for example, shift from tall ships to steamships in transport).

They would be ‘pulled’ to certain new areas by the

- [1] preferential immigration policies offered by the country;
- [2] economic benefits in the forms of state incentives or attraction to improve on life chances found in availability of employment, economic opportunities, land, political freedom, etc.;
- [3] personal contacts in securing passage and resettlement assistance.

Movements of individuals would thus be from rural peasant economies towards industrial urban centres, from densely to sparsely populated areas or from low- to high-income areas and these could be associated with fluctuations in the business cycles (Castles & Miller 2003, p. 20-22; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 30; Stahl 1988, p. 11).

Whilst this might describe many economic migration patterns, the model certainly does not account for others such as those arising from social and cultural

differences or following earlier trajectories, according to Papastergiadis (2000, p. 31). He added that the push-pull model's main emphasis on the individual and their calculation of economic opportunity (or utility maximising) is limited. This is because it presupposes that the labour market is free and the only constraints upon that freedom are the differential resources of individuals and the imposition of state regulation. Ultimately, the model is suggesting that external constraints determine the directions and flows of migration (ibid, p. 30-31; Borjas 1989, p. 461).

This push-pull model can also be applied to an organisation. That is, businesses could be 'pushed' to look for an alternative source of labour when they meet with difficulty in finding local workers who would be prepared to do work that is physically onerous or associated with 'flexible' or 'seasonal' short periods. On the other hand, the need to look to foreign labour could be due to the lack or shortage of skill(s) available in the country (Papastergiadis 2000, p. 30; Stalker 2000, p. 133). Businesses would be 'pulled' to employ the cheaper labour resources in another country when escalating domestic wages begin to affect production costs and thereby their competitiveness in the global market (Bailey & Parisotto 1993, p. 145).

It is also possible to explain the motivations of labour sending and receiving nations by the push-pull factor theory. For example, the push effect of a dissatisfied labour force from sending (donating) countries can be seen to be in response to the pull effect of employment and other economic opportunities from receiving countries. Castles and Miller (2003) stated that the states of both nations play an important role in initiating, shaping and controlling labour and organisation movements in and out of their country. This role may assume a greater prominence for labour receiving rather than sending countries because as the labour recruiter on behalf of domestic employers, the former is able to mediate the demand for foreign workers along with other considerations such as demographic, humanitarian, etc. issues. But when countries 'donate' labour or play host to multinationals, they are in better command to sanction the establishment of "foreign" organisations in their environment.

It can be noted that whether applied to the individual, organisation or nation, the voluntarist perspective is narrow in its scope of explanations as it neglects to consider the other factors such as gender, race, class, status, history etc., that can impinge on migration, FLE and policy formation (Papastergiadis 2000). Economics as the dominant criterion in voluntarist theory has contributed to a language of

analysis that tends to marginalise these factors. These same criticisms have also been directed at the models within the structuralist perspective (ibid, p. 33-36).

The structuralist perspective has come largely from the influential work of Stephen Castles' account of postwar European migration and Karl Marx's capitalist politico-economic systems theory (Castles & Miller 2003, p. 20-27; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 32).

Castles and Kosack (1973) argued that a model drawn from political economics would explain the movement of labour better as they were situated within the context of global and national economic systems. Instead of the individual and singular choices of migrants seen in the voluntarist perspective, these trajectories were described in terms of economic differentials between developing and industrialised countries. They were not viewed as a 'one-off' (ibid, p. 32) event but as a dynamic process, whose size and direction were impacted by the dual forces of state regulation and industrial development. Most important were the linkage between state-driven immigration policies and the structural forces of capitalist expansion. By regulating the flows of migrant labour in response to the needs of the economy in the post-war years, the state was 'basically underwriting the interests of capital' (ibid, p. 32). The state was, as Papastergiadis (2000, p. 32) explained, 'the conduit by which capital could draw a supply of cheap labour in times of need, and also the valve that could restrict flow in times of economic recession and stagnation'.

The relationship between the structural position of the migrant workers and their general patterns of movement developed under western capitalism is better explained by Marx's concept of the 'reserve army' (ibid, p. 32), which comes in three forms.

- [1] *The floating surplus population* consists of workers taken on in times of business growth or dismissed in times of recession.
- [2] *The latent surplus* comprises rural displaced workers seeking work in urban industries.
- [3] *The stagnant surplus* is made up of the most marginalised of workers.

Available cheap and indispensable labour is necessary for industrial expansion. Migrant labour meets this precondition and tends to follow a course of exploitation that is often viewed as an uneven exchange between receiving and sending nations, whereby the latter's loss is twofold. The receiving nation's gain of

cheap labour is obtained at the sending nation's expense, both in terms of costs (production as well as reproduction) and sacrifice of the most dynamic members from its labour force (ibid, p. 33).

Both Castles' and Marx's contribution to the historical-structuralist approach accounts for mass labour migration as a legacy of colonialism and consequences of war and regional inequalities. The basic tenets of this approach was incorporated within the migration systems perspective to support the idea that migratory movements generally occur because of previous ties between sending and receiving nations, either from colonisation, political influence, trade, investment or cultural links (Castles & Miller 2003). Stahl (1991, p. 32) had likewise suggested that migratory flows ought to be viewed as the product of some historical connection, whether they be social, cultural, political and economic between sending and receiving countries.

Migration, in the systems perspective, is an exchange of individuals between two or more nations. By investigating both ends of the flow and all the linkages between the areas involved, this perspective takes into account the result of interacting macro- and micro-structures. Macro-structures refer to larger-scale institutional factors such as the political economy of the world market, interstate relationships, policies set up in place by the states of sending and receiving nations to control migrant settlement and employment. Microstructures include the formal economic and informal social networks, practices and beliefs of the migrants themselves that are linked to vital resources related to migration, settlement and economic opportunities. The systems perspective of migration thus emphasises international relations, political economy, collective action and institutional factors (Castles & Miller 2003).

From this perspective, as Papastergiadis (2000, p. 35) indicated, migration comes to be viewed as 'a multi-vectorial phenomenon' whereby change is understood as the by-product of interaction rather than the imposition of external forces on predefined subjects. Furthermore, acknowledgment of the relative autonomy of culture within this non-mechanistic perspective does not allow for the identity of the migrants to become subordinate to external categories but to be formed out of their own experience of movement and settlement (ibid, p. 35). In the words of Berger and Mohr (1975, p. 41):

A man's resolution to emigrate needs to be seen within the context of a world economic system. Not in order to reinforce a political theory but so that what actually happens to him can be given its proper value.

2.3 GLOBALISATION, TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IMPACT ON FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT BEFORE 1914

The central focus of many contemporary authors on the period following World War II can mislead many readers into believing that globalisation, as the process involving labour migration or the international division of labour along with the spread of industrialisation and the integration of economies worldwide, is a recent phenomenon. Kaur (2000, 2004) was quick to point out that *globalisation* which means ‘the integration of separate national markets into a single global marketplace with cross-border flows of goods, capital and people’ (p. 3), has an earlier history. He advised that the period from around 1840 to 1914 was significant because it drew Asia and Africa into the “old” (Kaur 2004, p. 4) international division of labour and integrated their economies with those of Europe and the United States. This was a period of “imperial-led” (ibid, p. 3) globalisation, trade and capital flows from Europe or the era best recognised as the formal domination of European colonial powers in Asia and Africa.

Even so, Papastergiadis (2000) promulgated that global migration history has commonly been accepted to begin in the sixteenth century when tall ships were invented, including improvements to cartography and navigation, which made transoceanic trade and migration more viable. The global domination by the British and Venetians, for example, was distinct because western capitalism was linked to the control over mercantile ports and shipping routes rather than mere consolidation of a land base through territorial expansion. Most of the migration from this period (until much of the twentieth century according to Stalker 1994, p. 13) was ‘forced and coercive’ (ibid, p. 25). Colonialism and the demand for unskilled labour resulted in slavery and indentured labour and when these were gradually eliminated with the advent of Christianity and Islam, obligated (corvée in Dutch Java) and convict labour were used to develop the colonial settlements (Kaur 2004, p. 21-24; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 25-27; Stalker 1994, p. 12-13). European colonialism also generated many

forms of migrant employment when sailors, soldiers, farmers, traders, priests and administrators migrated from Europe, first to Africa and Asia, later to the Americas and then to Oceania. These overseas migrations resulted in significant changes, both in the economic structures as well as in the cultures of European sending countries and the colonies (Castles & Miller 2003, p. 49-51).

Colonisation was not the only process that generated a mass migration of people in these earlier centuries. According to Papastergiadis (2000), 'the process of industrialisation and depeasantization of the west' (p. 27), which took place from the early nineteenth to mid-twentieth century, also brought about a mass exodus transfer from rural communities to new urban centres of the industrialising nations within Europe as well as internationally. Stalker (1994, p. 13-16) suggested that the onset of industrialisation was marked by the year when railway tracks first exceeded 1,000 kilometres, starting with the British Isles in 1838 and the whole of Europe by 1879. During the period of industrial transformation (1846-1924), about 48 million people or roughly 12 per cent of the population in Europe at 1900 left the continent. Rural poverty and crop failures like the potato famine, which affected Ireland in 1845-47, also contributed to this impetus for mass migration.

As it happened, Kaur (2004) disclosed, the global economy was impacted not only by this outmigration from Europe to the New World but also by the outflows from China and India into Southeast Asia. Large-scale migration associated with poverty, overpopulation and political dissension inflated the workforce numbers of most Southeast Asian colonies and caused them to grow in importance in the world economy (Kaur 2004; Tan 1986).

Labour migration for this period (1840-1914) was significantly different from earlier migrations because it gave rise to two new groups in the migration process, that is, apart from the migrants. The first group was the private labour brokers and recruitment agencies that organised travel arrangements and employment. The second group consisted of state officials. The process also saw labour depots (warehouses) and immigration funds being set up. Of the migration networks, those recruiting workers from China, India and Java were notable for facilitating the flexible use of the migrant labour force in Southeast Asia (Kaur 2000, p. 7-8). These two migration network groups continued to grow and by the mid-twentieth century, developed into an important industry responsible for the outflows from many third

world countries such as the Philippines, Thailand, Bangladesh etc. (Stalker 2000, p.122-128).

An era (1914-1945) of trade restrictions and protectionism followed the end of the First World War. This led to the banning of indentured labour migration and mass repatriation of workers to their countries of origin. Some countries such as Malaya, Burma and Thailand, imposed restrictions on economic migration and foreign labour employment. However, following the end of the Second World War, the dominant world powers of the United States, Britain etc., moved to reinstate globalisation to aid war-ravaged countries and to assist with the economic development of many less-developed countries (Kaur 2000, p. 17-18).

2.4 GLOBALISATION, TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IMPACT ON FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT FROM 1945 ONWARDS

The process of globalisation that occurred after World War II took on a 'new international economic order' (Kaur 2000, p. 17), known otherwise as the 'new imperialism' (Wood 2003, p. 9). In the words of Smith (1990), the world became anew with 'economic giants and superpowers, of multinationals and military blocs, of vast communication networks and international division of labour' (p. 174).

Instead of European colonialism, the world economy began to be monopolised by multi- or trans-national corporations (MNCs or TNCs) of industrialised countries from Europe, United States and Japan (Bailey & Parisotto 1993, p. 140; Castles 1989, p. 1; Kaur 2000, 2004; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 81; Stalker 1994, p. 29). There has been a continuous growth of multinationals, both in size and numbers, and in recent years this has been taking place even in newly industrialising economies and developing countries in Latin America, South Asia and South Africa (Debrah & Smith 2002; Dow & Parker 2001).

Three factors have contributed to effect this new 'shift towards a more integrated and interdependent world economy' (Hill's 2001 economic understanding of globalisation). The first was the liberalising of international trade restrictions such as lower tariffs and deregulation of currency controls, which encouraged foreign direct investment (FDI) and trade growth around the globe. The second was that with

such pervasive adoption of free market ideology there was a greater need for organisations to become more competitive on price, productivity and profits, both locally as well as internationally. The third was technological advancements that have been instrumental in not only reducing much of the cost but also increasing the efficiency of global communications, information processing and transportation, especially that of air, shipping and freight (Debrah & Smith 2002, p. 2-5).

Together these factors have enabled multinationals to make quite an impact on the international economy, both in terms of their contribution to national outputs and employment (Panic 2003). According to Korten (2001), approximately 70 per cent of the world trade is being managed by 500 multinationals. Seventy of the largest multinationals, Handy (1998, p. 76) asserted, have revenues larger than the GNP of Cuba. Findlay (1993, p. 153) suggested that the largest companies in the world have labour forces that are many times the size of the populations from some of the world's smaller nations.

The employment and deployment of personnel from multinationals around the globe has contributed to the rise of an international form of labour employment, more commonly referred to as the 'new international division of labour' by many present day authors such as Kaur (2000), Stalker (1994), Papastergiadis (2000), Castles (1989) and Findlay (1993).

Findlay (1993) acknowledged Petras' (1981) work as one of the first to make the link between the hierarchical system of large-scale production and patterns and types of labour migration. Technological progress has made specialisation of the production process possible, adding at the same time not only to its differentiation but also to its task and labour content. As companies grew in size, expanding from regional multi-branches into multinationals, larger scale production inevitably promoted greater specialisation of tasks and more skilled workers. But more importantly, the changes in technology (mechanisation, improved international communication and transportation) and the evolution of new management forms permitted the spatial separation of production functions from those of management and research and development. Fundamentally, this is what has transformed the organisation of the patterns of production on a global scale (Findlay 1993, p. 153-154).

According to Stalker (1994, p. 37), even while multinationals tended to keep their corporate headquarters and most research functions in the country of origin,

their steady dispersion of manufacturing, distribution and sales operations worldwide have caused a corresponding distribution of personnel internationally. For example, a survey of 190 American companies conducted by the US Employment Relocation Council in 1982 indicated that of the American expatriates, 30 per cent were in Europe, 20 per cent in Asia and 15 per cent in Central and South America.

The temporary movements-cum-transfers of professionals (known also as 'professional transients' by Appleyard 1989, p. 32) do not just take place within the same company (Stalker 1994, p. 38; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 40). Many appointments have been carried out by international recruitment agencies, largely specialising in matching specific countries or industries with high-technology personnel. The increasingly integrated nature of higher education has been another way by which the flows of professionals have been encouraged. Students pursuing higher studies in Western universities make up a labour reserve, which is receiving similar methods in training in a common language and thus provide a ready pool of substitutable workers (Stalker 1994, p. 38).

From the 1960s, these flows have together generated a growing class of professionals or highly qualified technicians/specialists in addition to the predominantly and ever increasing class of low and semi-skilled foreign workers (Findlay 1993). The latter comprises not only of labour migrants driven by economic opportunities but also of illegal or undocumented immigrants, asylum seekers and refugees. In the final decades of the last century, the general tightening of entry labour quotas by many countries around the globe has led to the swelling numbers of clandestine foreign workers. Ecological disasters, wars and political/geopolitical crises in, for example, Europe, Africa, Latin America and China, have also caused unprecedented numbers of asylum seekers and refugees to abandon their home countries for neighbouring countries as well as classical countries of immigration like USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Castles & Miller 2003, p. 5; Debrah & Smith 2002; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 38-43; Stalker 1994, p. 4).

Stalker (2000, p. 6) stated that the total migrant stock grew from 75 to 120 million between 1965 and 1990, which approximates a 1.9 per cent rise per year. Papastergiadis (2000, p. 10) reported that a figure of 100 million international migrants, 27 million of whom are stateless refugees, meant that there were more people living in areas outside of their homeland than at any previous point in history.

Temporary and clandestine arrival of immigrant workers is gradually replacing legal settlement.

Skeldon (1995, p. 532-536) declared that there has been a major global change of international population movements over the past two and a half decades. Instead of migrations out of Europe across the Atlantic and to Australasia, the movements have become trans-Pacific movement out of Asian countries to traditional destinations for European settlement. Papastergiadis (2000, p. 38) added that the manufacturing base of the global economy's move to the Pacific Rim in the early 1980s directed greater flows of migrations towards and within non-western directions.

Since 1945, international employment related migration has increased significantly and thus been identified as one of the important factors in global change (Castles & Miller 2003). Comparisons made recently of these movements have shown five general tendencies that will likely be, according to Castles and Miller (2003, p. 4-16), pivotal for global migration in the next 20 years.

- [1] *Globalisation of migration* – Migratory movements are affecting nations worldwide, whether they are countries of emigration, receiving/hosting or both. Entrants have been coming from an increasingly diversity of areas of origin and possessing a broad spectrum of economic, social and cultural backgrounds. Growing ethnic diversity within the society will prove to be challenges for social policies and national identity.
- [2] *Acceleration of migration* – The expanding volume of migrations taking place in all major regions presently has intensified the urgency and difficulties of government policies curb on international migration.
- [3] *Differentiation of migration* – Most countries provide a whole range of immigration possibilities such as labour migration, refugee or permanent settlement etc. Despite government efforts, migratory chains, which might begin with one type of movement typically, continue on to other forms and become a hindrance to national and international policy measures.
- [4] *Feminisation of migration* – Increasingly, women are gaining more prominence in all regions and in all types of migration. Further discussions in the section on 'Foreign Labour Employment Effects on Individuals as Foreign Labour'.

[5] *Politicisation of migration* – Domestic policies, bilateral and regional relationships and national security policies of nations (as with three countries to be reviewed in Chapter III) worldwide are continually affected by international migration.

Likewise, reforming global institutions or international regulatory bodies, for example, the World Trade Organisation, International Labour Organisation, International Monetary Fund, World Bank etc, have effectually during this latter period of globalisation become the watchdogs of global labour migration (Bezuidenhout 2002; Moran 2002). Considered as ‘high-status standard setters’ (Weaver, Trevino & Cochran 1999, p. 43) along with government agencies, professional and accrediting bodies, interest groups and other loci of public opinions, they carry sufficient institutional status to influence formal/informal standards of corporate ethical programs. For example, high publicity by academic researchers and the media on the perils of FLE, particularly of the less-skilled and least-skilled workers in foreign-owned or foreign-controlled organisations who labour for paltry wages in poor unfavourable work conditions and are subject to mistreatment or abuse, contributed greatly to the development of employment and industrial relations obligations and sanctions by these institutions, including core labour standards for multinationals. These developments have been responsible for the growing importance given to international corporate governance and corporate social responsibility issues (Andrews, Chompusri & Baldwin 2003, p. 307; Birch 2001; Blanpain 2000; Moran 2002, p. 2).

2.5 WORK REVOLUTION – TRANSFORMATIONS TO WORK & WORKPLACE – EFFECTS ON FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

Whilst globalisation fuelled by technological progress has caused competition to become more important for businesses, the nature of work and the workplace environment have also changed significantly and affected both organisational and employment practice and relations. These changes were discussed recently by Howe and Howe (2005) in the context of the Australian economy and labour market.

Since the 1980s and 1990s, rates of employment have been declining in primary (agriculture, forestry, mining etc) and secondary (manufacturing) areas of economic production and increasing in tertiary (service) sector employment in all advanced economies (Brown 1997, p. 4). Organisations were also turning away from the Fordist modes of mass manufacturing associated with 'industrial capitalism' (Dow & Parker 2001, p. 4) to systems characterised by smaller scales of production, a leaner and less labour intensive workforce, a greater emphasis on highly and multi-skilled employees and flatter hierarchies.

To compete more effectively in the global market environment, businesses began adopting cost reduction and quality enhancement strategies. Downsizing and more significantly, the introduction of non-standard forms of employment such as temporary and casual contracts provided organisations with greater wage, functional and numerical flexibility and diversity. Organisations were thus able to vary the nature and composition of their workforce, including inter-temporal deployment of workers, to suit labour requirements. The rapid decline in full-time permanent employment gave rise to significant losses in jobs and job security for employees. The growth of management unilateralism in the workplace also contributed to the progressive undermining of the collective bargaining power of unions and consequently, 'the erosion of the psychological contract between employer and employee in terms of reasonable permanent employment for competent work effort' (Debrah & Smith 2002, p. 9).

Subcontracting and outsourcing became prevalent with the advent of e-economy as companies were able to source worldwide and negotiate for the best materials and services at the most competitive price. Physical production and employment sites came to be more globally dispersed as organisations located to gain competitive advantage from countries regulated by advantageous labour policies, manpower costs and taxes. As a matter of course, these developments initiated much growth in the export of low-wage, labour-intensive and low-skilled jobs to low-wage economies as well as accelerated the pace of workers migrating internationally. With employees coming from a myriad of countries, the workforce grew increasingly diverse culturally and this is one of the greatest challenges for business management in this new millennium (ibid, 2002).

2.6 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT EFFECTS ON INDIVIDUALS AS FOREIGN LABOUR

They are coming to offer their labour. Their labour power is ready-made. The industrialised country, whose production is going to benefit from it, has not borne any of the cost of creating it; any more than it will bear the cost of supporting a seriously sick migrant worker, or one who has grown too old to work. So far as the economy of the metropolitan country is concerned, migrant workers are immortal: immortal because continually interchangeable. They are not born: they are not brought up: they do not age: they do not get tired: they do not die. They have a single function – to work. All other functions of their lives are the responsibility of the country they come from.

- Berger & Mohr (1975, p. 64)

As previously explained, individuals undertaking FLE can come in three forms as:

- [1] foreign nationals employed in companies of labour receiving nations;
- [2] locals (natives) who conduct the work that has been subcontracted to their company by a company from another country;
- [3] locals (natives) employed in “foreign-owned” companies or multinational subsidiaries located in their country.

FLE can affect not only the economic but also the social, cultural and physical wellbeing and standing of the individuals in a variety of ways (Stahl 1988; Vasquez 1991). FLE can be a boost for individuals, particularly those from poorer developing nations, according to Tingsabadh (1991). The increased income from foreign employment can provide a greater purchasing power to better their standard of living and social standing as well as give them the opportunity to engage in self-owned enterprises on their return. These benefits often flow onto the children because educational aspirations for them tend to be greater. For these individuals, however, the financial costs involved, for example, in skill training and testing, travel and commission (eg. to recruitment agency) etc., to secure the foreign employment can be so substantial that they might have to borrow or sell their properties. Many foreign workers have needed more than a year on the job to recoup on their investment. In addition, some of these individuals who were cheated by unscrupulous recruiters and ended up with sizeable debts suffered adversely from lack of both material and social welfare (ibid, p. 5-6, 8). Papastergiadis (2000) and Fukushima

(1991) discussed the tragic circumstances when prospective foreign women workers find themselves as victims of traffickers in sex slaves.

Vasquez (1991) stated that the extent of the nature and intensity of problems that foreign workers to receiving nations were inclined to face, both in and outside the work environment, would vary amongst individuals. His study of the social and economic costs and benefits associated with temporary labour emigration from the Philippines suggested that these individuals experienced harsh working conditions and discrimination in the workplace and faced problems of maladjustment and non-acceptance by the hosting community as well. He asserted that both the legal and institutional limits placed by the hosting country upon these workers provide the immediate factors for adaptation or non-adaptation. These restrictions determine the time and location of stay of the foreign worker, the inclusion/exclusion of family members into the country, the frequency and quality of contact with the local community both in and outside the workplace, and the degree of interest the hosting community has in integrating the worker into its society and culture. Other factors related to adaptation include access to education, media and social and support groups.

By way of example, Vasquez (1991) described the employment situation in the Middle East as providing the least reasons and motivations for the socio-cultural adaptation of Filipino foreign workers. Except for those in management positions, most foreign workers were segregated in workers' housing and given no other forms of socialisation other than what was work-related. Restrictions on their physical and social mobility generated boredom and loneliness. In addition, the cases of verbal, physical and sexual abuse amongst foreign domestics, who were mainly women, were not uncommon because of the seclusive nature of their job (ibid, p. 9-10).

Foreign workers also suffer from the strain of separation from the family for lengthy periods although modern technology by way of cheaper air travel and communications have alleviated this to some degree. Nevertheless, this problem could be exacerbated by marriage break up resulting from the separation or infidelity (ibid, p. 12).

The conditions of remuneration, work environment and treatment foreign workers attain in exchange for their labour rest on several factors, such as

- [1] employing organisation;
- [2] nationality, in terms of the country/region of origin as well as whether it is an industrialised or developing nation;
- [3] race/ethnicity;
- [4] religion;
- [5] age;
- [6] social class/status, which is closely related to skill;
- [7] gender;
- [8] status of employment (ie legal or illegal).

The literature pertaining to the conditions of remuneration and work environment, including the overall treatment given to foreign labour has concentrated on four of these factors – nationality, skill, gender and legal/illegal employment. In the ensuing sections considering FLE effects on labour receiving and sending countries, as well as on hosting countries of multinationals, discussions will focus on the impact of nationality and skill on gender and legal employment. The interest of the next two sections will be on foreign female and undocumented/illegal workers.

2.6.1 WOMEN

According to Stalker (1994, p. 106), a growing proportion of international migrants is made up of women. Of the 77 million people enumerated outside their country of birth between 1970 and 1986, 48 per cent were women (United Nations 1990). Castles and Miller (2003) affirmed that women's increasing role in labour migration is causing a 'feminisation of migration' (p. 9).

In any case, Sutdhibhasilp's (2002) opening statement, to her review of *Women, Gender and Labour Migration*, declared that before the mid-1970s, historians gave little acknowledgment to women as 'autonomous migrants to fulfil labour needs' (p. 228) because they regarded migration as a gender-neutral process with men as the primary migrants. Bretell and Simon (1986) concurred that women were 'essentially left out of theoretical thinking' and even when they have been considered, they were portrayed either as 'non-migrants' waiting in sending areas for the return of their spouses or as 'passive reactors' accompanying a male migrant

(ibid, p. 3). They claimed that this was despite Ravenstein's (1885) British Isles study a century ago, which had vouched for the similar male and female immigrant numbers and in some instances, including in the United States, greater female migrant numbers were experienced by receiving countries (ibid, p. 4). Nonetheless, Sharpe (2001) considered that the twentieth century has signalled 'a turning point towards far greater female migration over long distances' (p. 1).

According to Stalker (1994), women might have had to consider employment in other countries when deteriorating economic conditions in the home country made it necessary for them to help out with family survival. Likewise, wives who accompany their foreign working husbands might have taken on employment in the country of settlement because of higher living costs or to recoup migration repayments etc. (ibid, p. 106-108). These reasons are also linked with their desire to accumulate savings for their eventual return (Bretell & Simon 1986, p. 8).

Stalker (1994) had indicated that foreign labour demands in areas that females typically dominate (domestic service, entertainment and service sectors) have created more opportunities for women to work (p. 106). However, according to Bretell and Simon (1986), these jobs are at the lowest levels in the labour force hierarchy and offer little by way of security and benefits. By virtue of their status as foreigners, immigrants and women, foreign women workers are inclined to find employment as poorly paid domestics, cleaners in public buildings, waitresses or sewing machine operators etc. They are also more likely to experience double or triple discrimination as a result of their country of origin and class status (ibid, p. 10).

Bretell and Simon (1986) viewed female emigration as having much to do with their "lot" (p. 5) as women. That is, whilst they might have had to escape from economic, political or religious oppression, they could have needed to do so from other forms unique to women such as sexual harassment etc. Even though these motives might appear secondary to economic ones, they should not be ignored (ibid, p. 5).

Stalker (1994) contended that better education and exposure to Western media have given rise to the need for women to want greater independence and personal fulfilment. These women might not be escaping from lack of employment in their country but from frustration with the social restrictions placed on women in their society (ibid, p. 107). Women from more traditional countries who went on their own to the city and find themselves out of work might not be able to return to

their rural hometown. Either because they have become “culturally distanced” (ibid, p. 28) from their home communities or put their chances of marriage in jeopardy, these women are left with no choice except to seek employment overseas (Stalker 1994, 2000).

Stalker (2000) suggested that employment in export-processing zones (EPZs) or other transnational enterprises (deemed as ‘the feminisation of labour in manufacturing’ by Kaur 2000, p. 21) might have provided women with an alternative to migration. EPZs play an important role in bringing women into the labour force. The majority employed in EPZs or the Mexican *maquiladoras* tend to be young women aged between 16 to 25 years who come from rural areas. They are preferred by employers because of their willingness to adapt to the monotony of the production line and work for low wages. These women are known also for their industriousness, reliability and quick learning. Nevertheless, many do not stay beyond the age of 25 due to the tough working conditions and long hours (ibid, p. 71). Morokvasic (1984) declared that industrial employment is an alternative to domestic service and represented the first job for many young women in developing countries.

Moran (2002) affirmed that foreign-owned or subcontractor export plants have provided employment access for an otherwise “repressed segment” (p. 15) of the labour force. For example, the employment of single Muslim females in factories as a consequence of lobbying from foreign investors and local subcontractors resulted in women making up about 95 per cent of the 1.4-million garment-sector employees in Bangladesh. Furthermore, surveys have indicated that factory work offered female workers in Asia and Latin America a measure of autonomy, status and self-respect that otherwise would be difficult to obtain. No doubt factory work have militated against early marriage and affected the overall population birth rate (ibid, p. 15-16).

2.6.2 UNDOCUMENTED/ILLEGAL WORKERS

According to Smart and Casco (1988), the volume of undocumented/illegal labour flows is considerable despite the lack of reliable statistics. This is because whilst growing numbers, particularly from the high birth-rate regions of Africa, Asia and the Americas, are attempting to improve their material circumstances by seeking

foreign employment, countries are at the same time tightening their quotas on migrant intake for both political and economic reasons (ibid, p. 8-9). Castles and Miller (2003) also attested to the growing significance of large-scale illegal labour migration to major immigrant countries.

One of the conclusions drawn by The 1991 Conference on International Manpower Flows and Foreign Investment in the Asian Region Report (p. 2) was that illegal workers, especially the unskilled, could serve important labour needs. Employers from areas of labour shortages in particular, are actively recruiting illegal migrants, preferring them because of their industriousness and willingness to accept low wages and work in substandard conditions (DIMA 1999b; Smart & Casco 1988). Nagayama (1991) stated that in many instances, these employers are in collaboration with labour placement agents who also exploit these illegal migrant workers. As clandestine workers, these individuals are unable to enjoy primary rights/benefits and restricted to construction, manufacturing, plantation and service sectors that pay wages well below the normal rates and are given to harsh labouring conditions. Other than entering the country clandestinely, foreign workers can become considered as “illegal” when they

- [1] are employed without working permits;
- [2] overstay on their visas;
- [3] change their residence “status” without proper authorisation;
- [4] contravene domestic law (ibid, p. 4-12).

2.7 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT EFFECTS ON LABOUR RECEIVING COUNTRIES

The most obvious impact that foreign workers employed in receiving countries have is on the labour force and population. Foreign workers do not only increase the size of the labour force, they can also affect the ‘labour force quality’ (Stalker 1994, p. 48) in terms of its educational, skill and wage levels. In a similar way, foreign workers increase the population numbers and also have influence over the age distribution and ethnic composition of the overall population. Their very presence in the communities of receiving countries can impinge on the predominant social and cultural norms in a positive and/or negative manner.

2.7.1 LABOUR FORCE

Consistently, parliamentary and public debates have raised serious concerns on whether foreign workers [1] take the jobs off from locals, [2] compete with locals for the same jobs and [3] depress overall wage levels.

Stalker (1994) argued that the issue of foreign workers/migrants displacing local workers is unfounded simply because new immigrants commonly work on jobs “shunned” by local workers. These jobs classified as the “3 d’s” – dirty, dangerous and demanding - for example, crop harvesting, dish washing in restaurants, work in manufacturing or construction sites etc. are avoided by workers in Western countries (ibid, p. 52). Comparisons made between local and migrant populations of major receiving nations such as the United States, Canada and Australia had indicated that the immigrant population tended to be concentrated more on the top and bottom ends of the educational and skill spectrum (ibid, p. 48-50). Most countries had a “hierarchy”, according to Stalker (1994, p. 95), whereby the least favoured nationalities were doing the worst jobs. These findings correspond with Marx’s concept of the ‘reserve army’ (Papastergiadis 2000, p. 33, 63).

Stalker (1994) conceded that foreign professionals represented a substantial “brain” gain for receiving countries and most industrialised countries now operate on a steady exchange resulting from emigration and immigration movements (ibid, p. 50). Contrary to popular belief, employers were more likely to employ nationals when given a choice between equally qualified national and non-national workers. By and large, foreign workers face multiple forms of discrimination; from the work they do, their earnings, chances of promotion and also from risks of unemployment. Discrimination revolves around employers’ discomfort and/or doubts with the foreign nationals’ physical characteristics (colour being the most common), language and ability to “fit in” and legal status. (ibid, p. 99-100; Papastergiadis 2000, p. 58).

Stalker (1994) asserted that as immigrants to the receiving country, foreign workers tend to create ‘an employment multiplier effect’ (p. 52) by increasing employment for the local population in white-collar professions such as those found in banking, accountancy and law. They also help to retain jobs that otherwise would go overseas (Stalker 2000, p. 87). When they come in on the bottom rung of the employment ladder, foreigners can effectively promote employment higher up for the locals. A good example is domestic service when the employment of low-skilled

foreigners release highly qualified local women to full-time paid employment. This has become a common feature in the United States and many fast developing countries in Asia (Stalker 1994, p. 52). As well as being (work) producers, foreign workers/migrants are also consumers. Their presence creates employment within the country, for example, food growing and distribution, building of houses, public services such as transportation, health, schooling and education centres (ibid, p. 51).

The rising intake of foreign workers/migrants has raised many objections. Most significantly, the reason has been the intolerable burden they place on public spending for education, health and welfare services. Stalker (1994, p. 56), including Serow, Nam, Sly and Weller (1990, p. 5), contended that these workers were substantial tax contributors and lighter users of public and welfare services than locals.

Another employment concern is that foreign workers, especially those who are prepared to accept low wages could reduce the incomes for the population and inhibit wage rises. Foreign workers, in particular the low and unskilled, do earn much less than locals. The argument stands that if unskilled foreign workers were not available to carry out the “3-d” jobs, employers would be forced to increase the wages of these jobs to make them more attractive for the locals. As Stalker (1994) pointed out, this situation might not happen because of the prejudice against manual repetitive labour resulting from increasing standards of education in all developed countries, including the newly industrialising economies (NIEs) in Asia.

This probably accounts for the persistence of illegal immigrants despite strong official sanctions for both employer and worker. Having foreigners to work at the bottom end of the ladder might not necessarily lower the wages of the locals. It could instead increase their wage levels by creating or protecting higher skilled jobs that locals are in a better position to take. Even while low wages to foreign workers might be disadvantageous for some local workers, they are beneficial to others as consumers. Low wages help keep prices of consumer items down and can make available goods that otherwise would be unprofitable to grow or distribute. Nevertheless, the numbers of foreign workers/migrants form only a very small fraction of the total population and as such would not cause much effect either on unemployment or wages (ibid, p. 52-54).

2.7.2 POPULATION

Foreign worker/migrant numbers also affect the local population in terms of its total size, age distribution and ethnic composition. Foreigners who come to work and eventually take up permanent settlement have contributed significantly to the birth and growth of many nations, for example, America and Australia and even Singapore and Malaysia, amongst the countries in Asia. In recent times, the control on migration of foreign workers has been applied to regulate population size and characteristics.

Given that foreign workers as new migrants are more inclined to be young and tend on average to be younger than the population in the receiving country, they have the possible effect of rejuvenating the population. Studies conducted in several countries, for example, Australia, Belgium, Sweden, Canada, France and Germany, indicated that the postwar immigration years (1945-1981) had the effect of lowering the average age (0.5 – 1.8 years) of the population (ibid, p. 42). In Australia, Appleyard (1991, p. 74) reported that the median age of immigrants between 1949 and 1984 was five years less than that of the local population.

The average age distribution of the total population can be reduced also by the families of foreign workers who, particularly in their early settlement years, are likely to have more children than families of the local population. One reason suggested by Stalker (1994) is that most foreign workers/migrants do come from countries with customarily higher birth rates. Birth rates of these immigrant communities, however, have consistently been recorded to fall with years of settlement.

Immigration can assist simultaneously in rejuvenating as well as stabilising the balance of the overall population. One alternative to solving the problems of a “greying” and/or “shrinking” population is by increasing the steady flow of migrant intake. A larger proportion of economically active adults in the population increases the size of the labour force and helps finance public and welfare services (ibid, p. 45-46). A desired racial/ethnic group composition in the overall population can be achieved by changing the intake of certain ethnic migrant group numbers. For example, one of the steps the Singaporean government took to subdue the dominant Chinese group’s fears of being “outbred” (ibid, p. 47) by Malay and Indian minorities was to encourage Chinese immigrants to take up citizenship. Migrant

intake can likewise be adjusted to suit the balance of any kind, apart from age, ethnic composition and levels of education and skill, the state requires in its population.

2.7.3 OTHER SOCIAL AND CULTURAL EFFECTS

Besides employment, wage levels and demographics, the presence of foreign workers/migrants has also social and cultural effects on the local community. Racial and religious conflicts, particularly in ethnically diverse communities, are not uncommon (ibid, p. 75-81). According to Stahl (1988), this ostensible concern certainly made it necessary for some governments, for example, from Middle Eastern and South African nations to isolate and locate their foreign labour force well away from the indigenous population centres. Moreover, these governments and that of Singapore's tried to discourage foreign workers from staying on beyond their contracts by not permitting them to bring their dependants (ibid, p. 17).

If foreign workers are welcomed as new neighbours for their different cultures and different languages, this could lead to a cross-national enriching exchange and experience such as that which has taken place with food, for example. If they are greeted with hostility, conflicts and unrest could endanger living standards, lifestyles and social cohesion, and even cause unfavourable relations to develop between receiving and sending countries of foreign labour (ibid, p. 75-81; Castles & Miller 2003).

2.8 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT EFFECTS ON LABOUR SENDING COUNTRIES

Generally speaking, receiving countries' gain from adding foreign workers to their labour force and population is a loss for sending countries in terms of their local labour force and population numbers and skill level. This might have far-reaching social and economic effects for sending countries. Whilst this might be the case, many authors have professed that sending countries do benefit enormously from the inflow of foreign exchange via remittances 'sent home' by their workers abroad.

2.8.1 LABOUR FORCE

According to Stalker (1994), sending countries experience two kinds of “brain drain” (p. 118). The first is through the loss of skilled and semi-skilled personnel who emigrate. The second is the loss of many educated personnel who do not return on completion of their studies abroad. This is in part owing to the policies of receiving countries, which are inducing migrants educated through their system to stay on and take up citizenship (ibid, p. 118-121).

Sending countries are often left bearing the costs of training and re-training (Stalker 2000, p. 107). Unless new workers with similar skill levels can be substituted or mechanisation can be introduced, this could result in lower productivity and shortage of particular skills. However severe these might be would depend on the numbers that emigrate at a given time span. Take, for example, Pakistan. In the late seventies, as many as 130,000 workers went abroad annually till eventually the country had seven per cent of its workforce in other countries. Labour shortages were felt in a number of sectors, particularly in construction. In addition, when these workers were leaving to meet the building needs of the Middle East between 1972 and 1978, real wages rose steadily until the pace of outmigration slackened (Stalker 1994, p. 117-118).

Another concern with emigration is its two-fold effect on the agriculture industry: agricultural production and proportion of land in production. Sending countries are generally developing countries whose people subsist primarily through working the land. Emigrants can cause agricultural production to be depressed when their families that are left behind choose not to continue to work their land. This could be either from lack of incentive because of the availability of a better alternative income from the emigrant working abroad or from the inability to carry on the work owing to loss of the able-bodied worker. On the other hand, families of emigrants might be forced to continue production on the land from lack of alternatives. In most instances, the responsibility has fallen on the wives and produced what is deemed the ‘feminization of agriculture’ (ibid, p. 130). Even on their return, some of these post-foreign workers might not be inclined to work the land, preferring instead to invest their savings in entrepreneurial ventures such as shops and restaurants. Conversely, other returning migrants might invest their capital

into new technology for agricultural production and help the industry to continue and flourish (ibid, p. 128).

2.8.2 POPULATION

Although economic emigration can lead to a decrease in the size of the labour force and population, this might not cause undue hardship for some sending countries. The effect of this emigration is likely to be a mere trickle for labour abundant countries like India, Bangladesh, Turkey and Philippines, with their large pools of unemployed workers. Emigration can actually ease unemployment in the country whilst at the same time releasing not only the employed, but also the unemployed, underemployed and otherwise uneconomically active, women for example, to go to other countries in search of better economic rewards and opportunities (ibid, p. 115-116; Stalker 2000, p. 75-79).

2.8.3 REMITTANCES

Foreign worker (emigrant) income returns to their sending countries in the form of remittances are quite substantial. Whilst they tend to decline with the emigrants' length of residence, the highest remittances reported had come from contract and temporary workers who are considering to return to their country of origin (Stalker 1994, p. 125).

Remittances represent a significant proportion of GDP and somewhere between 25 and 50 per cent of merchandise exports for many countries [app. II.1 indicates workers' remittances in 32 countries]. As a major form of transfer from industrialised countries to developing countries, remittances have risen from \$21 billion in 1980 to \$29 billion in 1988 which is, as Stanton (1992) revealed, equivalent to half the flow of official development assistance for that year. Furthermore, estimates by The World Bank had indicated global flow of remittances in 1989 to be around \$65.6 billion. This makes this form of international "trade" (Stalker 1994, p. 122) second only to crude oil and significantly larger than coffee, the next most important primary commodity. These figures, however, represent only

the flows of remittances that have passed through official channels. Unofficial flows could increase these figures by fifty or more per cent (ibid, p. 122).

Remittances can take two main forms: hard currency or consumer goods. Hard currency can be remitted as formal banking transactions or informally through home visits, money couriers and ‘currency swap’ (ibid, p. 125).

Remittances can cause multiplier effects throughout the economy when families spend on food, education, clothing and housing to improve living standards or invest in land and cattle or to start small businesses (ibid, p. 126, 128-129). According to Stalker (2000, p. 82), this can contribute significantly to economic development, which might reduce emigration in the long run.

2.8.4 OTHER SOCIAL AND CULTURAL EFFECTS

The greatest impact on labour sending countries is having their communities transformed by the disintegration of traditional social/cultural structures. This can happen in three ways.

First, lengthy periods of separation can affect marriage and family relationships. Vasquez (1991) stated that when the foreign worker is male, the wife who stays behind would normally assume greater responsibilities. She would take on the role as head of the household and in many instances, the management of economic production. “Incomplete” (ibid, p. 13) identity might develop in some children whose working parent has been away for a considerable length of time. These add on to the strain of separation, which can result in the disintegration of the family unit.

Second, experience from working abroad and greater wealth have profound effects on post-foreign workers and their families, on their lifestyles and even aspirations for their children. The visible effects can be seen in new houses and vehicles appearing in rural areas and in the consumer items purchased by migrants on their return from overseas. Wealthier returning migrants might choose to lead more individualistic lives by living away from their parents and/or withdrawing from the “old” community. When these post-foreign workers invest in land and cause prices to escalate beyond the means of their non-migrant counterparts, this can widen existing income disparities (ibid). On the other hand, differentials between the lower and

middle classes for sending countries might have been reduced because these emigrants would have earned low incomes had they remained and not worked abroad (Stalker 1994).

Third, when a “culture of migration” (ibid, p. 132) is acquired and emigrants begin to view their home communities as places to visit and possibly retire rather than as places to earn a living, this might deprive the “income” and hinder the development of sending countries (ibid, p. 131-132).

2.9 EFFECTS OF MULTINATIONALS ON LABOUR HOSTING COUNTRIES

According to Bailey and Parisotto (1993), there are three main reasons that will attract multinationals to locate in particular countries. The first is resource extraction of oil, minerals, plantation crops, fish etc. The second is countries with large domestic markets. Multinationals may decide to produce goods in a country to which they originally exported because of rising production costs and competition in their home country. The third reason, especially important for multinationals in manufacturing, relates to low-cost assembly or manufacturing costs for export (ibid, p. 145).

Multinationals represent foreign direct investment (FDI) for labour host countries. Owing to [1] sound human and physical infrastructure [2] good local and international links and standards to trade, multinational enterprises have been concentrated in industrialised rather than developing countries. Of the \$2.6 trillion global inward stock of FDI in 1995, 73 per cent went to industrialised countries. Developing countries were receiving 19 per cent on average (1984 and 1989) but by 1995 this has increased to 38 per cent (Stalker 2000, p. 64). The phenomenal growth of multinationals in Third World countries around the eighties consisted mainly of state-owned mining and oil companies, a few large private holdings from South Korea, India and Turkey and medium-sized companies from Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan (Bailey & Parisotto 1993, p. 144-145).

Employment generation [app. II.2 shows in totality all the employment that can possibly be generated by multinationals for hosting countries] tends to stand out as a great socioeconomic benefit. Other significant contributions include stimulating

local producers, supplying capital, introducing new superior technology, management methods and training for employees and providing access to export markets (ibid, p. 139). Moran (2002, p.108) affirmed that these benefits are very important particularly for developing countries with an abundance of low-skilled labour and scarce capital.

Stalker (2000) disclosed that reports from the 1994 and 1996 United Nations Conferences on Trade and Development had indicated a growth in total employment by multinationals from 40 to 73 million (representing 2-3 per cent of the world's labour force) between 1975 and 1993. Forty-four of the 73 million worked in parent companies located in home countries. Of the remaining 29 million employed, 17 million were in industrial countries whilst 12 million were in developing countries (ibid, p. 68).

Besides size and labour force quality, the hosting country's workforce, particularly that of poor developing countries can be affected in much the same manner as the foreign workforce in labour receiving nations. The less and least skilled are inclined to be treated more unfavourably and given poorer working conditions than the skilled. The increase in workforce numbers, contributed by expatriates and other foreign workers, would correspond with a rise in overall population numbers and effect a change in age distribution and ethnic composite. The other social and cultural effects are similar to those that had been discussed for labour receiving and sending nations in previous sections.

2.9.1 LABOUR FORCE

The size of the overall workforce is affected not only by expatriate staff but also by migrant labour numbers from other countries. Workers who come from the rural or a different regional area of the country can also swell the labour force and population numbers in urban and export-processing zones (EPZs).

In Moran's (2002, p. 17) view, establishing EPZs or free trade zones (FTZs) is a common strategy employed by developing countries to attract foreign investors to low-wage export industries. These zones, most unfortunately, have a problematic record that attest to workers being subjected to labour in 'sweatshop-type' (ibid, p. 2) conditions and to mistreatment (eg. disciplinary penalties) or abuse (physical and

sexual to women in particular). Case studies of EPZs in the Philippines and the Dominican Republic that began in the early 1970s were reported to have conditions bearing labour suppression characteristics; for example, employees' earnings were less than or just equal to the statutory minimum wage; average working week was 54 hours; a significant proportion of employees were on two successive shifts, with little or no rest periods; workers were limited to single repetitive tasks in order to restrict their mobility; employees had to work in a factory environment with inadequate ventilation and suffered from the dust, fumes and unpleasant odours (ibid, p.25-34).

Other complaints of mistreatment involved workers who came from distant regions to work in factories located in EPZs. They were not given good proper housing and water or sanitation facilities. Housing facilities located far away from the workplace were in areas of poor lighting and security with little public transport. Moreover, these workers were kept from leaving their jobs by various coercive techniques such as deception and debt bondage. New recruits were on "training wages" (ibid, p. 11-12) for extended periods whilst the more experienced workers were repeatedly fired and rehired so that they would not attain the superiority and qualify for various benefits (ibid, p. 11-12). Stalker (2000) confirmed that labour turnover at EPZs is high owing to the harsh hiring and firing practices.

According to Bhagwati (2004), multinationals have constantly been accused of exploiting their workers, particularly those in poor developing countries of Asia and Africa by paying them "unfair" or "inadequate" wages and for violating "labour rights" (ibid, p. 28). However, recent empirical studies conducted by economists in countries such as Bangladesh, Mexico, Shanghai, Indonesia, Vietnam etc. have shown that multinationals actually pay a "wage premium" (ibid, p. 28) – an average wage that is more than the going rate in the area where they are located. Subsidiaries of some US multinationals have been known to give premiums ranging from 40 to 100 per cent over local wages.

Bhagwati (2004, p. 29) cited Glewwe's study of the incomes of Vietnamese households for the period 1997-98 that found foreign-owned company workers had greater household incomes because they earned almost twice the salary of the average worker employed at a local Vietnamese company. Whilst these wages by foreign-owned enterprises might be a fraction of those paid in the US and other wealthy industrialised countries, they were certainly much better than those available from any other local employment found in Vietnam.

Bhagwati (2004) contended also that accusations of rights abuse and child labour exploitation were not about egregious violations of the locals laws but on requirements of “decency”, Western norms or international law not complied to by these “foreign” companies (p. 29). He conceded that regulations in developing countries might not be as demanding as international ones (just as American standards fall below those of Europe and Canada).

Stalker (2000, p. 110-111) felt that employing the nationals of the hosting country holds several advantages for multinationals. Firstly, considering the higher wages in industrialised countries, the wages for these nationals, particularly those from developing countries, can prove to be a significant cost incentive. In 1994, skilled electronics engineers were paid as much as \$100,000 per year in the US whilst in Taiwan they earned about \$25,000 and in India or China around \$10,000 or less (Engardio & Hof 1994, p. 113). Secondly, given that educational standards have been improving worldwide, multinationals can make better use of local talent and save on development/production costs of their products/services. Thirdly, the nationals’ familiarity with local language and customs allows for better management of officials and market environment in the hosting country. Fourthly, multinationals can stimulate ‘a reverse brain drain’ (Stalker 2000, p. 111) when their personnel who have migrated to industrialised countries from developing countries are encouraged to make a transfer back to their country of origin. These personnel can include students who have stayed on to become naturalised citizens and the offspring of immigrant employees.

Multinationals not only increase the size but they are able to also enhance the quality of the total workforce in the hosting country by the injection of new technology and training. According to Stalker (2000), these new injections represent a transfer not only of skills but also of a whole ‘working culture’ (p. 67) from multinational parent to its subsidiary that is responsible for the rapid internationalisation of businesses round the globe. Kidger (2002) considered that global firms are more inclined to promote worldwide learning and networking through their international approach to management development and integration of corporate principles and practice. This can prove to be an enriching experience for individuals. Professionals in particular, with the aid of modern technology and ease of travel, are able to expand on their cultural awareness and knowledge on international issues through visits to conferences and other international development

and training programs. Moreover global firms have a wider pool to draw on for foreign assignments and appointments and this can be very beneficial for both individuals and hosting countries (ibid, p. 172-187).

The benefits to hosting countries of multinationals have, as a matter of course, included the growing importance of its out-sourcing industry. Goad (1999) reported that there is a move from organising operations by geography to organising them by product lines. This has enabled companies to locate their staff in the lowest-cost locations, a trend well established in America (New Jersey) and Ireland and presently progressing in Asia with India and Philippines ranked highest for quality, cost and availability of skilled labour. He revealed that estimates by consulting firm, McKinsey & Company, put global demand for 11 readily out-sourced white-collar services - from human resources to translation - to increase from \$10 billion in 1998 to \$180 billion by 2010 (ibid, p. 8-10).

2.9.2 OTHER SOCIAL AND CULTURAL EFFECTS

Direct and indirect employment generates better incomes and helps increase the standard of living for the overall community in labour hosting countries of multinationals. Hosting communities from developing countries (rural communities to a greater extent) would be confronted with the social and cultural transformations that affect labour sending countries (as discussed in Section 2.8.4) because of internal migration, from rural to urban and EPZ areas (Stalker 1994, 2000). The local community of hosting countries to multinationals would also experience similar social and cultural effects encountered by labour receiving countries as discussed in Section 2.7.3.

2.10 SUMMATION

In basic terms, FLE refers to companies employing the services of labour of another country. When a company decides to employ the labour of another country, it might 'hire' individuals already in its country or require these individuals to migrate to its country. FLE is employed also when a company moves and sets up a

branch or relocates entirely to 'hire' the individuals of another country. With twentieth century advances made in telecommunications, FLE has become possible through out-sourcing. In other words, companies can employ FLE without migration on their part or on the part of the individuals they choose to hire.

For individuals, the reason for migration might not even begin with the intention to work. Motivations to migrate need not be purely economic. There could be political, social and cultural reasons that can cause individuals to migrate. For companies, out-sourcing or setting themselves up in another country might be the only way they can survive and grow in the global economy of present times. Nevertheless, whether on the part of the individual or the company, FLE rests on several other factors; migration networks, global market environment, technological developments, international regulatory bodies, policies and practice on countries' FLE.

The invention of ships and railway, colonisation and industrialisation were responsible for initiating mass migration from Europe to many parts of the world. Further improvements in technology (eg. travel, telecommunications and mechanisation) and the growth of multinational enterprises around the globe led the resurgence of mass migration and international employment after World War II. These have contributed to [1] the ever-changing need for countries to adjust their FLE policy and [2] the rise of international regulatory bodies to monitor the employment conditions of workers, particularly those with little or no skills.

Globalisation and technological advancements, particularly in the second half of the twentieth century, have revolutionised work and the workplace environment and these have made a great impact on FLE. Non-standard forms of employment, out-sourcing and setting up operations in low-wage economies have become the strategies businesses have put to use in order that they can compete effectively in the global market environment of today.

The effects of FLE are felt not only in economic terms. For the individuals, FLE can affect not only their material but also their physical, social and cultural wellbeing. For labour receiving/hosting and labour sending countries, the economic benefits and costs generated from FLE can be experienced also in political, social, cultural, demographic and technological dimensions.

CHAPTER III

STUDY OF THREE COUNTRIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As mentioned in the previous chapter, FLE is contingent on amongst other factors the immigration policies of the country. The aim of this chapter is to demonstrate how the immigration policies of three nations – Australia, Singapore and Malaysia – have operated like a valve not only to control the volume but also the type of foreign labour movements into the country. In so doing, these policies have significantly shaped the size and composition of each nation's population and workforce, including its basic cultural and religious foundations. The following sections will review each country in terms of its [1] population and labour force, [2] religion, [3] immigration policy and [4] foreign labour force.

The histories of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia have a common beginning. These three countries were practically desolate and needed immigrant labour to populate and develop the nation, both economically and politically (Baker 1999; Castles 1992; Chiew 1995; DIMA 2001a; Hugo 2001a; Leggett 1993; Turnbull 1980). Foreign workers, in particular those, who came as migrant settlers, have been important as 'nation-builders' (DIMA 2001a; Lian 1995). All three have the same historical roots as colonised countries of the British Empire and presently are members of the Commonwealth. Because of their geographical proximity, Singapore and Malaysia share socio-political and economic co-dependent ties with one another (Chiew 1995; Leggett 1993; Lian 1995; Turnbull 1980).

In the early years, Australia's and Malaysia's main economic activity was in agriculture whilst Singapore's was in commerce and trade. Manufacturing took over when the countries started to industrialise. More recently, they are experiencing a rapid growth in the service industries (Chew & Chew 1995; Drabble 2000; Peebles 2002; Turnbull 1980; Yap 2001; Year Book Australia 2005). Economic restructuring resulted in numerous changes to the immigration policies and these in turn have made quite an impact on the nature of the foreign labour market.

3.2 COUNTRY STUDY I: AUSTRALIA

3.2.1 AUSTRALIA: ITS POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE

Although the island of Australia is a continent, much of its total land area is either sparsely or almost unpopulated. The density of 2.6 square kilometres [General Facts of Country in app. III.1] can be misleading as the great majority of the population is concentrated on the eastern and southwestern coasts of the continent (Year Book Australia 2005). Australia has one of the lowest national figures in the world in terms of population distribution (McQueen 2005) but in population terms, it is the 53rd largest country in the world with a representation of 0.32 percent of global population (Hugo 2001a).

Australia's population, formed largely from international immigrant labour, is a rich ethnic mix composition of more than 200 diverse cultures and heritages (Year Book Australia 2005). In Census 2001, those considered as being of indigenous origin comprised 2.2 per cent whilst the top most common ancestries identified after the Australians were the English (34%), Irish (10%), Italians (4%) and Germans (4%). Twenty-two per cent were born overseas with those from United Kingdom forming the largest overseas-born group, followed by New Zealand, Italy, Vietnam, People's Republic of China, Greece, Germany, Philippines and India (ibid, DIMA 2003, 2005). It is estimated that between 2002-2003, 52 per cent of the population growth came from net overseas migration (Year Book Australia 2005). The population is projected to increase between 20.81 million and 21.38 million by 2011, going from a current median age of 34.3 to between 38.1 and 38.6 in 2011 with the proportion aged 65 and over rising from 12.1 per cent to between 13.9 and 14.2 per cent in 2011. This implies that the matured population is getting progressively larger (Hugo 2001a).

In 2003-2004, there were 10.1 million persons in the labour force [Workforce of Country in app. III.2]. Of these, 25 per cent were born overseas (Year Book Australia 2005). In 2001, New Zealand-born residents reportedly had the highest labour force participation rate of the four main birthplace groups of persons from the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Vietnam and Italy (ibid).

3.2.2 AUSTRALIA: ITS RELIGIONS

According to Thompson (2002), Christianity is by far the major religious influence in Australia. When the European settlers came during the 1800s, they brought their traditional churches with them to Australia. Even though Australian society is comprised predominantly of various Christian denominations, the freedom to practise any other religion is permitted under the Australian Constitution. In 2001, there were 68 per cent Christians, 2 per cent Buddhists, 1.5 per cent Muslims, 0.5 per cent Hindus, 0.5 per cent of 'other' religion and 27 per cent with 'no religion' (Year Book Australia 2005).

3.2.3 AUSTRALIA'S IMMIGRATION POLICY [Chronology Table see app. III.3]

Immigration has been instrumental in both the economic development and nation building of Australia since it was colonised by the British two centuries ago (DIMA 2001a). The Department of Immigration was set up in 1945 to initiate a program aimed at 2 per cent population growth per year, half of which was to come through immigration. Needing both workers and consumers, the policy encouraged permanent, family migration and triggered a large-scale migration of workers to Australia (Castles 1992). From 1945-2001, 5.9 million have immigrated to Australia. Comprising 3.1 million males and 2.8 million females, they have contributed to the increase in the population from 7 to 19 million. Migrants have come from 150 countries but those from the British Isles remains the majority (DIMA 2001b).

Over the postwar years, there were a series of waves in which particular groups had comprised a major part of the intake. Those from Europe, particularly Greece, Italy and Spain predominated the 1950s and 1960s years. During the mid-seventies, the majority came from the three Indo-Chinese states of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia (Jupp 2001). More recently, immigrants have come from more than a hundred different birthplaces and this has contributed significantly to a substantial change in the ethnic composition of the overseas-born population (DIMA 2001b).

The increase of Asian immigrants into Australia was attributable to the policy of multiculturalism that promoted tolerance of and respect for the growing social and

cultural diversity within the population. This policy replaced the White Australia Policy in 1972 (Castles 1992).

Immigration played a highly significant role in providing 60 per cent of workers. This period also brought about a marked segmentation of the labour market by area of origin and gender. Migrants of non-English-speaking background, mainly from Eastern and Southern Europe, were concentrated in infrastructure or heavy industry working at manual unskilled and semi-skilled jobs whilst English-speaking background migrants were found in jobs across the occupational and industrial spectrum (ibid).

Australia's evolution from an economy based on primary and manufacturing industries to one of service shifted the focus of policies in the eighties to skilled migration (Year Book Australia 2001). Aided by the introduction of the Numerical Multifactor Assessment Scheme in 1979, policies were poised to meet shortfalls in the labour market, both in terms of filling gaps and raising the overall skill level of the Australian labour force (DIMA 2001c). In 2003-2004, 76.7 percent who were in the labour force prior to migrating were skilled with computer professionals, accountants and managers/administrators representing the top three occupations of migrants (DIMA 2005). Growing international competition for the limited pool of skilled migrants resulted in new visa categories accommodating those not intending to settle permanently in Australia (Iredale 1995, 2001).

3.2.4 AUSTRALIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR FORCE

It is difficult to make generalisations about the labour force and other characteristics of the immigrants owing to the enormous diversity in the group. According to Hugo (2001b, 2001c), they have been largely represented in manufacturing (31.8%) and in property and business services (28.2%). The Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (2005) reported that this pattern of employment remains, with migrants least represented in agriculture, forestry and fishing (10.6% of workforce).

Australia's immigration program is fairly complex: constantly changing in response to the economic and political demands meeting the country. Migrants are

allowed into Australia under two main programs: humanitarian and non-humanitarian.

The humanitarian program is mainly for people seeking refuge from persecution in their own country. There are three set levels in this program: Refugee Program, Special Humanitarian Program and the Special Assistance Category. During the period July 1997 and June 1998, 12,055 were provided with visas under the Humanitarian Program: 4,010 refugees, 4,636 Special Humanitarian and 3,409 Special Assistance (DIMA 1999a). The Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (2003) reported that the figure of 12,000 was maintained for 2002-2003.

The non-humanitarian program consists of three main categories: Family, Skill and Special Eligibility. Within each category there are several components. The Business Skills, Employer Nominated Scheme, Distinguished Talent, Spouses and Dependent Children components are demand driven and not subject to capping. The Independent and Skilled-Australian Linked, Parents, Fiances and Interdependents components, however, are subject to capping (DIMA 2003).

Under the Family Migration category, a permanent resident or citizen of Australia is permitted to sponsor their family members as potential migrants (ibid).

The Skill Migration component is designed specifically to ensure that prospective migrants possess the skills that are in demand in Australia. Entry is based on point selection criteria, which includes age, skills and English language ability. Under this scheme, prospective migrants can choose to sponsor themselves or be sponsored by relatives or employers (ibid). In 2001, links were made with the overseas students program to accommodate those seeking to migrate without having to leave Australia. This move was made in an attempt to retain more young, English speaking skilled migrants who have been trained in Australia (ABS 2001). According to the Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (2003), this resulted in numbers from the Skill Stream to double that of the period 2000-2001. This scheme also includes entrepreneurs who are interested in making capital investments and distinguished individuals with unique talents that are of benefit to Australia. The information collected on the applicants is stored in The Skill Matching Database which is accessible to state and territory governments and employers for their necessary recruitments (Hugo 2001b).

The Special Eligibility category caters for former residents and citizens of Australia, New Zealanders and children born to Australian citizens overseas (ibid).

The Skill Stream has the highest level of visas granted on record. For the period 2001-2002, there were 57.5 percent in the Skill Stream, 40.9 percent in the Family Stream and 1.6 percent in the Special Eligibility Stream (DIMA 2003).

Next to the United States and Canada, Australia is the third largest of the traditional countries of settlement (Stalker 1994). However, not all immigrants who come to work in Australia choose to reside permanently. Particularly in recent years, the numbers of temporary working residents have been growing. These comprise of working holiday makers, overseas students, and those already employed in the social/cultural (entertainers, visiting academics, sports people and religious workers), international relations (foreign government officials such as diplomats) and skilled areas (sponsored employees comprising senior managers, executives, specialists and technical workers). In terms of temporary working residents by occupation, the largest group consisted of the professionals (46%). The managers, administrators and associate professionals made up about 41 per cent and the remaining 13 per cent were those employed in the trades, clerical, sales, service etc. (Hugo 2001c).

It was reported that as at 30 June 1999, there were 53,000 overstayers in Australia. Of this number, about 27 percent had been in the country for more than nine years. China, Phillipines, Fiji, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Germany, United Kingdom, USA, and Japan were the ten countries with the greatest number of estimated overstayers at this period (DIMA 1999b).

There has also been an increase in the numbers of unauthorised arrivals. In 1999-2000, approximately 5,870 arrivals were apprehended for not going through the official immigration procedures, 94 per cent more than the previous year. Of these, 71 per cent had arrived by boat and the remaining by air. The majority who arrived by sea was Chinese and most that came by air were from Iraq (ABS 2002).

3.3 COUNTRY STUDY II: SINGAPORE

3.3.1 SINGAPORE: ITS POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE

Founded by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819, the little island of Singapore was no more than a fishing town inhabited by 120 Malays and 30 Chinese (Chiew 1995). With a land area of 697 square kilometres and a population density of 6,004 per square kilometre [General Facts of Country in app. III.1], Singapore is today regarded as one of the most densely populated countries in the world (Year Book Singapore 2004). Ninety-four percent of its population lives in high-rise flats or condominiums (SDS 2005a).

In June 2000, Singapore's total population crossed the 4-million mark. This implied that in 100 years, the population had grown more than 16 times. Eighty-two percent were born in Singapore. Non-residents made up close to half of the total population growth during the last ten years (SDS 2001, 2005a). The ethnic composition of the population had been fairly stable in the last decade. In 2000, the Chinese formed the majority with 76.8 per cent, the Malays represented 13.9 per cent, the Indians constituted 7.9 per cent, Eurasians and other various ethnic groups made up the remaining 1.4 per cent of the population [General Facts of Country in app. III.1].

In 2004, there were 2,183, 000 persons in the labour force [Workforce of Country in app. III.2]. Of the 2,067,000 persons employed, most (57%) were engaged in the service sector, which also recorded the highest percentage share of nominal GDP (SDS 2005c).

3.3.2 SINGAPORE: ITS RELIGIONS

Religion is practised freely in Singapore. In Census 2000, about 51 per cent of the total population were Buddhists, Taoists or some other Chinese traditional believers. By comparison, Muslims comprised 15 per cent, Christians 14.6 per cent and Hindus 4.4 per cent. About 0.2 per cent practised various other forms of religion and 14.8 per cent did not have a religion (SDS 2005b).

3.3.3 SINGAPORE'S IMMIGRATION POLICY [Chronology Table see app. III.4]

To resolve the chronic unemployment in the years leading to its independence, the government adopted an industrialisation strategy that began initially with labour-intensive production such as textiles and later progressed to more highly skilled and capital-intensive industries in electronics and oil refining (Turnbull 1980).

Singapore's foreign labour management can be divided into three distinct phases, each with its own policy objectives. The first phase is regarded as Singapore's 'First Industrial Revolution' with its emphasis on obtaining cheap low-skilled labour for its growing manufacturing base. The second phase is the start of the 'Second Industrial Revolution' when the focus changed to high-level technology labour. The third phase marks a move towards policy liberalisation for the expansion of the foreign labour force. New visa categories were employed to accommodate the increasing types of international workers (Wong 1997).

[1] Phase I

With a flagging economy, chronic unemployment and industrial unrest, Singapore had little choice but to adopt an industrialisation strategy after its independence in 1965. Singapore's success with attracting foreign investments for its labour-intensive export-oriented manufacturing led to a quickening growth in the economy in the late sixties and early seventies (Pang 1988). This brought about a severe labour shortage that resulted in an inflow of foreign workers. Before 1968, unskilled foreign workers were not permitted into Singapore. This policy was relaxed in early seventies when the government realised that it could not rely entirely on its own workforce.

The Census of Population reported that in 1970 there were 72,590 (11.15 per cent of total labour force) foreign workers and by 1980 the numbers had increased to 119,483 (11.09 per cent of total labour force) (Low 1995). Most were non-citizens and non-residents from the traditional source country of Malaysia. When difficulties were encountered in getting sufficient workers from Malaysia, immigration was opened to non-traditional source countries such as Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka, Philippines, Thailand and

Indonesia. Permits were also extended to domestic workers in an attempt to encourage the participation of women; particularly those married with marketable skills and qualifications, in the workforce (Ruppert 1999).

[2] Phase II

In 1979, when the government's development strategy shifted to high technology, high-value added industries, this led to a boom in the construction industry and an escalating growth in the foreign labour market. In the early eighties, the government proposed to phase out FLE by 1986 in its attempt to reduce dependence on the unskilled from South and South East Asia (Leggett 1993; Ruppert 1999). Several measures were employed to restrict the use of foreign workers and limit the entry of the unskilled into Singapore.

Since 1980, employers of all work permit holders, except those holding three-year work permits, were required to contribute to the foreign worker levy scheme. Employers of foreign maids were, in addition, required to deposit a security bond of S\$5,000 with the Controller of Immigration and stood to forfeit this amount in the event of breach of bond conditions. In 1987, the quota enforced by the dependency ceiling system restrained the number of foreign workers the organisation could employ. Regulations such as limiting access of the Central Provident Fund to only skilled labour and imposing tight restrictions on the personal freedoms and the immigration of dependents of unskilled foreign workers were introduced to restrain the numbers of unskilled workers into the country (Hui 1998). The immigration policy was also used to effectively reverse the inflow of foreign labour. During the 1985-86 recession, 102,000 jobs were eliminated and 60,000 foreign workers were forcibly repatriated (Ruppert 1999).

In 1989, to attract Hong Kong residents in the wake of the Tiananmen Square crackdown in China, Singapore liberalised its criteria for the issue of employment passes and permanent resident status (*ibid*). The numbers that took up permanent residency during the period of 1989-90 increased from 13,203 to 22,875.

The liberalisation was seen as a necessary step towards arresting the brain drain and declining Chinese numbers in the population caused by the

increasing number of Singaporeans emigrating to countries such as Australia, Canada and the US (Chew & Chew 1995; Low 1995). Mani (1995) reported that from 1977 to October 1988, 2,916 Singaporeans had given up their citizenship. Because the Chinese made up such a high proportion of those who emigrated (85 per cent), this caused great concern in regards to the size of the Chinese population which was also being affected by declining fertility rate (Chew & Chew 1995). According to Clammer (1991), Singapore remains one of the few modernised societies in the world that has great emphasis put on ethnicity as the primary means of social classification.

[3] Phase III

Strong economic growth experienced during the 1990s escalated demands for foreign labour. The government responded by easing restrictions. For example, the dependency ceiling for manufacturing was increased to 45 per cent and construction was given a ratio of 5:1. A two-tier levy system was also implemented in the manufacturing sector where employers had to pay S\$300 a month per worker levy for up to a dependency ceiling of 35 per cent and S\$450 per month per worker levy for additional workers.

This resulted in a sustained and increasing growth in the non-resident population, which developed at an annual rate of 2.7 per cent in 1991. By 1996, the rise to 6.5 per cent per annum had outpaced the growth of the resident population and by the end of 1995, the number of foreigners totalled more than half a million or 16 per cent of the population. Seventy per cent of these were unskilled work permit holders. In response, the government enforced a tighter permit allocation system and undertook stricter measures against permit abuses (Ruppert 1999; Wong 1997). It also introduced a basic skill test (reading basic drawings and understanding of some English) for workers in the construction sector.

In line with its policy of transforming Singapore into a knowledge-based economy in the 21st century, the government extended in 1999 the residence restrictions of foreign technopreneurs from six months to two years, renewable for another three years (Yap 2001).

3.3.4 SINGAPORE'S FOREIGN LABOUR FORCE

Since 1965, the foreign labour force (within Singapore) has been managed by the *Regulation of Employment Act*. This Act specifically prohibits foreign contract workers from any form of collective representation and procedures in the event of their services being terminated (Leggett 1993). Singapore's foreign workforce is made up of two groups: guest labour and immigrant labour. The guest labour group consists of holders of work permits and professional passes. Immigrant labour refers to those who are granted permanent residency (Chew & Chew 1995).

Two forms of regulations manage foreign labour inflow: one relating to unskilled workers and the other to skilled workers. Unskilled workers are under the work permit scheme and are employed mainly in the manufacturing, construction and service sectors. Only main contractors are eligible to apply for these permits. They are issued for workers earning less than S\$2001 per month and are valid for two years (renewable up to a cumulative total of four years). They are not transferable between occupations or employers and are subject to a levy. Permit holders are repatriated when their contracts expire. They are permitted to marry Singaporeans only with consent from the Minister for Labour and generally not allowed to bring their dependents into the country. Deportation awaits female work permit holders found pregnant. Work permits of three years are issued for those possessing either a recognised trade certificate or acceptable educational qualifications. Holders of a three-year work permit are eligible for permanent residency after they have worked for a year. They can apply for citizenship after ten years of residency (Chew & Chew 1995; Hui 1998). In 1999, about 450,000 were permit holders, the bulk of these were unskilled and 80,000 were holders of employment passes (Yap 2001).

Skilled workers (or those with recognised educational qualifications) are granted employment passes which are valid for up to five years. Earning a salary in excess of S\$2,001, these workers are found in managerial, professional or specialist positions. Unlike permit holders, pass holders can marry Singaporeans, bring in their dependents and have their children born in Singapore. In addition, they are able to obtain permanent residency and citizenship far easier than permit holders. Permanent residency is permitted for those below 50 years (for themselves and their families) after six months. Those with tertiary qualifications can apply for citizenship

after two years permanent residence. Non-graduate permanent residents with the requisite skills and qualifications are eligible for citizenship after five years (Chew & Chew 1995; Hui 1998).

Foreign workers have come from Malaysia (43%), Philippines (17%), Thailand (15%), Bangladesh (11%), Indonesia (4%), Sri Lanka (4%) and other countries (6%). Malaysians are employed mainly in the manufacturing, services and professional sectors. Those employed in the construction sector tend to be skilled workers. Foreign workers from Thailand and Bangladesh are also predominantly found in construction. Approximately 25 per cent of all foreigners are employed as domestic servants and these are primarily women from the Philippines, Indonesia and Sri Lanka (Ruppert 1999; Wong 1997).

The presence of illegal immigrants and overstayers became an issue in the late eighties. During the period of 1986-87, the numbers caught without work permits increased from 630 to 1,403. By 1994, the numbers of overstayers and illegal workers had grown to 9,846. This increase was largely attributed to the sizeable increases in the levy scheme, the strict dependency ceilings and restrictions associated with the work permit system. The majority of these workers was found in the construction industry and came from Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia and India. The Immigration Act was amended in 1988 to institute stiffer penalties, including corporal punishment, for illegals and overstayers. In 1995, the amendments to the Employment of Foreign Workers Act extended these punitive measures to their procurers and harbourers (Wong 1997). In 1999, new work permit cards came with enhanced security features that would make them difficult to forge (Yap 2001).

Foreign workers are also employed by government-subsidised Singaporean companies located in Malaysia, Indonesia, China, Vietnam, India and Thailand. Faced with labour shortages and rising wage increases, some labour-intensive industries first moved to the Singapore-Johor-Riau Growth Triangle in 1991. This was the beginning of the regionalization policy. When this became successful, Singapore's government-linked companies (GLCs) and multinational corporations (MNCs) ventured into the other countries (Low 1995; Pang 1993; Pereira 2001; Tan 1995).

3.4 COUNTRY STUDY III: MALAYSIA

Geographically, Malaysia is made up of two parts: the Peninsula, known as Western Malaysia as one part, and Sabah and Sarawak on the northern quarter of Borneo island, known as East Malaysia as the other part (Milne & Mauzy 1986). The discussion ensuing will be based primarily on the west Malaysian State. This is because the literature and statistics on Malaysia that are available in Australia have concentrated almost entirely on the Peninsula, which also accounts for 70 per cent of all documented foreign employment. Some discretion had to be used in the selection of data owing to variations (particularly the year and statistics) found in the literature.

3.4.1 MALAYSIA: ITS POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE

Compared to many other countries in the region, for example, Indonesia, Thailand and the Philippines, Malaysia is regarded as sparsely populated (Drabble 2000). More than 80 per cent of its population of 25 million live on the Peninsula which accounts for 40 per cent of the total land area [General Facts of Country in app. III.1] (Nayagam 1992; Far East & Australasia 2005). Inter- and intra-state migration has been a constant process due to economic and work-related reasons (Drabble 2000). Since the introduction of the government's national economic policies in 1970, the population settling in urban areas has been growing. Before 1980, four-fifths of the population were rural-based but by Census 2000, the proportion had decreased to 62 per cent (Edward 2002; MDS 2001; Turnbull 1980). This trend from rural to urban areas has contributed significantly to serious labour shortages in rural areas where plantation agriculture predominates.

As in the cases of Australia and Singapore, the longstanding and widespread migration to Malaysia has produced a population that is not only mixed in ethnic and linguistic origin but also in customs and religions. Up to early nineteenth century, most of the settlers were of Malayo-Polynesian stock. From mid-nineteenth century to the Second World War, floods of immigrants came from China and India to work in the tin mines and plantations (gambier, pepper, sugar, coffee and rubber). While most returned to their homelands after a few years, many did choose to settle

permanently (Turnbull 1980). Of the three major ethnic groups, the Malays comprise 65 per cent, the Chinese 26 per cent and the Indians 7.7 per cent of Malaysian citizens (MDS 2005a).

According to Edward (2002), the labour force grew at a faster rate than the population during the period 1986-95. This was attributed to three main factors: high growth rate in the working age population, rising labour force participation rate (with the increasing numbers of females working) and large inflows of foreign labour. In 2004, the total labour force consisted of 10.5 million persons [Workforce of Country in app. III.2]. Of these, the employed made up 97 percent and were found mostly in the services sector (MDS 2005b).

3.4.2 MALAYSIA: ITS RELIGIONS

Islam is enshrined as the national religion in the Constitution of Malaysia. That is, whilst it permits absolute freedom for the practice of other religions, it does not allow for the propagation of another faith to one who is a Muslim (Religions in Malaysia 2002). According to Milne and Mauzy (1986), a close correlation exists between being Malay and being Muslim in Peninsula Malaysia. Islam is always regarded an integral part of the Malay cultural identity.

The Population and Housing Census 2000 reported that Islam was practised by 60.4 per cent of the population. It also recorded that there were 21.8 per cent of Chinese religions (Buddhism, Taoism etc.), 9.1 per cent Christians, 6.3 per cent Hindus, 1.2 per cent of 'other religions' and 1.1 per cent with no religion (MDS 2005a).

3.4.3 MALAYSIA'S IMMIGRATION POLICY [Chronology Table see app. III.5]

The first wave of migrant labour inflow accompanied economic restructuring that took place in the 1970s. This gained momentum in mid-1980s when rapid and sustained economic growth heralded the second wave. The foreign worker population grew to unmanageable proportions and warranted the deployment of

foreign labour management policies to regulate the inflow. These policies were carried out through bilateral agreements with major labour sending countries and included regulations pertaining to the issue and conditions of work permits and employment passes.

The first bilateral agreement took place with the signing of the Medan Agreement with Indonesia in 1984. Similar agreements took place with the Philippines, Thailand and Bangladesh. These were undertaken to negotiate for the quantity and quality (in terms of skill types) of foreign workers to be employed. By signing with selected countries, Malaysia was able to determine the nationality of foreign workers being recruited (Kanapathy 2001).

Work permits and employment passes have also been used to manage the entry and employment of foreign workers. For instance, the government put a stop to issuing new entry permits in July 1996 to foreign labour in construction, services and plantations in an effort to stabilise the numbers. As a result of the 1997 economic crisis, Malaysia placed a total ban on the recruitment of foreign labourers except those from Indonesia and Thailand as it viewed this as providing necessary assistance for its immediate neighbours. Two hundred thousand foreign workers were also repatriated and over 180,000 illegal workers opted to be sent back to their home country. Since then, it has practised 'selective recruitment' (Kassim 2001a, p 274) by permitting foreign employment in sectors regarded as critical such as plantations, manufacturing and domestic services.

In addition, the terms and conditions given to work permits and employment passes were modified accordingly to meet the necessary labour and skill requirements. For example, the government introduced in early 1998, new measures such as repatriation and levy increases in an effort to reduce the economy's dependency on foreign labour, particularly in the manufacturing and service sectors. It also introduced stricter recruitment conditions such as annual medical examinations for foreign workers and higher income-level requirement for those wishing to employ foreign maids, including restrictions of one per household with children. These were effective and when labour shortages became an issue once again by mid-1998, the entry of 120,000 foreign workers for plantation and export-oriented manufacturing sectors were permitted and with the revival of manufacturing in 1999, another 700,000 were allowed into Malaysia. Approximately 70 per cent of these workers were located in the Kelang Valley in the Peninsula, having come

mainly from Indonesia (63.6%), Philippines (6.7%), Bangladesh (24.5%), Thailand (0.9%), Pakistan (1.2%) and India (3.1%) (Kassim 2001b).

In a bid to enlarge its pool of skilled personnel and raise the technological skills of the Malaysian labour force, the government launched Multimedia Super Corridor in 1996 (Kanapathy 2001). This helped increased the numbers of foreign information technology experts in the country. A large proportion was from India. Since 1997, the government had also permitted expatriate husbands of Malaysian women to be employed under the foreign spouse program. Previously, only the expatriate wives of Malaysian men were allowed to seek employment.

3.4.4 MALAYSIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR FORCE

According to Kassim (2001b), it is difficult to provide the actual numbers in the workforce because of the large quantity of undocumented/illegal foreign workers. He felt also that the term *undocumented worker* ought not to be considered as synonymous with the term *illegal worker*. In the case of Malaysia, not all illegal workers are undocumented. Generally, illegal immigrants are those who enter outside of the country's authorised port of entry and are without legitimate documents. As such they are not able to apply for work permits and become regarded as illegal workers when they seek employment. On the other hand, there are those who have entered the country legally but have either allowed their work permits to expire or have sought employment without the proper authorisation which can only be obtained from their home country. Their status thereby becomes that of an illegal worker (ibid).

In 1999, within the estimates of the 1.6 million foreign nationals, comprising 7.6 per cent of Malaysia's population of over 22.7 million, foreign workers accounted for 11.4 per cent of the labour force and 11.6 per cent of those employed. Seventy per cent were located in the Peninsula (ibid). By 2000, the foreigners numbered close to two million with 31.3 percent engaged in manufacturing, 22.9 percent in agriculture, 8.7 percent in construction, 7.4 percent in services while 20.3 percent alone employed as maids (Far East & Australasia 2005).

Foreign workers are generally regarded as a temporary measure and hence are required to leave the country (with their dependents) on the expiration of their

contracts. The current law requires that these workers be recruited from their home country. However, they are allowed to apply for permanent residency after a continuous stay of five years and citizenship after 10 years. In 1998, an estimated quarter of a million were given permanent residence and between 1990 and 1997, 16,000 became citizens (Kassim 2001b).

The administration of rules and regulations governing the rights and obligations of foreign workers are handled separately and differently by the Immigration Department (under the Ministry of Home Affairs) and the Labour Department (under the Ministry of Human Resources) in East and West Malaysia. The rights and obligations of foreign workers vary in terms of their legal status and the category of work they are engaged in. Generally, they are prohibited from joining trade unions and are not covered by collective agreements. They are only covered under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1952 (since 1998) and the Employees Provident Fund. There is no minimum wage and employers are free to remunerate in accordance with market forces. There are two main categories of foreign workers: expatriates (referring to skilled personnel and professionals) and non-expatriates (referring to the labourers, both unskilled and semi-skilled). Expatriates are issued with employment passes whilst the non-expatriates are given temporary work passes.

Records on expatriates only started in mid-1997. At that time, it was estimated that there were approximately 12,600 expatriate workers. The government adopted an open policy for entry by skilled workers and professionals from any country except Israel and Yugoslavia. Because of this, Malaysia received expatriates from well over 100 different countries with the majority coming from the United Kingdom, Japan and India. Generally, they were found occupying top managerial and executive positions in the private sector. The majority was employed in multinationals owned by nationals of their own country.

Three types of employment passes are issued to expatriates. These depend on the length of employment tenure and the monthly salary they receive whilst working in Malaysia. Employment passes are for a minimum period of one year and for those earning a minimum monthly income of RM2,500. Professional passes are for those with the same income level but working for less than one year. Temporary work passes are for those earning less than RM2,500 a month. These passes are similar to those issued to the unskilled and semi-skilled with the exception being that temporary work pass holders are not required to pay the annual employment levy or

undergo annual medical examinations. Maximum employment is permitted up to five years and all employment passes have to be renewed every year.

Temporary work passes for labourers are also renewable on a yearly basis. However, labourers are only permitted to work for a period of two to seven years after which they must return to their country of origin. They are allowed to re-enter after a lapse of six months. Compared to expatriates, holders of temporary work passes have fewer rights. They are not permitted to bring in their dependents, marry locals or be found pregnant as in the case of women. They are also subject to annual medical examinations (Kassim 2001b).

Temporary work passes had previously been issued only to Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines, Bangladesh and Pakistan. Nationals of other countries were permitted only when these types of workers were in greater demand (Kassim 2001a). In Sabah and Sarawak, for instance, only Indonesians and Filipinos are given temporary work passes. These two eastern Malaysian states are heavily dependent on unskilled foreign workers. In 2000, the proportion of foreign nationals in the workforce in Sabah and Sarawak was 60 per cent and 65 per cent respectively (Kassim 2002). Moreover, temporary work pass holders are permitted employment only in sectors where local labour is not available. For example, during the 1970s and 1980s, they were allowed to work only in domestic services, plantations and construction. Since 1993, jobs were opened to them in manufacturing and other services (Kassim 2001b). Another development that occurred was a greater diversification in the types of jobs available to female foreign workers. This resulted in females constituting approximately one-third of all foreign workers in manufacturing and one-half in services (Kassim 2001a).

Job distribution is based very much on gender and nationalities owing to the two forms of differences: educational attainment levels between foreign workers from various countries and modes of recruitment (generally through social networks of existing workers). It is found that women predominantly occupy jobs in the domestic and general services. These jobs are held mainly by Filipinos and available in the Peninsula. Indonesians and Thais tend to work in plantations and construction whilst Bangladeshis are found primarily in manufacturing (ibid).

The total number of temporary work passes issued has increased steadily in the 1990s. From 533,000 issued in 1993, this figure has increased dramatically to

almost 1.5 million in 1997. This marked increase was attributed to the massive and stringent crackdown on illegal workers in 1996 (Kassim 2001b).

Illegal and undocumented workers are more prevalent in this group of foreign workers. They are employed extensively in agriculture, especially in plantation and construction work, and in services, such as those available in restaurants, households and small-scale informal operations (Nayagam 1992; Pang 1993). To combat the large inflows during the 1970s, the government began to institute legal procedures for the recruitment and employment of foreign labourers in the 1980s. It also implemented programs such as Ops Nyah I and II in 1992 and 1996 respectively to arrest the rising numbers in the illegal entry and employment of foreigners. Between 1992 and 1999, approximately two million were apprehended. The persistence of illegal/undocumented employment is due to several factors:

- [1] financial and institutional disincentives such as high recruitment costs and restrictive terms and conditions of employment contracts, including inefficiencies in the public overseas job placement systems, discourage both employer and employee from taking on documented employment (Kassim 2001b ; Simpson 2001);
- [2] unawareness or lack of understanding of the bureaucratic processes (due to low educational level attainment);
- [3] inadequate (and difficulties associated with) enforcement of immigration laws. It was only in 1993 that the 1963 Immigration Rules were being used to deal with illegal immigrants and workers. Even then many were still not apprehended. For example, 166 areas were identified as alien squatters in Selangor in 1997 but little attempt was made to remove foreigners from these settlements;
- [4] foreigners are difficult to identify as they possess similar physical and cultural characteristics of the population;
- [5] increasing numbers of fraudulent operators who are able to provide fake documentation;
- [6] general accommodating attitude of Malaysians towards foreigners.

In 1998, new rules such as compound fines, imprisonment and caning were introduced. These applied not only to the illegal immigrant and worker but also to

their employers and procurers and those caught falsifying official documents (Kassim 2001a).

3.5 SUMMATION

Even though the immigration policies of the three countries are distinct, similar features can be noted as characteristic of those five tendencies mentioned by Castles and Miller (2003) in Section 2.4.

Firstly, all three countries are experiencing the globalisation of migration. Foreign workers are coming from a diversity of areas of origin. In the early postwar years, Australia's rapid industrial growth was greatly assisted by the influx of labour from Europe but more recently, it is drawing labour from over 100 different nations, the majority of which are located in the Asian region. Malaysia has been Singapore's main source of foreign workers since its early development. Now they both serve as a magnet for workers from most countries around the globe with those from Asia predominating. This factor has produced a multi-racial/ethnic and multi-lingual population with a diverse range of religious beliefs and cultural heritages.

Secondly, the volume of foreign nationals being employed in all three countries is getting larger as reported by the numbers in the foreign labour force.

Thirdly, with industrialisation and advances made in technology, a greater variety of jobs have become available in the different industry sectors. For example, the growing number of job opportunities for women workers in particular, in manufacturing and services, has contributed in a major way to the increased foreign labour force numbers. Malaysia has one-third of its foreign female population in manufacturing and one-half in services. In Singapore, as much as a quarter of the total foreign labour population are employed as domestic maids. The earlier emphasis on large numbers of low-skilled workers for the labour-intensive agriculture and manufacturing operations has also in recent years given way to greater expectations for higher skill levels in new recruits.

Fourthly, these expectations have been reflected in the immigration policies, which have become more regulated and selective to accommodate the ever-changing requirements of the various sectors in their economy. In all three countries, the visa categories have grown significantly more complex so as to cater for the many types

of international foreign workers (best explained by Marx's three forms of 'reserve army' in Section 2.2). Generally, those with skill are accepted more readily whilst those with little or no skill are not welcomed even though demands for unskilled labour remains high. As a disincentive, the unskilled workers in Malaysia and Singapore face restrictions in terms of access to superannuation, personal freedoms etc.

Fifthly, with cheaper air travel and easier access to these countries, temporary migration has grown rapidly in significance, accounting for a very substantial proportion of the total international flow of foreign workers. The numbers in illegal and clandestine workers have also been increasing. This has brought about a tightening of economic immigration regulations and national security enforcement. In keeping with the social transformation of the labour market, as Castles and Miller (2003) had indicated, labour policies are being considered together with domestic politics, bilateral and regional relationships, and national security policies of states around the world.

The study of these three countries indicates how immigration policy has been utilised as an instrument to shape the composition and to control the size and distribution of the foreign labour force which invariably impacts on the nation's population and its overall economic, social and political well-being.

CHAPTER IV

INDIVIDUAL, ORGANISATION & ENVIRONMENT EFFECTS ON ETHICAL DECISION MAKING OF FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The cycle of FLE is affected by a host of determinants interacting at four different levels: global, country, organisational and individual (as discussed in Section 1.3 and Chapter II). Although FLE might involve individual(s), business organisation(s) and labour receiving/host and sending countries directly, its levels/strategies are impacted upon indirectly by international migration patterns and networks, the global market environment, technological developments and international regulatory bodies. The benefits and costs were also reviewed in regards to the individual, the organisation and the countries concerned.

Chapter III discussed FLE and its impact on three countries - Australia, Singapore and Malaysia – in particular, the immigration policy, population, religion and workforce.

The focus of this chapter will be on the factors that impinge on FLE levels/strategies at the individual and organisation levels. It will examine the literature particularly contributions made by ethical decision models that explicitly refer to these contingency factors involved in the ethical decision-making (EDM) process affecting the individual in an organisational context. Before launching into this, it is important to first define the concepts of culture and ethics and discuss how they relate to EDM in the corporate individual. Second, it is necessary to touch upon certain issues pertaining to EDM before reviewing the current models.

4.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS

References concerning descriptions of terms such as culture, attitudes, personality, etc. have been made to a range of publications dating from several decades ago to recent years. The reason for this is, in part, to acknowledge the

valuable contributions made by earlier authors and to give a sense of the progression of ideas to readers.

4.2.1 CULTURE

The term *culture* is derived from the Latin root ‘colere’ (Slonim 1991, p. 3) which means to till, cultivate or nurture (like a plant). Culture ought to be viewed as ‘a property of an independently defined stable social unit’ (Schein 1985, p. 7) in that a given set of people have experienced a significant amount of common experiences together. Overtime, these have provided them with a shared view of the world around them and their place in it. Culture, in this regard, represents the learned product of the group and can therefore be found only where there is a definable group with a significant history (Scarborough 1998; Schein 1985).

Triandis and Suh (2002) stated that culture to society is akin to memory to individuals. It includes all that has worked in the experience of a society and considered worth transmitting to future generations – ‘a kind of blueprint for all of life’s activities’ or ‘storehouse of pooled learning of the group’ (Kluckhohn 1961, p. 20-32). This ties in well with Darwin’s fitness theory, which claimed that through a process of natural selection only elements that are deemed superior and adaptable would pass on and propagate (Barrett, Dunbar & Lycett 2002; Rozin 2000; Wilson 1980). Culture is thus recognised as evolving and dynamically being produced through mankind’s adaptive responses to changing circumstances in their environment (Oyama 2000; Slonim 1991).

4.2.2 ETHICS

The word “ethics” owes its origins to ancient Greece where the word *ethikos* referred to the authority of custom and tradition (Grace & Cohen 2005, p. 3). According to Francis (1994, 1999, 2000), ethics has more to do with values rather than custom. Ethics is like when you apply the golden rule whereas custom is related more closely with etiquette. Even though the term “ethics” have sometimes been used interchangeably with the term “morals”, he argued that morals usually refer to

standards that are held by the community, often in a form not explicitly articulated. *Ethics*, on the other hand, is concerned with highly explicit codes of conduct designed to produce particular ends and act in accordance with particular values. It is essentially prescriptive rather than descriptive (ibid).

Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989) considered that it would be more accurate to restrict the terms of *morals* and *morality* to the conduct itself. They concurred with Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich (1989) that the term *ethics* and *ethical* should refer to the study and philosophy of human conduct with an emphasis on what is right and wrong. Taylor (1975) agreed that ethics should be regarded as an ‘inquiry into the nature and grounds of morality’ (p. 1), where morality is meant to refer to moral judgements, standards and rules of conduct. The latter is best encapsulated in the term ‘ethos’ (Becker 1999, p. 11; Geertz 1973, p. 126).

Ethics in business therefore is concerned with organisational behaviour in accordance with the accepted rules of moral philosophy (Robin & Reidenbach 1987, p. 45). In a comprehensive sense, business ethics is understood to involve economic life issues at the individual, organisational and systemic levels of decision-making and behaviour (Enderle 1997).

4.2.3 CULTURE AND ETHICS LINK

Human beings are able to make culture possible by their ability to learn and innovate, to communicate via a system of learned symbolic structures and to transmit that, which has been acquired, from generation to generation (Dobzhansky, Ayala, Stebbins & Valentine 1977; Kluckhohn 1961; Tomasello 1999). But it is the group that determines the individual’s culture – language, attitudes, values, habits, behaviour etc. (explained by Hofstede’s ‘mental programming’ in Section 5.4). The individual who becomes a member of the group is endowed with language skills and appropriate attitudes and behaviour through the process of socialisation. Durkheim had considered socialisation as ‘the social factor that moulds and transforms’ (Wright 1996, p. 5). McDougall (1908) preferred the term *moralisation* because he reasoned that individuals are ‘moulded’ by the group into which they are born and have grown up in so that they can ‘fit’ in socially.

4.2.4 PSYCHO-BIOLOGY, CULTURE AND ETHICS LINK

Socialisation is thus aimed at ethical conduct which, according to Dobzhansky (1967), is 'that which helps to promote life and hence evolutionary progress' (p. 340). In other words, individuals are expected to adopt the ethical and value systems of their society so as not to jeopardise their (including their future generations) success and survival. A good example is the attitude concerning homosexuality, marriage and family.

'Evolved behaviour' (Oyama 2000, p. 27) through natural selection has, in this regard, insured that every individual is genetically and socially endowed to become an 'ethicizing being' (Dobzhansky et al. 1977, p. 455) or to put it in another way, educable in the ethics, values and morals of their society. What is inherited is a potential to 'ethicize' and the brain has to be of sufficient size and complexity to understand, for example, the point of the behaviour rules to be learned (Barrett, Dunbar & Lycett 2002). Its expression, on the other hand, is still subject to the culture into which the individual is born (Dawkins 1989). No matter what given inherent traits humans may possess (selfishness and others), Dawkins (1989, 1999) claimed that these can be counteracted with culturally derived group ethics. Individuals will evaluate and modify their attitudes and behaviour to eventually favour only those with reproductive proficiency or which are 'evolutionary stable' (Smith 1974) as these have not been surpassed by alternatives. Good reviews of contributions made by evolutionary psychology or sociobiology can be found in Caporael (2001) and Nielsen (1994).

4.3 ETHICAL DECISION MAKING ISSUES

There are at least four key issues concerning EDM. Firstly, there needs to be a moral issue with the decision before the ethics component is activated (Fritzsche 1991). A moral issue is present where choice or volition is involved and the person's subsequent action has consequences for others (Jones 1991). Hunt and Vitell (1986) concurred that if the individual does not perceive an ethical problem in the situation, subsequent elements of the model do not come into play. Yetmar and Eastman (2000) suggested that 'ethical sensitivity' (p. 271-272) or the ability to recognise

ethical content in a problem situation before an ethical decision is made is vital for without it, practitioners might act amorally or immorally.

Secondly, certain ethical issues faced by the decision-maker are specific to the type of management position and hierarchical level of position held (Fritzsche 1991). This can also be said for the relevance of ethical issues to certain professional and industry groups. For this reason, Wotruba (1990) was motivated to design a framework for analysing EDM among sales personnel.

Thirdly, the type of issue faced by the decision-maker might influence the ethical nature of the decision held (Fritzsche 1991). Jones (1991) argued that EDM is issue contingent, that is, characteristics of the moral issue, collectively known as 'moral intensity' (p. 371), could alter the balance of teleological and deontological considerations in the evaluation stage and therefore are important determinants of EDM and behaviour.

Finally, the ethical nature of decisions is influenced by the relative importance of both internal and external stakeholder groups to the organisation (Hunt & Vitell 1986, 1993; Vitell & Singhapakdi 1991).

4.4 ETHICAL DECISION MAKING MODELS

A search made initially from the database ABI/INFORM, which later was replaced by Business Source Premier, indicated that by far the most widely cited of the EDM models have been those designed for management and for marketing practitioners. Three in particular that had been developed in the eighties, models by Ferrell and Gresham (1985, revised 1989), Hunt and Vitell (1986, revised 1993) and Trevino (1986, revised 1992), are the best known and have been integrated into several later models (eg. Fritzsche 1991, Malhotra & Miller 1998, Wotruba 1990). Hunt & Vitell's model has also been the most extensively assessed of the EDM models (Cherry & Fraedrich 2002).

Reviews of different EDM models can be found in Bartlett (2003), Jones (1991), Loe, Ferrell and Mansfield (2000) and Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989). Variations were noted in the focus, contingency factors and number of stages considered in the existing models.

Rest's (1986) model was strictly cognitive and consisted of a basic four-stage EDM process beginning with recognition to judgement, resolution and action of the moral issue (later incorporated into Wotruba's 1990, Jones's 1991 and Harrington's 1997 frameworks). Most EDM models examined the individual contingency factors only as cognitive structures. For example, Trevino's (1986) person-situation interactionist perspective focused on the individual moderators of ego strength, field dependence and locus of control whereas Ferrell and Gresham (1985) listed individual factors such as knowledge, values, attitudes and intentions.

Bommer, Gratto, Gravender and Tuttle (1987), Hunt and Vitell (1993) and Wotruba (1990) were notably some exceptions that had incorporated cognitive structures along with individual demographics, personal and social/cultural environment effects in their models. The five-stage synthesis by Ferrell et al. (1989) was distinctive for integrating individual, organisational and environmental elements from an earlier model (designed by Ferrell & Gresham 1985) with Kohlberg's (1969) moral development process and Hunt and Vitell's (1986) moral philosophical theories of deontology and teleology. Hunt and Vitell's (1993) model was considered the most comprehensive in explaining the affects of personal characteristics, stakeholders and various environmental contingency factors (cultural, professional, industry and organisational) within the entirety of the EDM process. The framework by Bommer et al. (1987) was noted for the most number of contingency factors, a total of 23 environmental (work, personal, professional, governmental/legal and social) and individual variables.

According to Conrad (1993), there are two dominant views presented in organisational ethics literature. The first focuses upon the individuals' ethical systems and represents an 'undersocialised' view of ethics, which virtually ignores the social context within which ethical behaviour occurs. The second focuses upon organisational cultures and represents an 'oversocialised' conception because it attributes ethical behaviour to the social context of the organisational culture and neglects the individual psychological factors. He argued that ethics lie in the realm of the personal value systems of individual actors and form therefore the unique

product of that individual's life history. At the same time, ethics are a component of organisational culture (referred also as ethical or moral climate in the literature) and a product of the socialisation process which individuals undergo when they are being socialised into accepting those particular value-sets. Conrad contended the literature on EDM has not yet reach a stage of theoretical integration and coherence that can embrace the complexities of organisational reality.

Whilst the role of culture has been well acknowledged in EDM models, the role of genes and habitat factors (historical and ecological) have noticeably been overlooked. Genetic influences tend to be subsumed under the category of cognitive structures such as level of cognitive moral development, values, motivation, goals, personality etc. Environmental influences were restricted to 'situational' moderators that impact the organisation. It is important to recognise genetic influences alongside cultural environment components (individual and those involving the organisation) because together they contribute to and promote differences in terms of individual and professional development and abilities. As Thompson (1995) had indicated, the decision-maker needs to be seen not only in an organisational but also in a cultural and social setting as well. Triandis and Suh (2002) felt that a study on culture has to consider both social and ecological elements with the role of biology because the inter- and intra-play of these elements shape the individual and its society.

The objective of this chapter is to examine the individual, organisational and environmental contingency factors contributing to the individual's EDM within the context of FLE. To take place in three separate sections, the first will consider individual factors or personal characteristics that impact EDM. The second and third will look respectively at the organisational and environmental factors affecting EDM of the individual in an organisational setting. A review of the ethical theories most commonly referred to in the literature on EDM would ensue.

4.5 INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

4.5.1 EFFECTS OF GENES AND CULTURE

Hofstede (1994, 2001) explained that there are three parts to a person – human nature, culture and personality. Human nature is the part that is universal or

common to all. Essentially inherited, the physical and psychological functions are genetically determined such as the ability to feel hungry, fear, anger etc. Culture is the collective part or that which is learned and derived from the environment. Whilst feelings are part of human nature, the manner in which they are expressed is culturally determined or modified. Personality is partly inherited and partly learned characteristics distinct to an individual. These three parts, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) stated, form the 'mental programming' or the 'software of the mind' (p. 3) of every person whereby that which is learned refers to the influence of programming by the collective as well as by the person's own unique experiences.

Leiris (1958) concurred that personality, which is made up of the sum of the outward behaviour and psychological attitudes unique to the individual, is affected by biological heredity and by experiences in personal life, at work and as a member of society. Whilst biological heredity affects the physical organs and transmits a range of compartments, which are regarded as instinctive, a person's social heritage will influence experiences from birth and thereby the behaviours that might be acquired to constitute his/her personality. Owing to this, the cultural environment is one of primary importance not merely because it determines what and how the person learns from it, but more significantly it is the "environment" within which and in terms of which s(he) responds to.

To some extent the 'cultural' environment includes the particular physical (ecological) environment in which the person was born. The latter cannot be thought of as 'natural' because the (bio-geographical) habitat is invariably to a greater or lesser degree made up of artificial elements modified by the culture of the group (ibid, p. 23-25). Changes occurring in the geographic, topographic, climatic, economic, political/legal, socio/cultural, religious, demographic and technological history and environment of the country of origin (and of the present country of residence if applicable) can affect the culture of the individual. 'Country' factors exert a greater degree of influence on the individual's culture than factors from its global surrounds (Aviel 1990; Hofstede 1984; Kotler 2003). Further discussions on effects of environment can be found in Section 4.7 on "Environmental Factors".

4.5.2 EFFECTS OF COGNITION

Tomasello (1999) considered that human cognition is distinct from that of many mammalian and primate species. Its species-unique characteristics have enabled human beings to be biologically adapted for culture.

Cognition is determined by the person's cognitive moral development (CMD) stage, which Kohlberg (1969) recognised as having a strong influence on a person's moral judgement, a term that is synonymous with EDM (Trevino 1986). Inspired by Piaget's 1932 seminal study of moral development in children, Kohlberg (1976) developed a theory based on the idea that a person's ability to deal with moral issues took place at three major levels, in an invariant sequence of six progressive stages (app. IV.1).

At the first (pre-conventional) level, the individual (most children under the age of nine, some adolescents and many youth and adult criminal offenders) is only able to reason through a situation in egocentric terms and has concern only for concrete consequences in terms of rewards and punishments. Rightness or wrongness of an action is determined by those authorised to mete out the reward or punishment.

At the second (conventional) level, the person (most youths and adults) determines a right action by what conforms to the larger society or group (for example, family, peer group) expectations of appropriate behaviour. The personal self has begun to internalise the rules and identify with the expectations of significant others. The focus of the moral arbitrator also develops respect for a system (for example, society's laws) that is larger than any one-authority figure.

At the third (post-conventional) level, the individual is able to differentiate self from the rules, expectations and authority of significant others to define his/her values in terms of self-chosen principles held in accordance with universal moral doctrine. Very few adults reach this level (Elliott 1997; Kohlberg 1976; Trevino 1986). From his research, Kohlberg (1984) was able to postulate that the six moral stages did not vary between cultures but variability was experienced in the rates of moral development.

Despite its worthy contribution to research, Kohlberg's model of moral judgements has its limitations. According to Trevino (1986), the model explains the cognitive aspect of how individuals think about moral dilemmas but not the behaviour that is carried out in a particular decision situation (p. 609). Although the

model posits the two should be related owing to the individual's drive for consistency between thought and action, research has shown only a moderate relationship between these two elements. Moral judgement is regarded a necessary condition but this in itself is not sufficient to produce moral behaviour such as honesty, altruism and resistance to temptation (Blasi 1980; Trevino 1986).

Bartlett (2003) indicated that Kohlberg's scope of morality was biased towards males and urban Western democratic cultures. Gilligan (1982) addressed the gender bias with her perspective on female personality development. She contended that morality included two moral orientations. Besides the morality of justice strongly emphasised also by other male theorists such as Freud and Piaget, there is the ethic of care and response, which Gilligan considered as playing a more central role in female moral judgement and action (Kohlberg, Levine & Hower 1983).

Her collaboration with Lyons (1982) reported that most males and females utilised both orientations to frame moral dilemmas but whilst females tended to focus on the orientation of care and response as their predominant mode, males were inclined to direct theirs on justice (Gilligan 1982, p. 123). Although Gilligan did not define structural stages in the caring orientation, she has accounted for three levels, which correlate with those of Kohlberg's. The pre-conventional level is primarily egocentric. The conventional level is concerned mainly with caring for others and the post-conventional level balances care for self with care for others (ibid, p. 126).

Fritzsche (1991), Ross and Robertson (2003) and Trevino (1986) are among several researchers who have examined and found an empirical basis for the mediating role of personality variables such as locus of control, Machiavellianism, personal values, personality traits etc.

4.5.3 EFFECTS OF WORK AND JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Theorists such as Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich (1989), Hunt and Vitell (1986, 1993) and Trevino (1986) recognised the significance of work experiences on adult moral development and incorporated Kohlberg's (1969) moral judgement into their EDM frameworks. According to Trevino (1986), opportunities for role taking and responsibility for the resolution of moral dilemmas are two job characteristics that can improve moral development in the adult individual. Ethics, as Manning

(1981) argued, has a bearing not only on physical and mental health but also on professional fulfilment. Optimal personal and professional development, he added, cannot be attained without the full maturation of conscience.

4.6 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

4.6.1 EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE

Schein (1985) referred to organisational culture as a pattern of common assumptions, beliefs and values, which have developed to represent the group's learned responses to problems of external adaptation and internal integration and which are passed on to new members to guide their actions with respect to these environments. The organisation may have an overall culture and/or several sub-group cultures operating; for example, managerial culture, a variety of occupationally based cultures in functional units, group cultures based on geographical proximity, worker cultures based on shared hierarchical experiences etc (ibid, p. 7).

Organisational culture serves importantly as the overall glue of the organisation. It is determined partly by nationality, industry threats and opportunities, task and market, partly by the organisation's structure and control systems (in large companies by top management and in small companies by the entrepreneur's personality), and partly by the company's history and mission (Fritzsche 1991; Hofstede 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Longenecker, McKinney & Moore 1989; Robin & Reidenbach 1987).

Organisational culture is manifested in norms, ceremonies, legends, myths and rituals within the organisation (Fritzsche 1991). Codes of ethical conduct and reinforcement contingencies (Trevino, Butterfield & McCabe 1998) form part of the normative structure incorporated in the EDM models along with corporate goals (Bommer et al. 1987; Pruden 1971) and policies (Bommer et al. 1987; Ferrell et al. 1989; Fritzsche 1991; Hunt & Vitell 1993; Trevino 1986), standards of performance, responsibility and accountability (Pruden 1971; Trevino 1986).

These normative structures exist to [1] influence efficiency, productivity, decision-making, utilisation of human and financial resources, [2] motivate as well as guide interpersonal behaviour and [3] help define the corporate image to various

departments within the organisation, the business community and society at large (Dion 1996; Trevino 1986). However, they can serve also to constrain or retard moral reasoning and the overall CMD capacity of the individual, according to Trevino (1992). Further discussions on organisational culture can be found in Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2004).

4.6.2 EFFECTS OF THE ORGANISATION'S COGNITIVE MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Inspired by the work on individual moral development by Kohlberg (1976, 1984) and Trevino (1986), Reidenbach and Robin (1991) developed a model describing the moral development of a corporation in five stages: amoral, legalistic, responsive, emergent ethical and ethical organisation. They maintained that in essence, it is the organisation's culture that undergoes moral development and this can be classified according to the degree to which the social obligations are recognised and achieved with the economic mission.

Trevino, Butterfield and McCabe (1998) distinguished between the constructs of *ethical culture* (Trevino 1990) and *ethical climate* (Victor & Cullen 1987, 1988) and considered them both as influencers on attitudes and/or ethical behaviour in the organisational context. Ethical culture characterises the organisation in terms of formal and informal control systems (for example, rules, reward systems, and norms) which are aimed more specifically at influencing behaviour. Ethical climate, on the other hand, characterises the organisation in terms of broad normative characteristics and qualities that tell people the kind of organisation it is essentially and what it values. As such, ethical climate is associated with attitudes even though it might influence decision making and behaviour only indirectly. Likewise, a culture supporting ethical conduct through codes of conduct is likely to be tied in to a climate valuing rules and laws (Trevino et al. 1998).

The culture of the organisation, in turn contributes to the moral development of its organisational members (Trevino 1986). A democratic culture can encourage members to take responsibility for decisions, to resolve conflicts at lower organisational levels and to be open-minded. Awareness of the consequences of actions and an ascription of responsibility to self are necessary conditions for the

activation of the individual's moral norms and its influence on behaviour. An organisation where roles are strictly prescribed and decisions are based on formal authority can, on the other hand, arrest moral development and repress expressions in situations at work (ibid).

Conversely, Fritzsche (1991) suggested that a culture that is characterised as open and democratic might delegate authority and responsibility to lower levels of the organisation which increases the opportunity for lower level decision-makers to engage in unethical decision making. This tendency could be mitigated if the shared values of the culture work against morally questionable behaviour. A more autocratic culture with more morally permissive values could also bring about a lower level of ethical behaviour (ibid).

4.6.3 INFLUENCES OF REFERENT OTHERS

Thompson (1995) suggested that the scope of EDM is not limited to a specific set of rules and obligations but constantly being negotiated through a dialogue among social interest groups. Fritzsche (1991) stated that 'referent others' could generally be applied to stakeholders or individuals/groups, both external and internal to the company who can affect and be affected in turn by the organisation. Models designed by Hunt and Vitell (1986, 1993), Malhotra and Miller (1998) and Wotruba (1990) referred to stakeholder groups as an integrative part of the EDM process.

Theorists on EDM (eg. Ferrell et al. 1989, Fritzsche 1991, Trevino 1986) emphasised that the ethical dimension of a decision would be affected by the decision-maker's relationship to referent or significant others. The behaviour of associates, particularly that of the supervisor/top management, serves as a guidepost for ethical/unethical behaviour (Fritzsche 1991). Consistent with social learning theory, the possibility of the decision-maker adopting the beliefs and behaviour of his/her superiors and peers would depend on the degree of association, organisational distance and level of legitimate authority (Ferrell & Gresham 1985; Fritzsche 1991; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

There is much compelling evidence on obedience to authority such as Milgram-type obedience studies (Trevino 1986). In a survey by Fortune 500,

marketing, finance and production executives overwhelmingly admitted to compromises of personal values in order to succeed in their organisations (Lincoln, Pressley & Little 1982). Carroll (1975) found that managers lower in the organisational structure felt more pressure to compromise their personal values to achieve company goals as well as demonstrate their loyalty. But as Trevino (1986, 1992) pointed out, conformity to the group and maintenance of the status quo are also salient considerations in the business organisation setting.

Trevino (1986) suggested also that norms generated by the individual's relevant subculture or referent others could become more important when the organisational culture is weak, that is, the values, goals, purposes and beliefs that form the normative structure of the total organisation are unclear. Researchers' findings (eg. Alam 1995, Gupta & Sulaiman 1996, Robin & Reidenbach 1987, Soutar, McNeil & Molster 1994; Zabid & Alsagoff 1993) have supported Fritzsche's (1991) view on the importance of top management's conduct of the climate and goals of the organisation. These are seen to relate to the development of corporate codes and policy, reward structure and in turn the CMD and ethical behaviour of organisational individuals.

4.6.4 EFFECTS OF PROFIT-MAKING

Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989) conceded that doing business is getting progressively far more complex by organisations extending their businesses beyond national borders into foreign environments. When people in business are faced with an ethical dilemma, this is further compounded by two factors: profit making and cultural differences (ibid). Discussions on profit making will take place in this section whilst those on cultural differences will ensue in the section following.

According to Ferrell and Gresham (1985, p. 90), internal organisational pressures such as those often directed at levels below top management can affect ethical behaviour. The pressure to achieve company goals, which usually is measured in monetary terms tends to be particularly acute because areas of responsibility of middle managers are often treated as profit centres for purposes of evaluation. In Hoffman, Couch and Lamont's (1998) survey of 171 managers from a financial and

communication conglomerate, they discovered that the tendency to act ethically diminishes when personal economic well being became an issue.

Profit making is without question important to every business organisation. According to Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989), profit-as-the-bottom-line has historically been the 'ethical yardstick' (p. 725) for business. This view was encapsulated most famously in Friedman's (1970) article expounding on 'the business of business is business' and businesses have 'one and only one social responsibility' (p. 126) which is, to increase profits for the benefit of its stockholders.

But in the last decade or so, there has been a growing consensus amongst scholars indicating that the role and responsibility of business extended well beyond that of wealth generation. For example, in Davies' (1997) view, the immediate financial performance of an organisation indicated only a partial measure of its business success and if businesses were to prosper, they would have to see themselves 'as part of a wider system' (p. 50). De George (1993) considered that doing business was after all not just a matter of economic exchange of money, commodities and profits. Neither was business an activity amongst isolated individuals, according to Beauchamp and Bowie (2004), but one which involved a whole spectrum of human interactions that was intertwined with the political, social, legal and cultural life of society. Preston (2001) maintained that because a business operates and benefits from within a social environment, it (as a moral agent) was obliged to contribute towards it as part of its social responsibility. In a similar way, Armstrong and Sweeney (2001) argued that a business had to be mindful of its corporate social responsibility at fulfilling economic and financial commitments not only to its stockholders but also to all its other stakeholders (customers, employees, suppliers, etc). At the same time, it needed to meet the social, cultural, environmental interests of the community in which it was licensed to operate (ibid).

4.6.5 EAST-WEST CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989) asserted that people from different cultures hold different values and ethical beliefs and these have their diverse effects on business practices. Business practices deemed as ethical in one country might not be considered likewise in another country. In a similar way, ethical norms such as

honesty, integrity, self-discipline, loyalty and compassion are universally accepted but adhering standards can vary greatly amongst people (ibid).

Comparative management studies (eg. Nyaw & Ng 1994) have demonstrated that the most pronounced differences are those between western and eastern cultured individuals. Researchers such as Lu et al. (1999), Robertson (2000), Robertson and Hoffman (2000), Tsui and Windsor (2001) applied Hofstede's theory of culture and found cross-cultural differences between their nominated East Asian and Western groups of respondents. Small's (1992) findings on the ethical views of Australian, US and Israeli students from a western Australian university led him to conclude that there was a commonality of ethics and practices by businesses throughout the western world. In the eastern world, these would be among those of Chinese origins. Lee and Yoshihara (1997) discovered that Korean and Japanese business executives held similar business ethics.

Like other culture theorists such as Triandis and Suh (2002) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2002), Hofstede (1984, 1994) had proposed that national differences vary on several cultural dimensions. The most employed dimension to describe differences between countries has been individualism-collectivism. In individualistic cultures, the individuals' prime concern is with themselves and their immediate family. Cultures which endorse individualism, in countries of North America, Western Europe and Australia, for example, value autonomy, competitiveness, achievement and self-sufficiency very highly. By comparison, individuals in collectivistic cultures found in most of Asia belong to strong, cohesive in-groups that look after them in exchange for their loyalty (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Robertson & Fadil 1999). As such, collectivists tend to be less tolerant of deviations from group norms than individualists and morality is defined as what is good for the in-group in respect to maintaining solidarity (Husted 2000; Triandis 1994a).

Lieber, Yang and Lin (2000) found that a Western conception of achievement is very much an individualistic representation of self whereas the Asian (Chinese) achievement conception reflects a more collective representation of self. The Chinese people, for example, being influenced by the Confucian moral tradition and family-centred ethos tend to define themselves in the context of their social networks (ibid; Berger 1994). Their business attitude is shaped by interpersonal connections based on interdependence and reciprocity (Milner & Quiltry 1996; Su, Sirgy & Littlefield

2003; Triandis 1994b, 1995). Known as *quanxi*, it represents the person's socio-economic network connections and has contributed significantly to the success of the overseas Chinese in the South East Asian region (Milner & Quiltry 1996, p. 25-28).

Bond also realised that the cultural and philosophical foundations of the Chinese were different from Western (American) people and together with Hofstede (1994) instituted the fifth dimension, Confucian Dynamism. Bond's (1986, 1996) study on organisations of the overseas Chinese revealed that successful economic performance was closely correlated with the Confucian heritage among countries such as Singapore, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Hong Kong. Armstrong and Sweeney (1994, p. 777) were also supportive of the view that 'the issue of ethicality is culturally specific and what has been developed in the west could not be directly applied to the Oriental culture (confirmed by Chan, Lau and Ip's 1988 study between Chinese and non-Chinese executives). Further discussions on the business behaviour of the overseas Chinese can be found in Berger (1994), Lee (1991), Clegg and Redding (1990), Redding (1990) and Zang (2000).

The impact of national culture on ethical judgements and behaviours, however, is undeniably strong. Laurent's (1986) survey of international managers revealed that nationality had three times more influence on shaping managerial assumptions than any other personal characteristics. Christie, Kwon, Stoeberl and Baumhart (2003, p. 264) listed at least 30 empirical cross-cultural studies that recognised the influence of national culture on ethical attitudes and behaviours.

International work-related migration has produced a great diversity in the population of many nations today. Even though a variety of ethnic, religious and linguistic sub-divisions are present, most of the stereotypical characteristic known of the nation will be those identified from the dominant ethnic group (Slonim 1991).

In some countries, adaptations to the nation's dominant business culture were found to prevail. Rashid and Ho's (2003) investigations of the business ethics of Malay, Chinese and Indian managers in multicultural Malaysia came up with only a partial support for differences based on ethnicity. They linked this to the adaptation of the Malays and Indians to the dominant Chinese business values and the acculturation of the Malaysian society. Likewise, when Lee (1981) could not establish significant differences between the ethical beliefs of Chinese and British managers in Hong Kong, he attributed this to the acculturation of the British managers to the local business practices.

4.7 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Most of the organisational factors discussed above are management influenced. Together with factors from the external environment (discussion in Section 1.3) they are important moderators in the EDM process as models by, for example, Bommer et al. (1987), Ferrell et al. (1989), Hunt and Vitell (1993) and Wotruba (1990) show.

Research on the impact of environmental influences has come up with mixed results. Despite the existence of different socio-cultural and political factors, the ethical beliefs of South African and Australian marketing managers were found to be similar (Abratt, Nel & Higgs 1992). Conversely, Whitcomb, Erdener and Li (1998) discovered that the institutional environment played an important role in shaping ethical values. They discussed how Confucianism, Maoism and more recently the new market orientation based on profit as the overriding goal have affected the business value system of the people of China.

Milner and Quiltry (1996) indicated that Australia's geographical location, its convict origins and the important role played by the rural sector in the country's economy and mythology have contributed to a social environment of egalitarianism, the notion of a 'fair go' and 'mateship' (bond between men). Whilst these concepts might be English in origin, their adaptation nevertheless has served to distinguish Australia from other Western countries (ibid, p. 30-31).

From comparisons made between respondents of a developed western economy (Australian/American) and a developing eastern economy (Sri Lankan/Malaysian-Malays), Batten, Hettihewa and Mellor (1999) and Burns and Brady (1996) found the level of economic development to be a significant factor on ethical management and practice. The results support the contention that "lower" ethical perceptions could be expected among future business personnel in a developing country than their counterparts in a developed country (Burns & Brady 1996). On the other hand, comparative studies by Tan (2002) and Noordin, Williams and Zimmer (2002) suggested that as countries progress in their level of industrialisation, a convergence in Eastern values and a cross-vergence in the Western values seem to occur.

4.8 ETHICAL THEORIES INVOLVED IN DECISION-MAKING MODELS

In moral philosophy, the ethical theories that have exerted the most influence on the EDM models (particular reference to model by Hunt & Vitell) can be classified as either teleological or deontological (Malhotra & Miller 1998).

Teleological theories focus on the “ends” or consequences of the behaviours whereas deontological theories are based upon the “means” and “motives” of the specific behaviours of an individual (Ferrell & Gresham 1985; Hunt & Vitell 1986). Derived from the Greek word *telos* that means “goal” or “end”, a teleological act is acceptable and right only if it produces some desired result in terms of pleasure, knowledge, career growth and anything else of utility (Grace & Cohen 2005; Preston 2001, p. 43). Conversely, decisions considered deontological, from the Greek word *deon* meaning “duty”, are expressed by a sense of moral obligation to repay debts, inter alia, and tell the truth because it is the right thing to do (Preston 2001, p. 43; Reidenbach & Robin 1990).

The key issue in teleological theories is the amount of good or bad embodied in the consequences of the behaviours (Hunt & Vitell 1986). As such, they are regarded also as consequential theories. The two main consequential theories are egoism and utilitarianism. Egoism holds that an act is ethical when the consequences are most favourable for the individual (Hunt & Vasquez-Parraga 1993). In contrast, utilitarianism, which emphasises the principle of greatest net utility, contends that an act is right only if it produces for all people a greater balance of good over bad consequences than any other alternative behaviour (Hunt & Vitell 1986; Preston 2001; Tsalikis & Fritzsche 1989). Though this may be a very pragmatic approach to promote, utilitarianism runs into difficulties of failing to recognise the rights of minorities and requires a lot of self-sacrifice on the part of the individuals for the greater benefit of the group (Francis 1994).

Instead of consequences, the key issue in deontological theories is the inherent righteousness of behaviour based on principles of justice, basic rights, duties, obligations, responsibilities, proper conduct and inherent natural rights of others (Akaah 1997; Cherry & Fraedrich 2002; Hunt & Vitell 1986). Known also as non-consequential theories, two that have found considerable acceptance are [1] the Golden Rule of doing unto others as you would have them do unto you and [2]

Kant's Categorical Imperative, which states that a course of action is ethical when it can serve as a universal law. That is, the willingness of the decision-maker to be treated likewise should positions be reversed (Malhotra & Miller 1998).

Malhotra and Miller (1998) and Tsalikis and Fritzsche (1989) have provided short summaries of these theories as well as a hybrid of normative approaches -

- [1] Ross's prima facie duties comprising fidelity, gratitude, justice, beneficence, self-improvement and non-injury;
- [2] Rawl's maximin principle of justice founded on the equal liberty and difference principles;
- [3] Garrett's principle of proportionality which is a synthesis of intention, means and end;
- [4] ethical relativism which asserts that all moral standards and rules of conduct are relative to particular cultures and thus morality is entirely a matter of conforming to the norms acceptable in one's own culture.

According to Francis (2000), deontology requires a commitment to the ethical act for the duties are not in the abstract but rather toward some person, group or idea. In hierarchical form, firstly, they range from duty to self, to family, to local community, to the nation and to humanity and secondly, they range from the intensely personal to conforming to an ideal. They are often faced with a problem of not being able to specify what precisely the duties and moral obligations are as the resulting actions are judged by their intentions.

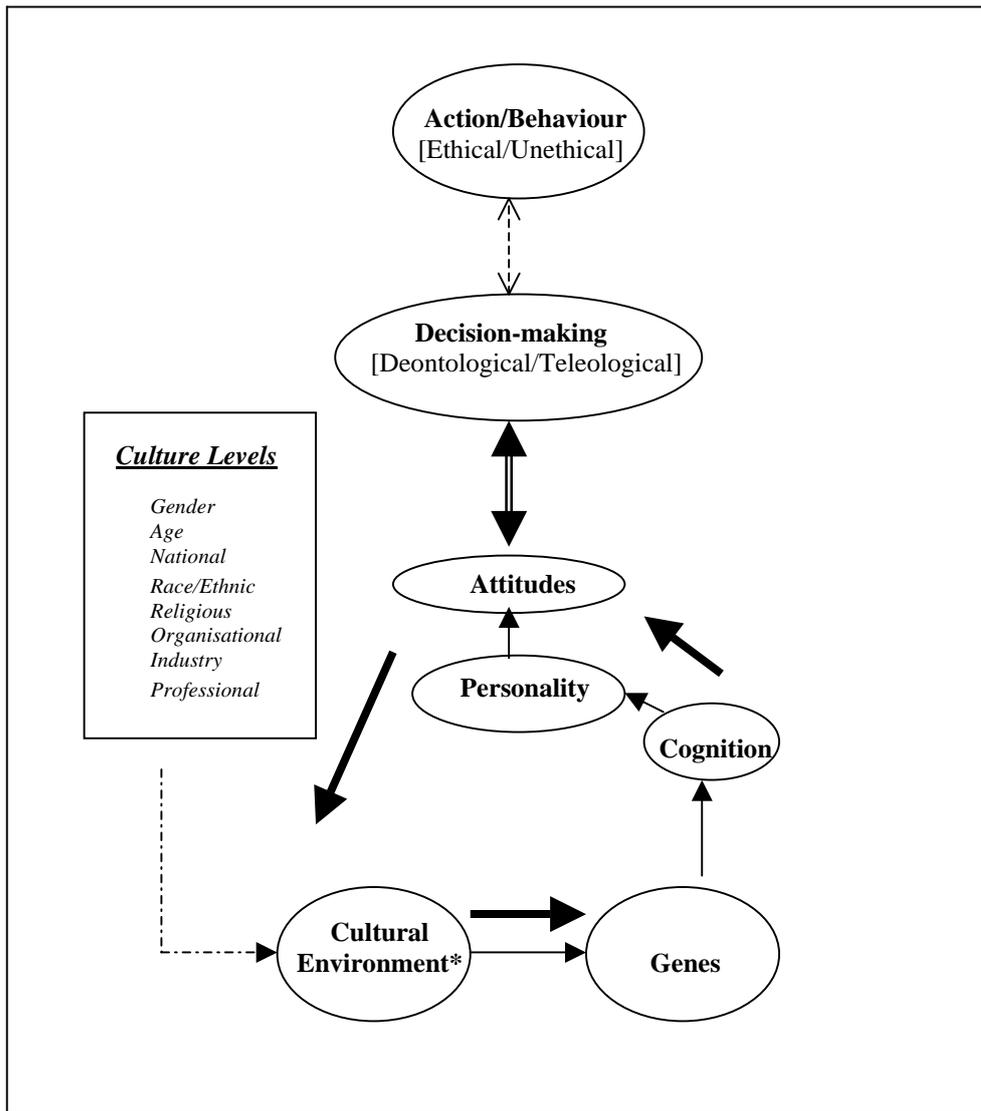
Even though certain situations could induce some individuals to behave as "strict" deontologists (ignoring teleological factors) or teleologists (ignoring deontological considerations), Hunt and Vitell's (1986, 1993) model proposed that individuals generally in most situations would depend on both teleological and deontological considerations when making judgements. These together with teleological considerations would then form their intentions.

This proposal has been supported by empirical findings, for example, Hunt and Vasquez-Parraga (1993), Mayo and Marks (1990) and Vitell and Hunt (1990). Between deontological and teleological considerations, Etzioni (1988) and Hunt and Vasquez-Parraga (1993) indicated that decision-makers would rely principally on the former and secondarily on the latter. Hunt and Vitell (1993) also asserted that ethical norms and sensitivities do vary among individuals and organisations of different

cultural, personal, industry and professional environments. These differences could potentially cause two principals with similar ethical processing styles (deontological or teleological) to be dissimilar with regards to outcomes in ethical viewpoints, beliefs or behaviours.

4.9 SUMMATION

By way of summation, Figure 4.1 illustrates schematically the contingency factors (as discussed above) that are influential in the EDM of managers toward FLE. Decision-making is affected by attitudes, which in succession are determined by, among other factors, the personality of the individual. Two main factors impinge upon person: genes and cultural environment. Social, historical and ecological factors of the environment interact with genetic components to impact the cognitive capabilities of the manager. These elements combined in effect influence the person and are responsible for the attitudes that guide the ethical perspective (teleological and/or deontological) of the manager as expressed through his or her decisions and actions. The decision outcome (ethical or unethical) will produce a feedback loop. An attitudinal evaluation occurs and this in turn will affect the individual's cultural and ethical orientations, which can lead to changes in attitudes and future decision making and action outcomes.



Note: *Cultural environment is made up of historical, ecological and social factors

Figure 4.1: Factors affecting FLE Decision-making in the Manager

CHAPTER V

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the inter-relationships among the variables of genes, culture, attitudes and ethics were discussed. This chapter will consider the theoretical framework, research questions and hypotheses.

5.2 OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

This thesis aimed to discover not only attitudes and ethical stances of managers toward seven different categories of FLE but also the impact of culture on them. Although the investigation involves eight cultural variables, the influence of country, race/ethnicity and religion on FLE attitudes and ethical stances of managers will be the central focus.

The main sample of respondents were secured from three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia), two race/ethnic groups (Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian and Chinese) and two religious denominations (Christian and Buddhist) to make possible a seven variable cross-combination factorial analysis [refer to Figure 1.1]. A small sample of Malay Muslims from Malaysia was also included [as explained in Sections 5.4.4-5.4.5].

5.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

The impression generally accepted among laypersons and scientists is that behaviour is influenced by attitudes whereby attitude is seen as the cause and behaviour as the effect (Rajecki 1990). The effect attitudes have on behaviour will vary with the level of favourableness held (Rajecki 1990; Oskamp 1991). A

favourable attitude will thereby direct the evaluations during decision-making to a positive course of action whereas an unfavourable attitude will cause an unfavourable response. According to the EDM models proposed by Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich (1989), Jones (1991), Hunt and Vitell (1986) among others, the decision-making process involves the need for moral judgement. The individual will have to decide on a stance (ethical or otherwise) to undertake as the course of action to resolve the dilemma. An ethical stance will involve teleological and/or deontological evaluations. Both the attitudes and ethics of the individual are subject to cultural influences.

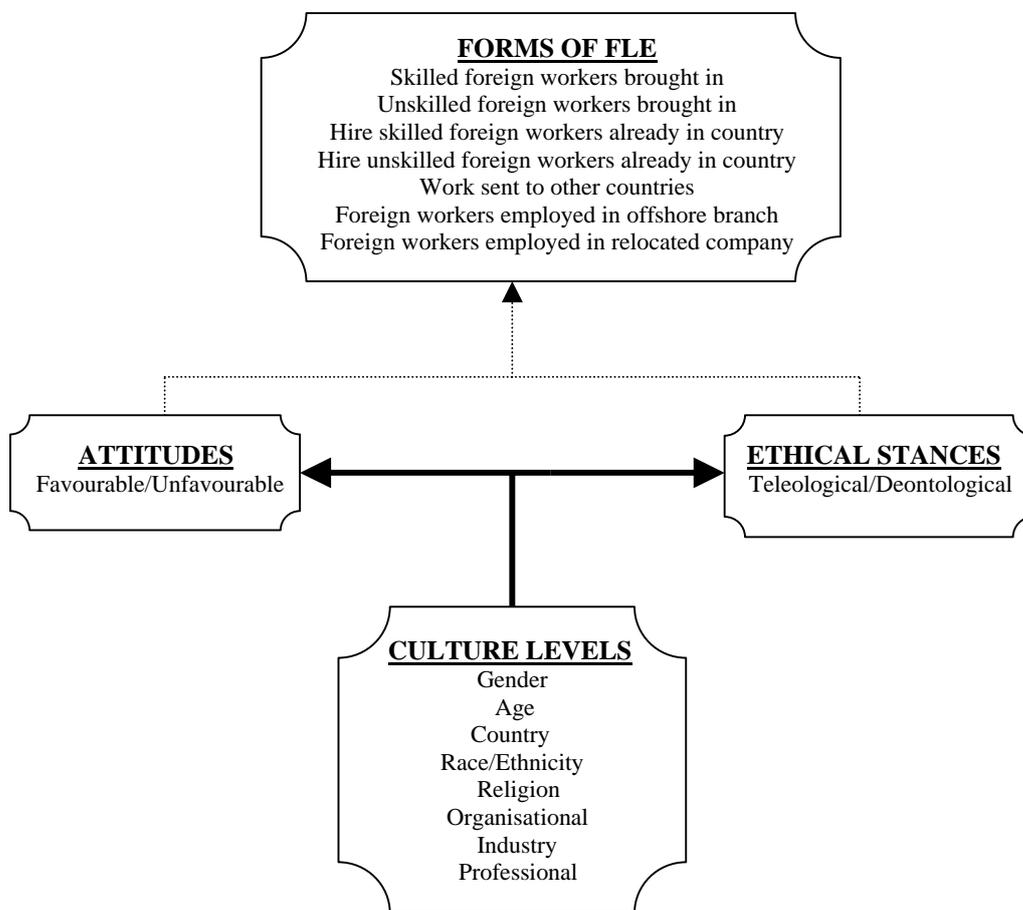


Figure 5.1: Dependent and Independent Variables in EDM of FLE

As Figure 5.1 demonstrates, there are eight different levels of culture that will be examined as the independent variables. They consist of gender, age, country, race/ethnicity, religion, organisational, industry and professional levels. It is

proposed that differences in the independent variables could affect attitudes, either in a favourable or unfavourable manner, concerning each of the seven categories of FLE, which are

- [1] skilled foreign workers brought in;
- [2] unskilled foreign workers brought in;
- [3] hire of skilled foreign workers already in the country;
- [4] hire of unskilled foreign workers already in the country;
- [5] 'work sent' to other countries;
- [6] foreign workers employed in offshore branch;
- [7] foreign workers employed in relocated company.

The framework suggests also that the ethical stance of the manager, whether it be teleological or deontological, is predicated on the different variables of culture.

5.4 CULTURE - ITS LEVELS EXPLAINED

In their review of cultural influences on personality, Triandis and Suh (2002) pointed out that although biological factors play an important role in shaping an individual's pattern of thoughts, emotions and behaviours, the influences of culture remain amongst the most important of environmental effects on the person.

Hofstede (1994) characterised culture as mental programming. Even though culture exists as a 'collective phenomenon' (p. 5), members of one group can be distinguished from another because their shared 'mental programs' (ibid) or understanding of the world will be different to that of members from another group. The individual in modern society is not confined to any one specific social group but belongs instead to a number of different groups at the same time and thereby becomes subjected to the influence of those groups (however many) s/he is interacting with (ibid). Affects from regional, ethnic and religious cultures as well as other demographic variables such as gender, age and education can explain differences amongst individuals within countries (Hofstede 1994; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Rest 1986; Spain, Brewer, Brewer & Garmer 2002). Differences occur also because the layers of mental programming, each representing the culture

of one group, might not necessarily be in harmony with each other; for example, religious values may clash with generational values etc. (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

Concepts of the different levels of culture therefore need to be defined because each level represents distinctive characteristics that sets one category of people apart from another category of people. Altogether eight levels of culture - gender, age, country, race/ethnicity, religion, organisational, industry and occupational - will be explained.

5.4.1 Gender

The degree of differentiation between men and women varies not only biologically but across societies, distinct sex-role type of socialisation and relationship experiences are produced by the social/cultural, religious, legal and economic systems (Hofstede, Arrindell, Best, De Mooil, Hoppe, Van de Vliert, Van Rossum, Verweij, Vunderink & Williams 1998; Milner & Quiltry 1996; Slonim 1991). These factors invariably contribute to different moral foci and sensitivities between men and women (Gilligan 1982). Typically, assertiveness, competitiveness and achievement are deemed masculine values whereas supportiveness, nurturing and concern for relationships and the living environment tend to be considered feminine values (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

5.4.2 Age

Kohlberg (1969) proposed that moral reasoning developed with age and with experiences. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), differences between the younger and older generation levels are usually related to symbols, heroes, rituals, practices and values found in the cultural group. These can easily be observed in fashion, music, taste in food etc. Historical and political events, even technological progress can affect some generations in a particular way. The Chinese who were of student age during the Cultural Revolution are a good example (ibid).

5.4.3 Country

National culture linked to a country normally bespeaks an individual's country of birth. According to Slonim (1991), nationality is an elusive term as it was often taken to imply a religious and/or linguistic origin. Neither is necessarily involved these days for the term has been modified to refer also to a person's country of citizenship, whereby he or she has been declared as legally belonging to the country (as a citizen) despite not having been born there (ibid; Collins 2001). For the analysis, the individual will be identified in terms of his or her country of birth, citizenship and employment.

5.4.4 Race/Ethnicity

The Anglo-Celtics/Caucasians and the Chinese were the two main race and ethnic groups considered from the three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia) investigated. The Malays from Malaysia were included as a sub-group for analysis in view of the fact that they comprise the largest ethnic group in Malaysia.

As a concept, according to Yasmin (2003), race refers to differences that are grounded on genetic and biological characteristics. Leiris (1958) also considered race as a purely biological concept, which distinguishes members of a group from another by their common inherited physical set of distinct features (skin colour, eye shape, pigmentation etc). Scientists agreed that at one time the human species could be categorised into three distinct race groups: white Caucasian, yellow Mongoloid and black Negro. This is no longer possible as interbreeding between groups has produced humans of mixed ancestry (ibid, p. 9-12).

Slonim (1991) argued that race tells nothing about a person's religion, nationality, language, manners or morals as these are derived from his or her ethnic background. The term *ethnic* comes from the Greek word *ethnikos*, which means people or nation. Ethnic characteristics are learned and acquired after birth (ibid, p. 4, 63-64). In other words, ethnicity is not derived from nature but from identification or belonging with a particular reference group (Bauman 1999). It is the same as cultural identity (ibid, p. 19) whereby a particular ethnic group is said to share a common history, language, religion, geography and/or physical characteristics (Khoo & Price

1996; Price 1996). A person's ethnic origin or ancestry is determined by who their parents and other ancestors are and it is possible to have mixed ethnic origins (ibid).

5.4.5 Religion

According to Slonim (1991), different religious origins have contributed to different religious ideologies, which become ingrained in the culture and thereafter in the developing personalities of its various religious followers. Even though it is more of a guiding philosophy than a set of dogmas or ritual observances and church affiliation, religion has a strong influence on all aspects of personality development. It can affect values, attitudes, relationships, occupational choices, politics, education, celebrations and even time orientation (ibid). Whilst this might be so, Sapp's (1986) study did not establish a correspondence between level of moral reasoning and type of religious orientation. Husted (2000, p. 3) claimed that in modern economies, the effects of religion on ethical reasoning or 'the ethics of divinity' are less commonplace than 'the ethics of autonomy' (independent self) or 'the ethics of community'.

Although Buddhism, Hinduism and Islam are acknowledged as the dominant world religions of the east, the commonly encountered eastern religion amongst the Chinese in South East Asia is an amalgam of Buddhism, Taoism, Confucianism and spirit worship (Cheu 1993, p. 199). It is based on concepts of conformity, harmony, fatalism and suppression of emotion (Slonim 1991). By comparison, Christianity as the most accepted western religion is based on concepts that emphasise just the opposite. Competition, control of one's fate and expression are accepted characteristics of the western culture (ibid). According to Childress and Macquarrie (1986), despite the many differences that exist among the dominant world religions, they share a common ethical principle that is deontic and giving of due consideration to others.

Christians and Buddhists were the two main religious groups investigated from the three countries of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. As expressed above, the ethnic Malays from Malaysia were considered for analysis because they form the largest ethnic group in the country. On account of Malaysia being an Islamic nation, it is typical for the Malays to be Muslims. The step to include this sub-group of

Malay Muslim respondents could prove worthwhile should their attitudes and ethics concerning the seven categories of FLE be found to differ from those of the main groups investigated.

5.4.6 Organisational

At this level, the characteristics of the business the respondent is employed with will be

- (a) firm size/type as indicated by whether it is a sole proprietor, partnership, proprietary limited, public-listed or government institution
- (b) ownership in terms of family or non-family owned
- (c) nature and extent of business activity in regards to having offshore operations or not.

5.4.7 Industry

Hofstede (2001) stated that there is a great cultural diversity at this level because an industry is characterised by distinct organisations and distinct occupations. Based on their business activity, the organisations will be categorised into five industrial classifications: mining, manufacturing, service, wholesale/retail and finance. The mining sector will include organisations in mining as well as in agriculture, construction, forestry and fishing. Those in the service industry will comprise also transportation, communication and public administration services. In addition to finance, the finance sector will consist of insurance and real estate organisations.

5.4.8 Professional

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2002) felt it was important to consider also people's functions within the organisation (eg. marketing, personnel, sales) when looking at the behaviour of individuals in organisations. Apart from the

national/regional and organisational levels mentioned by Hofstede (1994), they felt that at each professional level individuals would share specific values and ethical orientations owing to membership of a professional association and adherence to their professional code(s) of ethics (Rallapalli, Vitell & Barnes 1998). Bommer et al. (1987), Hunt and Vitell (1993) and Pruden (1971) proposed that the influence from the professional environment comes in terms of peer support and control as well as in terms of the code of conduct.

The professional (considered 'occupational' by some authors) level will be associated with the status and position the individual holds in the organisation. Status refers to the individual either as a sole owner, part owner or employee. Position considers the individual's title within the company, for example, Managing Director, Director, Manager, Company Secretary or Human Resource Manager.

5.5 PRIOR RESEARCH FINDINGS ON CULTURE VARIABLES

The findings on most personal characteristics, with the exception of nationality, ethnic origin, age and education (Rest 1986), have been inconclusive. Results on organisational characteristics have likewise been mixed although some factors such as firm size (Batten, Hettihewa & Mellor 1997; Gupta & Sulaiman 1996), ownership (Batten et al. 1997; Jackson & Artola 1997) and business activity (Zabid & Alsagoff 1993) have proven to be more stable at indicating variances amongst groups.

5.6 SUMMARY

The above eight levels of culture were examined to discover the effect each will have on the attitudes and ethics of managers toward the seven categories of FLE. Respondents who exhibited Hofstede's eight cultural characteristics form the 13 cultural sub-groups (Factorial design explained on p. 8-10). The next two sections will list the research questions and hypotheses.

5.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions address five categories:

I *FLE - Attitudes*

1. Do respondents' attitudes toward each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
2. Do respondents' attitudes toward each business scenario option differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
3. Do respondents' attitudes on the three business scenarios differ from their attitudes on the equivalent categories of FLE?

II *Reasons Favouring/Not Favouring FLE*

1. Do the reasons favouring each category of FLE differ by country groups?
2. Do the reasons not favouring each category of FLE differ by country groups?

III. *Practice of FLE*

1. Do the company's FLE practices differ from the respondents' views toward the equivalent categories of FLE?
2. Do respondent company's employment of personnel, including salary and working conditions of each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
3. Do respondents' attitudes toward different sources of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

IV *Other FLE Considerations*

1. Do attitudes of respondents about living in a "foreign" country differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
2. Do respondents' attitudes toward different job selection factors differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
3. Do cultural sub-groups differ in the way they conceptualise profit?

V *Ethics on FLE*

1. Do respondents' ethical stance toward each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?
2. [a] Do respondents' ethical stances correspond with their attitudes on the equivalent categories of FLE?
[b] It is proposed that the higher the orientation towards teleology, the greater the tendency of respondents to favour FLE. Conversely, the higher the orientation towards deontology, the greater the tendency not to favour FLE. Will teleologists be inclined to favour FLE more than deontologists, both in terms of employing foreign nationals within the country and in other countries?
3. Do respondents' view of profit correspond with their ethical stances on FLE?

5.8 HYPOTHESES

Culture and the impact it has on attitudes and subsequently, on behaviour resonate from the literature (Chapter IV). Given this, it would be important for the results to demonstrate cultural sub-group differences, particularly in terms of country, race/ethnicity and religion, in the attitudes of respondents toward the different categories of FLE. However, the need to establish which of these three main variables being investigated has the greatest effect on attitudes is also apparent. The literature does appear to have a far greater support for the effects of nationality rather than race/ethnicity, religion or any other personal attributes on attitudes.

H1, therefore, states that,

in regards to the attitudes of respondents toward the different categories of FLE, national differences will be stronger than differences between race/ethnicity and between religions.

It is also essential for the results to reveal cultural sub-group differences (by country, race/ethnicity and religion) in the ethical stances of respondents toward the different categories of FLE. Equally compelling is a similar necessity to discover the variable with the most impact on the ethical stances of respondents.

H2, therefore, stipulates that,

in regards to the ethical stances of respondents toward the different categories of FLE, country differences will be stronger than differences between race/ethnicity and between religions.

5.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the theoretical framework, research questions and hypotheses were presented. The next chapter will be devoted to the research methodology and empirical results. Because of the multiple stages in this complex study, it was considered far more efficacious to discuss the intricacies of the different methodologies and the empirical findings in a single chapter instead of the conventional way of having the methodology in one chapter and the results in another.

CHAPTER VI

METHODOLOGY AND EMPIRICAL RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present the methodology and empirical results of the research. Because this research was conducted in multiple stages, it was considered more appropriate to combine the methodology and the empirical results of each sample and deliver them as sections within a single chapter. Part One will focus on the exploratory qualitative interview sample. Part Two will concentrate on the two case studies and Part Three will be devoted entirely to the quantitative survey sample. A brief overview of the methodology will precede these sections to guide the reader prior to the presentation of a detailed account of the methodologies employed and the different findings of the research.

6.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY IN BRIEF

Both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies were employed to capture the different types of information so that cross-data validity checks could be carried out and more importantly, a better understanding of managerial attitudes and ethics pertaining to FLE might be achieved. Each methodology will be discussed in detail and followed on with an analysis of the respective empirical results for that particular sample.

The qualitative methodology was employed first, with face-to-face exploratory type of interviews conducted on 36 managers from a random sample of Australian-owned companies based in Melbourne, Australia (Part One) and second, with two case studies of Singaporean-born expatriates located in Melbourne (Part Two). It was felt that the nature of a respondent's position, in terms of a local manager employed in a company that was locally-owned and locally-based versus an expatriate manager employed in an offshore branch, could contribute to differences in attitudes and ethical stances concerning FLE.

The quantitative methodology (Part Three) will be described in three separate stages. In the first stage, the questionnaire was pilot tested on eight Australian individuals employed in various Melbourne-based companies. In the second stage, a random survey of local companies in two countries was attempted. Five hundred questionnaires were sent: 250 to Australian companies and 250 to Singaporean companies.

Both the exploratory qualitative interviews and quantitative survey samples were conducted using a stratified random sampling method [refer to Sections 6.4.1 and 6.9]. Responses obtained were almost entirely from the predominant race/ethnic and religious group(s) in the respective countries.

The random qualitative interview sample was aimed at individuals employed by Australian-owned companies located in metropolitan Melbourne. Of the 36 Australian citizens/permanent residents who responded, 32 were of North-European ancestry. The sample could be regarded as entirely 'Christian'. That is, although only 28 were prepared to state that they were 'Christians', all 36 had mentioned receiving some form of Christian doctrine, either through their upbringing or school education.

The random quantitative survey sample was based on two countries: Australia and Singapore. It was found that the respondents from Australia were mostly Anglo-Celtic and Christian. Respondents from Singapore were mainly Chinese who were Christians or Buddhists.

The nature of these samples provided limited opportunities for analysis. Whilst some degree of comparison might be done with the qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the samples from Australia, none could be carried out between Australia and Singapore to investigate for cultural differences. The samples were inadequate and inappropriate for meeting the objectives of the research, in answering the research questions and in testing the hypotheses.

In order to ascertain whether cultural variables such as nationality, race/ethnicity and religion could make a difference to the attitudes and ethical stances of managers toward the seven categories of FLE, the stratified quota sampling method had to be initiated as a third stage [refer to Section 6.10.1]. This was aimed at attaining a target sample comprising respondents from three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia), two race/ethnic groupings (Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian and Chinese) and two religious denominations (Christian and Buddhist) so that a seven variable cross-combination factorial analysis could be

undertaken [refer to Figure 1.2 & app. I.1]. A small sample of Malay Muslims was also sought from Malaysia.

PART ONE

6.3 EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SAMPLE

The initial qualitative study comprised interviews that were planned as a substantive and major inquiry that would lead to an inductive theory formulation; that is, developing theoretical ideas from the research data that had systematically been obtained and analysed. As a preliminary to the quantitative research, these qualitative interviews were useful for application of the principles of grounded theory.

This idea of formulating theory from research data was pioneered by Glaser and Strauss (1979). Termed grounded theory, this inductive approach to qualitative analysis puts its emphasis on the generation of theory from the data in which that theory is grounded. The inverse is the deductive approach which starts off by trying to prove (or disprove) a theory through testing a series of hypotheses (Glaser & Strauss 1979; Strauss 1987; Strauss & Corbin 1998). Glaser and Strauss considered it important to have different forms of data on the same subject, as comparisons would help to generate theory. In other words, both forms of data are necessary, not the quantitative to test the qualitative, but that both be used as supplements and for mutual verification.

Engaging both the qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the study of a phenomenon is by no means new to many social researchers. Single-method investigations, according to Denzin (1978), are no longer appropriate for social research as they are unable to ‘completely capture all the relevant features’ (p. 13) of the empirical reality in study. Most well-known for his stance on the use of multiple measures and methods in the study of one empirical event, Denzin (1978, 1989) argued for a ‘triangulation’ form of investigation to help overcome the inherent weaknesses in single methodologies. This could also add breadth or depth to our understanding of the issue under investigation.

Strauss and Corbin (1998) stated that as well as providing intricate details of a phenomena which could be difficult to convey with quantitative methods, the use of qualitative methods would also provide a novel and fresh perspective on what is already known. Qualitative data could also be used to illustrate or clarify quantitative findings whilst quantitative data could help validate a qualitative analysis.

In short, whether it is qualitative or quantitative, each research methodology comes with its own strengths and weaknesses. To employ more than one method in any study would make available different types of data for cross-data validity checks or as Patton (1999) neatly puts it 'more grist for the research mill' (p. 1192).

These qualitative interviews were conducted in Melbourne, Australia to obtain a general overview of [a] challenges facing managers in human resource management (HRM) [b] business priorities and values [c] managers' personal values [d] attributes and situational factors that could influence the managers' viewpoint on the employment of foreign labour.

There were many advantages to employing a preliminary inquiry of this nature at the outset. The researcher had only been a resident in Australia for approximately 12 years at that time. The opportunity to meet with the managers in this country to discuss these HRM and foreign labour issues in an open unrestricted manner allowed her to become more familiar with the Australian vernacular. This in particular was very helpful in the construction of the questionnaire. Foddy (1993) had emphasised that only a qualitative investigation could produce the rich thick descriptive data of participants' own views and experience in their own words and given 'frame of reference' (p. 76). This would become useful when quantitative methods were later employed: for example, in generating items for the construction of a standardised survey instrument. A qualitative approach was also suitably flexible and open in that there was always room for continuous reflection and ongoing alteration on the research in progress. This in itself allowed for participants to be investigated on a case by case basis and also collectively. The researcher was thus able to achieve a greater depth of knowledge in the issues that included details about values, standards and other similarly influential factors.

In this first and major part (Part One), the instrumentation of the qualitative interview sample involved a random selection of 36 managers from Australian-owned companies based in Melbourne, Australia. The second part or Part Two

comprised case studies of two Singaporean company employees working and residing in Melbourne.

6.4 METHODOLOGY OF RANDOM SAMPLE

This was carried out in three phases: first, development of a sampling frame comprising a proportionate number of companies from each industry stratum; second, data collection through face-to-face interviews; third, rating of the participants' response, including the inter-rater test of reliability.

6.4.1 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The researcher's primary interests were in capturing the cultural values and attitudes of the nation of Australia and its individuals as well as having participation from key individuals who were aware of the policies/regulations related to foreign labour employment in Australia and in their own respective companies. Hence, only the top official¹ (eg. Managing Director, Company Secretary or General Manager) either of the organisation itself or of the human resources management (HRM) division of Australian-owned companies² was targeted. Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000 database was used to compile the list of Australian-owned companies³ based in metropolitan Melbourne. Multinationals and foreign-owned

¹ Main reason for criteria was underpinned in the belief that these were the primary persons responsible for inculcating the company's cultural values or ethos to its workers.

² It was presumed that by targeting Australian-owned companies, the major decision-makers would be Australians. A person is deemed a national/citizen of a particular country often by birth. Those born in another country can take up citizenship and be regarded nationals of that particular country. For the purposes of this study, participants who were born in other countries were included only if they had been residing in Australia for more than six months.

³ The Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000 database provided information on the ownership status of the company (including whether it was a parent or subsidiary) and nationality of owners. During the interview, it was learnt that the company might not be 100 per cent Australian-owned owing to a recent acquisition by or partnership with a foreign company. However, the interviewees in all instances were found to be either the previous owners or long-standing employees of the company.

companies were not considered in the sampling frame. From the compilation, the companies were sorted according to their main business activity into the ten industry groupings adopted by Dun & Bradstreet in accordance with the 1987 United States Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) Codes⁴. These were later combined into the following five industry classifications or strata [app. VI.1] that would be used throughout this study:

- [1] mining, which include agriculture, construction, forestry and fishing;
- [2] manufacturing;
- [3] services, including those from transportation, communication and public administration;
- [4] wholesale/retail;
- [5] finance, which accounted for insurance and real estate organisations as well.

The division of the population of Australian-owned companies based in metropolitan Melbourne into five industry strata meant that a sample could then be drawn from each stratum. The five sub-samples would constitute the sample frame to be studied. The advantage of a stratified sample over a simple random sample was that it enabled a higher degree of representation of all the groups in the target population in the sample. A table of random numbers (Rand Corporation 1955) was then used to select the companies within each industry stratum and a sampling frame consisting of a proportionate number of units from each industry grouping was formed.

Metropolitan Melbourne was the area of research focus for several reasons. First and foremost, a larger proportion of the companies listed in the Dun & Bradstreet database of Victorian-based organisations happened to be located within the metropolitan area. Secondly, time and travel costs⁵ to companies outside the metro area and in country areas were prohibitive. Given that stratified random sampling was used in this research study, the metropolitan sample would in all probability not be different from a sample selected from other locations. Finally, since each interview would take anywhere from twenty-five minutes to slightly over

⁴ This system acts as a guide to major trading activities.

⁵ Melbourne's suburban sprawl extends for more than 50 km from east to west and 70 km from north to south covering a massive 1700 sq km (Armstrong 1993).

an hour, the researcher decided that it would be prudent to spend no more than an hour of travelling one-way to any participant's company and get the required interviews done within the time schedule of four months.

6.4.2 DATA COLLECTION

Interviews were conducted over a period of four months in mid-2000. All interviews were secured through initial phone contact. After the invitation to participate in the research was accepted and an appointed time and day was decided, a letter was sent to the respondent [app. VI.2]. This served not only to confirm the interview appointment but also to reaffirm the researcher's affiliation with the University together with assurances of confidentiality and anonymity of the responses that would be made by the respondent. All respondents were also asked to sign a form that reaffirmed their consent to participate in the research [app. VI.3]. The interviews took from 25 minutes to slightly over an hour to conduct. Both a tape-recorder (only with respondent's permission) and note-taking were used to enhance the reliability of the interview transcriptions. After each interview, a letter was sent to the respondent thanking them for their participation [app. VI.4]. An abstract explaining the nature of the research was included.

An interview schedule [app. VI.5] was used to ensure consistency and comparability between the different participants' responses to each question. The questions were open-ended and covered three primary areas of interest mentioned above. This semi-structured form of interviewing was useful because it encouraged spontaneity and allowed for the flexible use of probing and summary questions. As Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and Alexander (1995) had advised, constant cross-checks essentially serve as a form of validity checking of the accuracy of the researcher's understanding of the participant's viewpoints from the statements they make.

6.4.2.1 THE USE OF VIGNETTES

Finch (1987) advocated the use of vignettes as a vehicle for encouraging participants to respond in ways that would not only be far less personally threatening but also allow them to break away from the limitations imposed by their personal experience and circumstances. Four vignettes were introduced to participants at about three-quarter of the way through the interview process as a preliminary exercise. These were approximately three sentence long stories about hypothetical characters involved in a specified scenario on the use of foreign labour [app. VI.6].

6.4.2.2 RESPONSE RATE

TABLE 6.1: RESPONSE RATE OF EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SAMPLE

Total Number of Interviews	Number of Respondents	% of interviews NOT conducted	% of study sample
<i>NOT CONDUCTED</i>			
<u>Unable to make phone contact</u>	29	42	28
Phone was not answered	22		
Answering machine	2		
Fax machine	3		
Company liquidated	2		
<u>Total Refusals</u>	40	58	38
Too busy	15		
Not interested	18		
Outright 'no'	4		
Declined to speak face-to-face	2		
Suitable person away from Melbourne	1		
<i>CONDUCTED</i>	36		34
TOTAL	105	100	100

Of 105 companies contacted by phone, 36 successful interviews were conducted, indicating a response rate of 34 per cent [Table 6.1]. No phone contact

could be made with 28 per cent of the sampled companies and 38 per cent declined participation.

6.4.2.3 DESCRIPTION OF INTERVIEW SAMPLE

There was a good spread of responses coming from businesses across the five industrial group classifications: eleven (30%) from service, eight (22%) from manufacturing, six (17%) from mining, six (17%) from wholesale/retail and five (14%) from finance. Of these 36 companies, twenty-two (61%) were proprietary limited (P/L), eleven (31%) were public-listed and three (8%) were either sole-proprietorship or partnership. Sixteen (44%) have operations overseas and seven (19%) stated that they were family-owned [app. VI.7].

Of the 36 respondents, twenty-nine (81%) were male and seven (19%) were female. They were between the ages of thirty-one and sixty-three years. More than two-thirds were below the age of fifty. Ten (28%) respondents were either sole owners or partners of the business and the remaining twenty-six (72%) were employees. Of these employees, seventeen (47%) were either in the position of Managing Director, Director or in some other senior managerial capacity and nine (25%) were Human Resource Managers. There were thirty-one (86%) Australians compared to five (14%) non-Australians who responded. Twenty-six (72%) were born in Australia whilst the remaining ten (28%) were born in other countries. Thirty-two (89%) were of North-European (Anglo-Celtic⁶) ancestry and four (11%) came from South-European (Italian, Greek, Maltese) ancestry. All the respondents claimed to have received the Christian doctrine, either through Christian upbringing or through Christian education in school. However, only twenty-eight (78%) declared that they were “Christians”. Two (5%) stated that they were studying Buddhist precepts, one (3%) was a Muslim convert and the remaining five (14%) claimed to have “No Religion” [app. VI.8].

⁶ People from a mixture of English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh and Cornish descent.

6.4.3 DATA PREPARATION FOR ANALYSIS

The data obtained from the open-ended interviews needed to be transformed, wherever possible, into a quantitative form of measurement so that the data could be interpreted with greater reliability and precision. Several steps were taken to ensure that the process of converting the qualitative data into a quantitative form could be carried out in a reliable and valid manner.

6.4.3.1 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY DISTINCTION

Central to every empirical evaluation is the determination of its validity and reliability. These are the important questions that will be asked about every test or measurement. How good is it really?

A test is chosen usually with a specific intent and used in a given situation (Cronbach 1990). By way of example, we might ask, “What is the best test for selecting talents for a musical?” How can we know? What we are really asking is how valid will this test be for making the selection?

Validity, in statistical terms, refers to the suitability and soundness of the test, the extent to which it is able to measure what it purports to measure. Validity is distinct from reliability in that it offers directly a check on how well the test is able to fulfil its function. This is obtained through an independent and external criterion, which the test was set up to measure (Anastasi 1988; Anastasi & Urbina 1997; Cronbach 1990; de Vaus 2002; Sarantakos 2005). In considering the question in the example above, the validity of the test is established when the selected talents are able to achieve a good rating in a musical performance. If their performance does not rate as ‘good’, this would indicate that the validity of the test is poor. The level of correlation between their scores on the test and performance will determine the validity of the test. All procedures for determining the validity of a test, as stated by Anastasi and Urbina (1997), are based on ‘the relationships between performance on the test and other independently observable facts about the behaviour characteristics under consideration’ (p. 113).

There are several methods that can be used to investigate these relationships. They are classified under three primary groups:

[a] *Content Validity*

The contents of a test are systematically examined to establish that at least a representative sample, if not all the aspects being measured have been included. This is particularly useful in evaluating tests of achievement.

[b] *Criterion-related Validity*

A test that is able to predict a given behaviour in a specified condition, for example, scores on a job aptitude test is used to predict effective job performance.

[c] *Construct Validity*

A test measuring a theoretical construct or trait, a category that has been created to describe an abstract behavioural characteristic, for example, the construct of 'religiosity' (Anastasi & Urbina 1997; Cronbach 1990).

The statistical term 'reliability', on the other hand, is meant to convey consistency. Reliability also implies precision and objectivity. These are the characteristics ensuring the same results can be attained repeatedly over time, across situations and even by different researchers (Cronbach 1990; Sarantakos 2005). Test reliability, in other words, is a consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when they are examined 'with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variable examining conditions' (Anastasi & Urbina 1997, p. 84).

Supposing a student sat for a test and obtained a score of ninety-five in the first semester but managed only a score of seventy-two in the second semester it is unlikely that we can speak with confidence about the student's ability on that subject or the reliability of the test. Neither of the scores can be taken as a dependable indicator of the student's ability on the given subject. It is possible to say that one of the scores does not correctly reflect the student's ability on the given subject. In this case, we will need to conduct a retest that can provide us with a more accurate estimate of the student's ability on the given subject. Should the student receive a score of ninety-seven on the retest, we will then be able to consider that this score is consistent with the score obtained in the first semester and accept these scores as the 'reliable' indicators of the student's ability on the given subject.

According to Anastasi and Urbina (1997), the basis for conducting test reliability is to find out the degree to which the 'individual differences in test scores

are attributable to *true* differences in the characteristics under consideration and the extent to which they are attributable to chance errors' (p. 84). The computation of the *error variance* will indicate the range of fluctuation from the total variance of test scores.

There are several methods of testing the reliability of indicators. They are:

- [a] *Test-retest Reliability*
The same person is tested on the same or identical test a second time.
- [b] *Alternate-form Reliability*
The same individual is tested with two different sets of equivalent forms on two separate occasions.
- [c] *Split-half Reliability*
Two scores are derived from the administration of a test to an individual by dividing the test into two comparable half-sections.
- [d] *Scorer Reliability*
Two individuals independently score a sample of tests.

Even though reliability and validity are distinct, in any given measure they are interrelated with one another. When an instrument is valid, it can be expected to be reliable. However when it is reliable, it need not necessarily be valid. This is because validity is indicated by correlations. Hence, the lower the reliability of an instrument the more difficult it will be to establish meaningful associations (Kaplan 1987).

6.4.3.2 INITIAL EXPLORATION OF TEST RELIABILITY

In order that the various viewpoints of the interviewees are interpreted with the greatest of reliability, the researcher felt it necessary to use independent assessors. This was to overcome any bias that may be associated with the researcher's personal attributes as well as respondent-related-effects such as gender, age, ethnicity and so forth that could occur if the researcher had conducted all the interviews and then carried out scoring the responses herself. Social researchers such as Burgess (1991) and Denzin (1978) had always advised against the use of a single strategy for research whether it was the method, the kind of data collected,

investigator or theory. They have emphatically prescribed the use of multiple strategies to improve the reliability and validity of the data. The use of multiple assessors can thus go a long way towards improving the consistency of the reporting of the qualitative data. Furthermore, drawing on people from a different age group and social background from that of the researcher can help to act as a cross check on the problem of bias.

Considering the various available reliability tests, for example, test-retest, split-half method etc., the scorer-reliability method was chosen because it permitted a way of determining the degree of agreement between the scores given by the researcher and those stipulated by independent assessors on the same group of qualitative data.

The Assessors –

Two assessors, one from each of the countries nominated for this research study, were invited to assist with the coding of the qualitative responses. One was of an Anglo-Celtic Australian background and the other was a Chinese who had migrated thirteen years ago from Singapore. These men were invited because they possessed some of the prerequisites required of the managers who responded to the qualitative study or were likely respondents to the quantitative study which would be carried out later in this research investigation. The prerequisites were related to their age, nationality, race/ethnic identity, religion, occupational status and age.

Since the researcher herself is female, she felt that having both assessors who were male would suitably reflect the climate of the workplace environment where men tend to predominate as managers. The qualitative study had also revealed that the number of male managers listed in Dun & Bradstreet's database of companies well surpassed the number of female managers. In addition, of the few female managers the researcher was able to get in touch with, most were employed on a part-time basis.

The choice of one from an Anglo-Celtic Australian background and the other from a Chinese Singaporean background was because these two groups are the predominant groups in these two countries. That is, the Anglo-Celtic forms the largest people group in Australia and the Chinese are the major ethnic group in Singapore. Both the assessors are Christians. It was felt that religion should not be quite an issue in the selection because the average person from Singapore would

have adequate exposure to the three major religions being considered in this research study. The Anglo-Celtic runs his own small business and the Chinese Singaporean is a professional working in a large organisation. The choice of having one assessor who is self-employed and the other who is an employee meant that these two men suitably represented the occupational status and some of the workplace experience of the managers who responded and would respond to this research investigation. This was also reflected in their ages. Both men were over forty-five years old.

Data Processing –

A set of five rank-order categories indicating the extent of agreement or favourableness from ‘completely’ to ‘not at all’ was first developed to rate the respondents’ viewpoints on a select group of nine questions. Each category was assigned a score on a scale of zero to four. This was done so that firstly, the scores assigned by the researcher could be gauged against those given by the independent assessors. Secondly, the categories would help present the viewpoints of the various interviewees in a standardised and consistent manner. The two assessors were brought together in one sitting and given the instruction sheet [app. VI.9] as to how the various responses on the nine questions ought to be coded. Although the coding session was initially planned for a three-hour session, it took about five hours to complete.

Statistical Data Testing –

The three sets of coding scores derived from the researcher and the two independent assessors on the nine nominated questions were subjected to several appropriate statistical tests. This was to ascertain whether the same results could be derived on each of the tests and hence, indicating the consistency in the rating of the scores between the researcher and the independent assessor. In the first instance, the rating scores given by the researcher corresponded with just one of the independent assessors. This procedure was repeated with the remaining independent assessor.

(I) Chi-square (χ^2) Tests for Independence or Relatedness

TABLE 6.2: RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF INDEPENDENCE

Question/ Vignette	Crosstab	df	Sample Size	Chi-Square Value	Level of Significance
Q2a	R1 & R2	8	n=36	22.582	.004**
	R1 & R3	6	n=36	24.721	.000***
Q6b	R1 & R2	16	n=35	38.920	.001**
	R1 & R3	16	n=34	51.896	.000***
Q6c	R1 & R2	12	n=36	22.054	.037*
	R1 & R3	12	n=34	24.240	.019*
Q6d	R1 & R2	16	n=36	30.281	.017*
	R1 & R3	16	n=36	42.521	.000***
Q6e	R1 & R2	16	n=36	21.214	.170
	R1 & R3	12	n=36	26.725	.008*
V8a	R1 & R2	9	n=10	14.375	.110
	R1 & R3	9	n=10	12.857	.169
V8b	R1 & R2	12	n=10	10.694	.555
	R1 & R3	9	n=10	8.819	.454
V8c	R1 & R2	6	n=8	6.000	.423
	R1 & R3	6	n=10	15.625	.016*
V8d	R1 & R2	4	n=10	8.667	.040*
	R1 & R3	4	n=10	10.889	.040*

Note: (a) R1 is the rating conducted by the researcher. R2 & R3 are the ratings carried out by the independent assessors.

(b) * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

As the table above shows, of the eighteen χ^2 tests that were performed, twelve were shown to be significant ($p < .05$). These consisted of the ratings given by the researcher [R1] and the assessor

- (a) [R2] on the responses to the first four questions
- (b) [R2] on the response to vignette 8d
- (c) [R3] on the responses to all the five questions
- (d) [R3] on the last two vignette responses.

Even though these tests seemingly indicated that the scores given by the independent assessors were in agreement with those determined by the researcher, they unfortunately proved inconclusive. This was because the requirements for the x^2 test, as recommended by Cochran 1954, could not be adhered to in all the eighteen tests. He stated that to ‘meaningfully apply the x^2 test’ there ought to be

- [a] no fewer than twenty per cent of cells with the expected frequency of less than five in each cell and
- [b] no cells with the expected frequency of less than one.

Even if these tests were not able to comply with the main assumptions of x^2 , the level of significance achieved by the twelve x^2 tests conducted in this initial exploration of test reliability were certainly worth noting. Three were found to be significant at the alpha level of .001, two had p values of less than .01 and seven recorded p values of less than .05.

(II) The Fisher Exact Probability Test

Given the notably significant values obtained from the twelve x^2 tests, a search was made for a test that could suitably be applied to small samples. The Fisher exact probability test was found to meet this requirement⁷. In order to obtain a 2 X 2 contingency table, the set of five-rank categories with scores ranging from zero to four were re-classified into the following two categories:

- (1) ‘Disagree/Not in Favour’
- (2) ‘Agree/In Favour’.

The first two categories, ‘Totally’ and ‘To a little extent’ which represented the scores zero and one respectively, were combined for the category of ‘Disagree/Not in Favour’. The third category ‘To some extent’ which denoted the score of two was omitted. The remaining two categories, ‘To a large extent’ and ‘Completely’ which stood for the scores of three and four respectively, were combined for the category of ‘Agree/In Favour’. The Fisher exact probability test was then conducted for the group of nine questions.

⁷ Siegel (1988) recommended the use of the Fisher Exact Probability Test when sample sizes are small.

TABLE 6.3: RESULTS OF THE FISHER EXACT PROBABILITY TESTS

Question/ Vignette	Crosstab	df	Sample Size	Level of Significance
Q2a	No statistics	were	computed	
Q6b	A & O	1	n = 23	.034*
	A & K	1	n = 25	.033*
Q6c	A & O	1	n = 33	.014*
	A & K	1	n = 27	.007*
Q6d	A & O	1	n = 18	.002**
	A & K	1	n = 18	.000***
Q6e	A & O	1	n = 21	.008*
	A & K	1	n = 19	.023*
V8a	A & O	1	n = 8	.107
	A & K	1	n = 8	.250
V8b	A & O	1	n = 5	.100
	A & K	1	n = 5	.100
V8c	No statistics	were	computed	
V8d	No statistics	were	computed	

Note: (a) A is the rating conducted by the researcher. O & K are the ratings carried out by the independent assessors.

(b) * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The table above shows that only twelve tests could successfully be computed. For the remaining six tests, no statistics could be obtained as some sets of ratings kept a constant number. With the twelve tests, at least eight were found to have significant values ($p < .05$). Generally, it was felt that the level of significance obtained on most of these eight tests were lower than the ones found in the χ^2 tests. The exceptions were for Questions 6d and 6e; between assessor A (the researcher) and independent assessor O. Of significant mention is the rating scores between assessor A (the researcher) and independent assessor K in Question 6d. The p value of less than .001 were maintained in both tests.

TABLE 6.4: MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY, VARIABILITY & CORRELATION

Questions	Statistics	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
2a	Mean	3.333	2.889	3.083
	Std. Deviation	.676	1.063	.874
	Skewness	-.522	-.825	-.711
		n = 36	n = 36	n = 36
	Pearson's r	R1 & R2		.609**
		R1 & R3		.725**
	Spearman's rho	R1 & R2		.593**
	R1 & R3		.758**	
6b	Mean	2.943	2.944	2.743
	Std. Deviation	1.083	1.264	1.245
	Skewness	-1.207	-1.060	-.546
		n = 35	n = 36	n = 35
	Pearson's r	R1 & R2		.638**
		R1 & R3		.725**
	Spearman's rho	R1 & R2		.554**
	R1 & R3		.680**	
6c	Mean	3.417	2.833	2.824
	Std. Deviation	1.131	1.231	1.359
	Skewness	-2.167	-1.126	-.815
		n = 36	n = 36	n = 34
	Pearson's r	R1 & R2		.503**
		R1 & R3		.604**
	Spearman's rho	R1 & R2		.323
	R1 & R3		.517**	
6d	Mean	2.083	2.083	2.139
	Std. Deviation	1.402	1.105	1.125
	Skewness	.042	.096	-.543
		n = 36	n = 36	n = 36
	Pearson's r	R1 & R2		.586**
		R1 & R3		.772**
	Spearman's rho	R1 & R2		.568**
	R1 & R3		.763**	
6e	Mean	2.000	1.917	2.028
	Std. Deviation	1.219	1.273	.971
	Skewness	.301	-.363	-.653
		n = 36	n = 36	n = 36
	Pearson's r	R1 & R2		.460**
		R1 & R3		.531**
	Spearman's rho	R1 & R2		.489**
	R1 & R3		.536**	

Note: (a) R1 is the rating conducted by the researcher. R2 & R3 are the ratings carried out by the independent assessors.

(b) * p < .05; ** p < .01

TABLE 6.5: MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY, VARIABILITY & CORRELATION

Vignettes	Statistics	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	
8a	Mean	1.400	1.300	1.200	
	Std. Deviation	1.075	1.338	.789	
	Skewness	.322	.362	1.290	
		n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	
	Pearson's r		R1 & R2	.680*	
			R1 & R3	.681*	
	Spearman's rho		R1 & R2	.642*	
			R1 & R3	.684*	
8b	Mean	1.800	2.300	1.900	
	Std. Deviation	1.399	1.494	1.101	
	Skewness	-.171	-.140	-.388	
		n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	
	Pearson's r		R1 & R2	.723*	
			R1 & R3	.708*	
	Spearman's rho		R1 & R2	.726*	
			R1 & R3	.747*	
8c	Mean	3.000	3.000	3.000	
	Std. Deviation	1.054	.756	.817	
	Skewness	-.712	.000	.000	
		n = 10	n = 8	n = 10	
	Pearson's r		R1 & R2	.671	
			R1 & R3	.904**	
	Spearman's rho		R1 & R2	.641	
			R1 & R3	.919**	
8d	Mean	.600	.800	1.200	
	Std. Deviation	.699	.919	.919	
	Skewness	.780	1.546	-.473	
		n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	
	Pearson's r		R1 & R2	.208	
			R1 & R3	.830**	
	Spearman's rho		R1 & R2	.556	
			R1 & R3	.909**	

Note: (a) R1 is the rating conducted by the researcher. R2 & R3 are the ratings carried out by the independent assessors
 (b) * p< .05; ** p< .01

(III) Correlation and Measures to ascertain Distribution of Rating Scores

To further ascertain the congruency between the ratings given by the researcher and the two independent assessors, two different sets of correlational analysis were performed [Tables 6.4 & 6.5]:

- [a] parametric bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation
- [b] nonparametric bivariate Spearman's rho.

Altogether thirty-six tests were conducted. On the Pearson's correlations, twelve tests came up with significant values of .01 and four on .05 (two-tailed tests). On the Spearman's, eleven noted significantly values of .01 and four on .05 (two-tailed tests). Five tests were not able to show any level of significance.

Further investigations were carried out. This time they explored the normality of the rating scores given by the researcher and the two assessors on the nine questions. The following were computed [Tables 6.4 & 6.5]:

- [a] the MEAN as the measure of central tendency;
- [b] the STANDARD DEVIATION as the measure of variability;
- [c] the SKEWNESS of the distribution of rating scores.

The mean of the distribution of rating scores stood between 3.4 and .6. The standard deviation for all tests was between .6 to 1.5. The majority of the values for skewness were negative. These indicated that the shapes of the distribution of rating scores for these tests were negatively skewed. Only two tests for skewness came up with a normal distribution of rating scores. These were achieved on Question 8c by the two independent assessors (Raters 2 & 3).

These results of the distribution of rating scores indicated that the Pearson correlation was inapplicable because the following assumptions necessary for its valid use could not be met (Coakes & Steed 2003):

- [a] Normality – the results [via tests of skewness in Tables 6.4 & 6.5] showed that the scores assigned by the individual assessors were not normally distributed.
- [b] Linearity – the relationship between the scores given by the researcher and those assigned by the assessors were in the majority of instances curvilinear.

(IV) Spearman's Rank Order Correlation

This non-parametric test was identified as the appropriate alternative to the Pearson correlation as it does not need to satisfy any assumptions about parameters or the shape of distributions (Coakes & Steed 2003). However, the rating scores had first to be converted to ranks before the Spearman correlation procedure could be applied.

TABLE 6.6: RESULTS OF SPEARMAN'S RANK ORDER
CORRELATION

Question/ Vignette	Crosstab	Sample Size	Spearman Correlation	Level of Significance
2a	R1 & R2	n=36	.593	.000***
	R1 & R3	n=36	.758	.000***
6b	R1 & R2	n=35	.554	.001**
	R1 & R3	n=34	.680	.000***
6c	R1 & R2	n=36	.323	.055
	R1 & R3	n=34	.517	.002*
6d	R1 & R2	n=36	.568	.000***
	R1 & R3	n=36	.763	.000***
6e	R1 & R2	n=36	.489	.002*
	R1 & R3	n=36	.536	.001**
8a	R1 & R2	n=10	.642	.045*
	R1 & R3	n=10	.684	.029*
8b	R1 & R2	n=10	.726	.018*
	R1 & R3	n=10	.747	.013*
8c	R1 & R2	n=8	.641	.087
	R1 & R3	n=10	.919	.000***
8d	R1 & R2	n=10	.556	.095
	R1 & R3	n=10	.909	.000***

Note: (a) R1 is the rating conducted by the researcher. R2 & R3 are the ratings carried out by the independent assessors.

(b) * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (based on normal approximation)

Table 6.6 shows that of the eighteen tests, seven were significant at the level of .001, two were significant at the level of .01 and six were significant at the level of .05. Three of these tests were not significant. However, it was felt that there was an improved level of significant values compared to those achieved for the chi-square tests of independence.

The results have indicated that the rating scores assigned by R1 (the researcher) and R3 (the assessor) to all the questions and vignettes were highly

significant. These were found also to be the case with the rating scores prescribed by R1 and R2 (the assessor) with the exception of three whereby one question had the common focus on 'foreign workers' with one vignette and the remaining vignette centred on the export of work. A closer inspection revealed that none of the variables such as nationality, ethnic identity or religion could be responsible for the lack of correlation between the scores of R1 and R2 as both these two individuals possess similar attributes. The only variables, which could explain the suppressed effect of correlation between R1 and R2, are gender, occupational status and age (refer to "The Assessors" in Section 6.4.3.2 for list of six prerequisites of assessors). R2 is male, a professional working in a large organisation and considered to be well over forty-five years of age. R1, on the other hand, is female, a PhD research student and in her early forties. It ought to be noted, nevertheless, that high correlations were obtained on all the tests between R1 and R3 despite differences in their gender, nationality, ethnic identity, occupational status and age.

On the whole, it can be said that the high level of significance obtained from more than eighty per cent of the tests conducted on Spearman showed that the rating scores of the independent assessors were consistent with those given by the researcher.

6.4.3.3 ADDRESS ISSUES ARISING FROM INITIAL EXPLORATION OF TEST RELIABILITY

The researcher felt it necessary to address several issues that arose from the initial exploration of test reliability. Firstly, the set of five rank-order categories was found to be too many given that the sample consisted of only thirty-six respondents and for some questions, only ten. This probably caused the number of frequencies to be distributed into too many cells and thus resulting in the failure to meet the requirements of the χ^2 test. Secondly, a glance at Table 6.2 showed that no level of significance was attained when the assessors were about two-thirds through the responses in the assessment and some level of significance was recorded from the last few remaining questions. One of the reasons for this could have been due to mental fatigue. The coding session of five hours might have put too much of a strain on the assessors. Thirdly, though somewhat of a minor point, the choice of assessors

with the business attributes of the respondents might not have been a suitable one. Whilst these assessors might have been able to relate well with the issues discussed by the respondents, they did not possess the discipline of a trained social researcher. A retest with another assessor was considered. This, it was felt, would confirm these results with greater accuracy.

6.4.3.4 SECOND TEST OF RELIABILITY

This confirming study was used as both a test of the robustness of the reliability check and to ensure that a change of gender did not affect the results. It was felt that in this second test of reliability the assessor ought to be a female and a person trained in the human sciences, possessing the knowledge of the conduct of social research. This seemed a far more important criterion than securing someone with only business experience.

The Assessor -

The person who met the criteria of experiences in cultural diversity and in behavioural sciences rating was a psychology student. She was willing to perform the coding of the qualitative responses. She was a student from Singapore, is Chinese and a believer of Christianity. Given this background, she would be familiar with both the Australian and Singaporean cultures, including the different religious ideologies of interest in this research investigation.

It should be noted that attention was still being given to getting a person with the nationality, race and religion being considered in this research study.

Data Processing –

The number of categories available for scoring the responses was reduced. This was one of the steps taken to comply with the requirements of the χ^2 test. Instead of the set of five rank-order categories in the initial exploration of test reliability, a set of three rank-order categories [app. VI.10] was adopted in the retest. One category was for respondents who were *in favour* of the issue in question. One category was for respondents who were *not in favour* of the issue in question. There was a third category for respondents who preferred to remain *neutral or undecided*

on the issue in question. Each category was to be given a score on a scale of zero to two.

In addition, the responses to the vignette questions were to be omitted and only the responses to the five questions were to be considered for rank assessment. With only ten interviewees responding to the vignette questions, it would be near impossible to comply with the χ^2 test requirements. These changes were considered necessary to reduce the time the assessors would take to conduct the assessment and thereby having them not fall prey to mental fatigue.

Statistical Data Testing –

Three statistical tests performed in the initial exploration of test reliability were conducted in this second retest of reliability to determine the degree of consistency between the scores given by the researcher and the third assessor.

(I) Chi-square (χ^2) Tests for Independence or Relatedness

The χ^2 tests were computed for the coded responses to the five questions. They were found to be not adhering to the minimum number of expected cell frequencies. The researcher then decided to leave out the zero scores or the category of ‘neutral/undecided’ because the number of responses, which fell into this category, was low and not too significant. The χ^2 test for a 2 X 2 contingency table was subsequently carried out.

All the five χ^2 tests shown in Table 6.7 were found to be significant ($p < .001$). However, it was only the χ^2 test to Question 2a which successfully adhered to the minimum expected cell frequency of more than five. With the minimum expected cell frequency of 6.80, Question 2a had a Pearson’s value of 18.320 and a significance that was well below the alpha level of .001. It can thus be concluded that the scores given by the researcher (Y) and those assigned by the independent assessor (X) on this question were in considerable agreement.

The χ^2 test to Question 6d could also be taken as meeting the minimum expected cell frequency. The minimum expected cell count stood at 4.97. The Pearson was 34.000 with the significance of .000. The scores by the two assessors on this question are clearly statistically congruent.

Although the remaining three tests (Q6b, Q6c & Q6e) for the two independent groups could not meet the requirements of χ^2 , they were still able to record notable significant values of less than .001.

TABLE 6.7: 2ND TEST RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF INDEPENDENCE

Question	Crosstab	df	Sample Size	Chi-Square Value	Level of Significance
2a	X & Y	1	n=35	18.320	.000***
6b	X & Y	1	n=31	22.053	.000***
6c	X & Y	1	n=30	13.696	.000***
6d	X & Y	1	n=34	34.000	.000***
6e	X & Y	1	n=30	24.643	.000***

Note: (a) X is the rating conducted by the independent assessor and Y is the rating carried out by the researcher.

(b) *** p < .001

(II) The Fisher Exact Probability Test

The Fisher exact probability test was then applied to the five questions, in line with the procedure that was carried out in the initial exploration of test reliability. The test results to all the five questions indicated levels of significance of less than .001. Because these were computed for a two-tailed test, it can be stated with reasonable confidence that the two groups of independent scores given by the researcher and the third assessor on all the five questions were much in agreement.

(III) Spearman's Rank Order Correlation

Table 6.8 indicates that all the five tests indicated levels of significance of less than .001. Given that these results were similarly obtained in the Fisher Exact Probability Test, it can be concluded that the rating scores assigned by the researcher and the third assessor on all these five questions were in considerable agreement.

TABLE 6.8: 2ND TEST RESULTS OF SPEARMAN'S RANK ORDER CORRELATION

Question	Crosstab	Sample Size	Spearman Correlation	Level of Significance
2a	X & Y	n=35	.723	.000***
6b	X & Y	n=31	.843	.000***
6c	X & Y	n=30	.676	.000***
6d	X & Y	n=34	1.000	.000***
6e	X & Y	n=30	.906	.000***

Note: (a) X is the rating conducted by the independent assessor and Y is the rating carried out by the researcher.

(b) *** p < .001 (based on normal approximation)

In sum, the high levels of significance ($p < .001$) and the consistency in the results attained on both of these tests demonstrate not only the reliability but also more importantly the validity of the rating scores assigned by the researcher to the qualitative responses provided by the interviewees.

6.5 EMPIRICAL RESULTS OF INTERVIEW SAMPLE

Altogether the responses to 11 questions will be presented. The first section will look at the challenges facing human resource managers. The second section will consist of four questions focusing on business priorities and values. The third section will consider the respondents' personal values. The fourth section will discuss the responses to five questions on foreign labour. The responses to four of these questions had been found significant when tested for reliability.

The sample was significantly over-represented by Christian Australian males born in Australia of North-European ancestry working in private limited companies that are not family-owned. With this in mind, only those responses attained in highly significant proportions by participants will be mentioned.

6.5.1 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

1. *What are some of the challenges you've encountered in managing human resource in this country today?*

The challenges of managing human resources in this country today, as discussed by the respondents, could be categorised into three main areas: the workforce, impact of technology, environmental changes.

THE WORKFORCE

By and large these managers had found themselves managing a workforce of employees that is far better educated and thereby more informed and more intelligent. As employees, these individuals have 'a better idea of their worth' and therefore have far greater expectations for themselves not just in terms of their career development but also their personal growth. They also tended to be more proactive in getting their personal needs met. When employees discovered that their objectives would not be met in a particular organisation, they move on quite easily to another company. It is thus not surprising for quite a few managers to mention 'retaining good staff' as one of the challenges.

'Hanging on to our best staff is always a challenge. Keeping good people around. Sourcing them. Finding replacement.... We find that we have to do more and more.' - (General Manager of a publishing company)

'It's hard to retain staff. It's not just money. Money is not the sole factor in retaining the staff. What I mean by that is money is only one factor in making staff happy. It's the working environment. How they are treated. It's whether they are taught things and whether they move up in the business, take more responsibility. All those things come into it.' - (Owner of a wholesale/retail business)

In short, with present day employees 'it's not just about salary any more'. There tends to be a far greater degree of expectations in terms of what work should provide. No longer is it simply a situation of coming to work, doing the task allocated and getting paid at the end of the week. Managers in charge of human resources therefore find themselves facing tremendous challenges in integrating the 'needs' of their workers with the objectives of the organisation.

Those involved in human resources had found also that the workforce within the organisation in Australia has increasingly become more culturally diverse. The key challenge of managing such a workforce has been in bringing across the company's procedures and policies to the attention and understanding of all the different ethnic groups within the organisation.

One human resource person reported that she was managing a workforce of people from thirty-four different countries of birth. In making sure that everyone became aware of the issues affecting them, for example, health and safety, competency standards, structure of work changes etc., the company had invested in literature that came in six main languages and in training key employees to act as interpreters. After all as mentioned by another human resource person,

'The work of human resources was not only the sourcing, recruitment and training of the workforce but also in ensuring that we had the human resource policies, practices and cultural values instilled in that organisation to make it successful'.

IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY

With every step of technological advancement, employers have increasingly been led to demand for not only highly skilled but also multi-skilled workers. According to one senior executive from the mining industry,

'Finding people with the competencies and abilities to do the range of things and cope with the range of things that we are now asking people to cope with. There's a challenge.... People tended to be fifteen to twenty years ago skilled at a particular task. It was a narrow banding of people in terms of what was required of them'.

One senior partner of a company dealing with business machines stated that the 'information technological revolution' changed the whole manner in which he had to manage the staff who was initially experienced only in sales and servicing the machines. Over the years the company had invested heavily in equipping these employees with a range of skills to handle 'computer networks' as well as in upgrading their skills from working on older equipment to current models.

The demands made by employers do not always go well with all the workers. Some managers in the manufacturing, service and wholesale/retail industries mentioned having to manage these challenges with 'workers used to the old ways of doing things'. Generally the older ones, who were either unwilling or

unable to deal with the structure of work changes taking place had to be provided with roles that match their potential and interest.

Technology has also given rise to many new industries. There are many challenges in managing the human resources of a 'new' industry; by way of sourcing, recruitment, training and development. As an example, the Human Resources Manager of the computer game industry had found that the first of the many challenges he was faced with was sourcing experienced games programmers and artists. There is a shortage of this kind of personnel in Australia as this is still quite a specialised and small business and there are no tertiary institutions at present offering games programming courses in this country. Companies therefore had been left with the choice of sourcing from overseas even though the costs of bringing in these 'specialists' into Australia were prohibitive. The second of the many challenges he discovered was having to attract more women into what is primarily a male-dominated industry. The third was the need to develop career path structures for a workforce of a very young industry. Given the pace of technological advancement, he felt that 'it's hard to know where the industry will be in twenty years' time'. This factor alone is presenting a major challenge for everyone in the business environment grappling with the issue of 'how do we predict what will happen'.

ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES

Globalisation and technological developments have in the main brought about many changes in the business environment. In the first instance, there had been numerous changes in the workplace structure within the organisation as well as increasingly, new positions for workers, especially for those in the information technology industry. Owing to this, managers here in Australia have had to contend with the many ongoing changes taking place in the area of employer-employee workplace relations as a result of deregulation in enterprise bargaining. Whilst some lamented over the loss of 'social compact' between the government vis-à-vis employees and industry vis-a-vis employees, others applauded the more direct negotiations that companies had been able to carry out with their employees. Some twenty to thirty years ago when businesses were operating under very highly unionised environment structures, management was able to deal with the employees only through their unions. These days management is able to tailor contracts on an

individual-by-individual basis and thus ‘build a more direct relationship’ with the employees of the company.

In the second instance, more and more companies, in the face of mounting production costs, had been opting to reduce these costs by cutting down on staff numbers. The Managing Director of a well-established manufacturing company believed that the increasing costs of employing people had made employers reluctant to take people on except perhaps on a casual basis. Another Managing Director from the manufacturing industry felt that ‘the last thing I ever do is hire someone’.

‘Twenty years ago you virtually could hire and fire at will which had a lot of attributes. It was excellent.... But the hiring now is a completely different kettle of fish with the new regulations. The way they are it is so difficult to dispose of staff.... You open yourself up legally to a minefield.... You’ve got to warn people. You’ve got to have schedules or parameters to work within. You’ve got to educate them completely about what they are meant to do. You’ve got to write up a full job description. Anything outside the job description that could be then, you had to put that in. I am not talking safety issues. That I agree but I am talking the cost of the work cover, your premium, you name it.... The insurance are just ridiculous amounts of money and it really discourages you to employ.’

Given this situation nowadays, the big challenge facing those involved in human resources is staff motivation and handling a workforce, which is continually being faced with the uncertainty of employment.

In the third instance, many organisations faced either with the shortage of raw materials or with the ever-increasing costs of production have had to venture outside of Australia in order to remain productive as well as competitive. According to a Director of a shoe-making operation with several offshore divisions in Asia, working overseas had meant meeting differences in time zones, distance, language, culture and governmental policies. Besides having to manage a culturally diverse group of workers from local and offshore offices, working in international waters also involved changing work routines such as not being able to keep to a nine to five job and having to work at different locations from time to time. This was also certainly the experience shared by several executives from the mining industry.

The remoteness of the mine locations in these offshore environments had meant firstly, that companies brought together a workforce that was not only culturally quite different to the one they have here in Australia but also one with little

or no mining knowledge and skill. Learning to deal with the government of a different country and coping with language and communication problems, dissimilar social norms and values, even political unrest were some new challenges encountered from operating in international waters and using a foreign labour force. Secondly, the remoteness of these mine locations had meant that mining companies often had their workforce living at the mine sites with their families. In recent years, this had become uneconomic and some operations had to be changed to a 'fly in fly out' basis where the employees were rostered to fly in from a major city to work at the mine site for a fortnight. These changes in the nature of operations had posed new challenges for those in charge of human resources whose work it was to determine how the workforce would be allocated and deployed. They have had to make sure there was succession planning and the 'right staff' delivered to 'the right place at the right time'.

All in all, managers these days have to manage a business environment that is increasingly becoming not only more global but also more regulated by international trade practices.

6.5.2 BUSINESS PRIORITIES AND VALUES

2. *Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. What are your views on this?*

Of the 35 that responded, 60 per cent did not agree that profit is the prime motive of business. Thirteen of these 21 respondents were from companies with no offshore operations. For the 14 (40%) who did agree, eight were from companies with offshore operations.

The majority felt that businesses do not exist just for making money: although profit is important and necessary, 'it is not the main reason for being in business'. It is certainly a 'sustainability factor' that will ensure the company stays in business and is able to make investments for further growth. As one respondent put it,

'..... in making profits that has to be balanced with obligations both from other stakeholders' perspective whether they be the

community in which organisations operate or whether it be the government and of course employees, one has to take into account all the other aspects.'

Those who agreed (14 respondents) felt strongly that profit had primacy of commercial motive. The following comments illustrate this.

'Obviously being a profitable company is important and it is fairly central to the idea of a company being successful.....'

and

'I agree with that view and that the company is here to make money for our shareholders. We are here not to support management or staff or anything that doesn't have potential to make profit.'

3. *Are there any other priorities for business?*

Besides profit making, the priorities for business as mentioned by the respondents [summarised in Table 6.9] were wide-ranging. The priorities differed from company to company possibly due to the individual's status in the company and the type of organisation involved. That is, whether it was service or product oriented, a public-listed company, proprietary-limited, sole-proprietorship or partnership, whether the organisation had overseas operations and whether it was a family-owned business.

TABLE 6.9: SUMMARY OF 'OTHER BUSINESS PRIORITIES'

Other Business Priorities	Number of Mentions	
	Owners (n=10)	Employees (n=26)
Staff welfare	7	14
Good, reliable service	3	6
High quality product	4	5
Personal Goals	9	-
Social & environmental obligations to community	1	19
Company's growth & development	5	3
Company's reputation & image	-	1
Fostering good relationships	-	4

As the table above indicates, those who were owners of companies tended to place a greater emphasis on personal goals. These came with a sense of self-satisfaction achieved from self-employment as well as being able to provide employment for the community, having freedom and flexibility to direct personal development, time, relationships and lifestyle. By comparison, those who were employees did not consider personal goals at all. They tended to focus predominantly on the organisation's obligations to the community and to their staff.

Eighteen of these 26 respondents were mindful of their social and environmental obligations as 'a good corporate citizen' – to practise fair trading, to act ethically and responsibly, to pay taxes and other government and state charges, to provide employment to the community and to become involved in philanthropic ventures. Nine were from public-listed companies, eight came from proprietary limited businesses and the remaining one was from a sole-proprietorship. Of the 18, ten respondents worked for organisations with overseas operations. Six were from mining, four from manufacturing, three from services, three from manufacturing and two from wholesale/retail.

The welfare of the staff was regarded as 'the company's first priority' by 14 of these 26 respondents. As one respondent pointed out, 'people are your main resource, your main asset to the company' and 'you need people to help you make that money'. Staff concerns were focused on providing opportunities for staff personal growth and development, working towards an environment that was open and honest, conducive to team building and good employer-employee relations. Including employees in the vision plans of the organisation and seeking for their opinions on decisions that would affect them in their work were regarded as important for boosting staff morale and their retention rate.

Respondents who were owners of the business and who stated that the business was family-owned were more inclined to include the employee's family as part of their concern in terms of staff 'well-being'. The organisation was like 'an extended family'. One particular respondent, who came from a business that operated on a quasi-franchise basis, extended this priority of caring to his suppliers and their family members. These respondents felt that it was their responsibility to extend 'care' by helping out with family problems, for example, time off to look after a sick member, loan of money, and even promoting a balanced work and family lifestyle.

4. *Do businesses have a social responsibility? To whom?*

The opinion was unanimous. Businesses do have a social responsibility. It can be observed in Table 6.10 that the majority of respondents (72%) perceived businesses to have a social responsibility to the community. This consisted of people not only in the immediate or local area but also in the national and international parameters in which the business is operating. One respondent stated that for ‘businesses to operate in a social community’, they ‘have obligations to act within the law, to provide employment for the people in their community, provide those employees with opportunities....., build, develop, grow responsibilities, to pay their taxes and,’ and be ‘good corporate citizens’.

TABLE 6.10: SUMMARY OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY ITEMS

Social Responsibility For	Number of Mentions	
	Owners (n=10)	Employees (n=26)
Employees of the company (local and overseas)	10	13
Community	7	19
Customers	4	8
Nation state/government	4	3
Environment	2	7
Suppliers	1	3
Other Businesses	-	3
Shareholders	-	4
Other countries traded with	-	1

5. *How would you describe the underlying values that drive your company?*

It can be seen from the Table 6.11 that the list of values expressed by the various respondents come under three main headings: product or service, worker and organisation. Of these three items, the product/service, in terms of its quality, was cited most. Having a good product/service was a top priority and thus it was important to improve continually on its quality. In the words of one executive,

'We're always looking at the design of our products, constantly under review. If we can find a better way to make something then we will have a go at that. We have the R & D and the quality assurance. They have a meeting fortnightly and they review their progress and report on that.'

TABLE 6.11: SUMMARY OF COMPANY VALUES EXPRESSED BY RESPONDENTS

Company Values	Number of Mentions		
	Owners (n=10)	Employees (n=26)	
Product/Service	- quality	3	9
	- value for money	1	-
Worker	- welfare	4	7
	- competency	3	3
	- teamwork	-	5
	- work ethic	3	1
	- self-direction	-	3
Organisation	- business planning (vision)	2	2
	- innovative	1	5
	- community-minded	-	5
	- integrity	2	7
	- fairness/decency	1	6
	- customer focus	2	4
	- good relations	-	8
	- good reputation/image	1	1
- capital gains	1	5	

Table 6.11 also shows that with regards to the worker, the value most expressed by the respondents was 'worker welfare'. The following comment made by one respondent succinctly summed this up:

'.....every business is set up to make money but in order to make money you need people to help you make that money..... People are your main resource, your main asset to the company'.

The 'welfare of employees' was considered very much in the context of the workplace environment. It was to be 'friendly and healthy', 'open' and 'relaxed' for employees to be 'giving off their best'. It was also an environment that individuals

could grow and develop as well as foster good relations both within and between the ranks.

It needs to be pointed out that the analysis had only been strictly confined to the responses given on this question. It had not considered the company 'values' that might have inadvertently been mentioned within the responses to the other questions. One company value that was not included by any of the respondents in their response to this question but worthy of mention is the value of 'loyalty', not only from and towards employees but also from and towards others connected with the business such as partners, customers, suppliers etc. The researcher felt that it was important to mention this value because of the premium being placed on the welfare of employees.

It was noted that several of the respondents especially those, who were owners of their company, would make reference to the length of service their employees have had with the company. For example, they might have said, 'More than half that was with us ten years ago are still with us' or they would have referred to their employees as 'long-time staff'. For these employers, the loyalty or duty they have for these employees were related to the latter's commitment to stay on with the company. This was put forward by the following respondents.

We've got loyal staff, competent staff which we feel we have an obligation to so providing.'

We are careful to create an atmosphere of give and take, what is fair for us..... In return we would expect employees to be committed to the business. All heading for the same goal.'

For the organisation, as Table 6.11 indicates, keeping good relations especially with long-standing customers, retailers, suppliers and employees was mentioned the most frequently. Also significant are the values of 'integrity' and 'fairness/decency', which were expressed in this comment:

We place a large store on integrity. We want to operate with a legal framework which is part of the integrity issue..... fairness in employment and our relationships with people'.

Fairness in employment, according to one respondent, referred to not only 'treating everyone just and fair' but also 'employing the right person for the right job regardless of race, gender.....'

6.5.3 RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL VALUES

6. *Which particular values are most important to you in your business dealings?*

Honesty/truth/integrity/decency/keeping one's word and fairness/equity, as seen in Table 6.12, were the most expressed values by respondents. These values were regarded by some as 'core values' when dealing with people in business and at work. One respondent mentioned that when you begin with these values, 'everything else will fall in place'.

TABLE 6.12: SUMMARY OF 'RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL VALUES'

Values	Number of Mentions	
	Owners (n=10)	Employees (n=26)
Respect/courteousness	3	8
Fairness/equity	3	25
Honesty/truth/integrity/decency/keeping one's word	12	27
Cooperation	-	1
Trust	-	3
Professionalism	-	1
Being responsible	2	1
Compassion/Empathy/Kindness	-	2
Consistency	-	3
Directness	-	2
Courage	-	1
Independence eg freedom of speech	-	3
Reciprocity	2	-
Loyalty	1	-
Love	2	-

6.5.4 FOREIGN LABOUR

7. *Tell me what you understand by the term 'foreign labour'.*

Only 26 of the sample total of thirty-six respondents were asked for their understanding of the term *foreign labour*. It was observed that the ten who were interviewed initially had the idea that phrases like 'import of labour' and 'foreign

workers' were synonymous with 'migrant labour'. This should not come as a surprise since there always has been in Australia a close link between migration and economic development. After considering the initial ten respondents' responses to the questions on foreign labour, the researcher-interviewer felt that it would be necessary to introduce a question on what the term *foreign labour* meant to the participants. The participant's own understanding of the term would then help set up the 'perspective' or 'frame of reference' as mentioned by Foddy (1993, p. 76). This in turn would enable the researcher-interviewer to obtain a more accurate interpretation of the individual's responses to the questions that follow on foreign labour. It would also facilitate and keep the focus on the research topic.

The term *foreign labour* conjured up a variety of images in the minds of the respondents. These have been grouped into five distinct categories: general, migrants, people brought into Australia, the workforce of another country, foreign labour with a negative image.

[1] General

In general terms, *foreign labour* referred to individuals who possessed any of the following characteristics:

- foreign by birth
- have not grown up in Australia
- come from overseas, outside of Australia
- non-Australian nationals
- main language was not English.

These individuals, although regarded as part of the Australian workforce, were differentiated from the group called migrants. The latter were people who had come with the aim of establishing their lives in Australia. In other words, there was no sense of resident permanency (non-permanent residents) associated with the term *foreign labour*. These workers were 'temporary' or 'transient' as the work was mostly contractual in nature and the general assumption was that 'these people have come into this country to work and they would want to go back to their own country' after the work or contract ended. This view concurred with those mentioned by Stalker (1994). In addition, whilst the majority of these foreigners were in Australia

specifically to work, a minority were here primarily as students or tourists taking on employment on a casual and short-term basis to help finance their stay in Australia.

[2] Migrants

These were individuals

- from overseas
- who were new Australian residents (as opposed to someone who had been here 10 to 15 years or more)
- who were from non-English speaking (NES) countries and were unable to speak English well
- who had come with the intention to reside either as permanent residents or citizens of Australia.

[3] People brought into Australia

Outsourced from countries outside of Australia, these individuals had been brought into Australia to be employed in Australia. These individuals were 'imported' because they possessed specific skills that were not found in this country or they were recruited to work on a specific project.

[4] The workforce of another country

Foreign labour was also used to refer to the workforce of another country when that workforce was used to manufacture either a part or the entire 'Australian product'. The work could either be subcontracted to a company located in that country or an offshore plant could have been set up in that country by an Australian company or the Australian company could have moved its entire operations to that particular country.

[5] Foreign labour with a negative image.

In this instance, *foreign labour* referred to people who come usually in large groups, either legally or illegally, from countries 'not as well off as Australia' and are contracted to work on jobs that are manual or low-skilled and poorly paid. The five respondents who expressed *foreign labour* in these terms gave examples by way

of the Turks in Germany, Thais, Koreans, Indians and Pakistanis in the Middle East and Filipino maids in Hong Kong.

8. *What are your views on the import of labour from other countries?*

Of 31 respondents, 22 (71%) favoured and 9 (29%) did not favour bringing foreign labour into Australia. Those in favour were younger (52% were aged fifty years and below), in managerial (48%) rather than directorship positions and from the service industry (29%).

Twenty-one of the 22 respondents favoured skilled imported labour for shortages or gaps in industry for executive, managerial or specialist levels. Imported labour was 'another recruiting tool' that the organisation could have access to people much needed to fill in the skill gap and 'the best talent available'. Employing a non-Australian labour resource was not an issue as long as the 'laws of the land' were complied with. According to one respondent,

'Australia does need to import skilled labourers, skilled people. We have a deficient in certain areas. There are certain areas where we do need to import those skills because we are a small country. We only have a limited population. We have to try to compete on the global market place so we do need to import skills.'

Another respondent felt that,

'...it is a very good thing. If it is skilled labour then it is a great advantage to the host country because obviously a scarcity and foreign labour can fulfil that need. Like Americans buying up all the computer people around the world, that's smart of them.....'

Only one participant thought positively about bringing "unskilled labour" into Australia. He felt that Australia needed people who were prepared to take on menial jobs the youth of today, being more educated, were reluctant to do.

Four of the 22 participants who favoured foreign labour employment gave their opinions on wage and working conditions for foreign workers. One manager said,

'I am certainly dead against people coming into Australia and working for less than the award rate..... when it is, it becomes an abuse system..... These people have got to be employed on equal conditions as the local people. That's essential!'

and another,

'We wouldn't import what people would call cheap labour here to work. No. We wouldn't do that. We employ Fijians in Fiji. We employ Indonesians in Indonesia but we wouldn't import those people here just to save money'.

Seven respondents were not in favour because they considered that Australia has a fairly skilled workforce. A need might arise, from time to time, to meet shortfalls but Australia should not be bringing in 'unskilled labour' or people without tertiary or specialist training. Two of these seven respondents felt that there was 'enough in the Australian pool for low-level positions'. Bringing in 'unskilled people' who would have difficulty securing 'real' work would add to the burden of Australia, given the sizeable number of out-of-work Australians dependent on welfare. Another respondent did not like the idea of 'Australians wanting to work and not being able to find suitable employment'. Given these sentiments, they preferred the government to educate and train its national workforce to meet the needs of the economy rather than to source from other countries.

Two were not in favour of Australia importing both skilled and unskilled labour from other countries. This is because,

'They don't add to the social fabric of the country as such. People add to the social fabric of the country by belonging to that country. I am a migrant myself having been born overseas. I am an Australian. I hope that I have added something in my lifetime to the community and I hope other Italians that have migrated like me have added to the culture of this country by becoming Australians. Not by coming here to work for five years and go back home..... We would be opposed to the importation of labour on any scale really'.

The other respondent, an Anglo-Saxon Australian by birth, also viewed 'foreign labour' as 'transient labour' and saw no need to bring in this kind of labour into Australia.

9. *What are your views on businesses here that employ foreign workers?*

Of the 30 who responded, 23 (77%) were in favour and seven (23%) were not in favour of hiring foreign workers already in this country. Those favourable to employing foreign workers were managers (50%) employed (57%) in private limited

companies (47%), with no offshore operations (47%) and were not family-owned (67%).

Respondents who favoured employing foreign workers saw them as no different from local workers. Their non-Australian status was regarded as a non-issue. It was more a case of who was 'the best person for the job'. One respondent expressed the presence of foreign workers in Australia as,

'... a good thing. Gives the diversity of ethnicity and race in a company. It's a healthy thing...business, it should reflect the local community. If the local community comes from twenty-three countries than hopefully I have twenty-three employees, each of them should come from each of those countries'.

Ten of the 23 were more concerned that

- [a] businesses did the 'right thing' by employing these workers legitimately and under the fair and equitable working conditions governed by the laws of this country.
- [b] foreign workers were in Australia for 'legitimate work purposes'.
- [c] the person they were taking on had the essential skills, the willingness to work and ability to 'fit in' with the 'local environment'.

It was also 'alright' to employ foreigners such as tourists and those on temporary visas for part-time positions as they could in the short term provide a reasonable solution to the labour demand. Extending hospitality in this way might have Australians receiving a similar treatment when they travel overseas.

The seven who were not in favour generally felt that it would be 'incorrect' to put foreign workers in full-time and long-term positions. 'There are thousands and thousands of people in Australia who do not work and accepting the dole', according to one manager who reckoned that work should be given to these individuals instead. Australians in this country should not be deprived of jobs in their own country and should be considered first in line for the vacant position. Training and development was also seen as a means of increasing the skill competency of the workforce in the long run.

10. *What are your views on Australian companies sending work off to other countries?*

Of 34 respondents, 13 (38%) were in favour and 21 (62%) were not in favour of Australian companies sending work off to other countries. Respondents not in favour were, by comparison, in the youngest age group (35%) and employed (41%) in the service sector (26%). They were also from private limited companies (44%) with no offshore operations (41%) and were not family-owned (47%).

The 'in favour' respondents felt that as a country, 'Australia has to be competitive' and sending work offshore was adhering to basic principle of best business for the job. Three of these respondents felt that taxes coupled with the unions' awards and legislation in this country had made it impossible to compete in some areas where costs of labour (and other essential services) are so much higher than in a lot of other countries. Whilst the majority of these respondents saw the necessity of such a move for the company's sustainability, one was mindful of the obligations a business has in providing opportunities for the community in which it operates. If by sending 'things' outside of Australia, the businesses were able to operate more effectively and generate more wealth, this would in turn be a boost for Australians. If by exporting the work, businesses were able to build partnerships as well as contribute to the development of that country, this was regarded as a plus factor in international trade relations. However, if businesses were sending work to countries where they could take advantage of the labour conditions or where the local workforce was subjected to exploitative work practices, this was considered 'not right'.

Those who did not favour the idea of Australian companies sending work off to other countries felt that the Australian community could be missing out on the wealth generation. Citing the situation of the textile and clothing industry which has suffered tremendously from jobs being sent overseas, these respondents stated that they preferred 'Australian-made clothing'. One respondent had even made a conscious effort to buy only from those that employ Australians here in Australia. A few were opposed to Australian companies sending work off to countries in the Third World where they were able to exploit the local workforce or employ child labour. They considered this to be 'inappropriate and morally wrong'.

11. *What are your views on Australian companies that relocate their business to another country?*

Altogether 30 responded; seven (23%) were in favour and 23 (77%) were not in favour of Australian companies relocating their business to another country. Those not in favour also tended to be in the youngest age group (37% were between 31-40 years), were managers (43%) employed (47%) in private limited companies (50%) with no offshore operations (47%) and were not family-owned (60%).

Those in favour recognised that a business has to achieve its purpose and fulfil its responsibility to its stakeholders. If these objectives could be met by going overseas then it would be better to do so. One respondent argued that Australia is a country with a small population and unless businesses ventured outside of Australia, they would not 'generate wealth or have continual generation of wealth' and improve work-wise. Foreign business investment should promote development of the host country. Respondents were not in favour of investments that exploited the foreign workforce.

Wanting jobs kept in Australia was why respondents were not favouring Australian companies to relocate their business. Many felt that the Australian Government should be doing more in the areas of tax, tariffs and employee work regulations to aid local businesses and increase training to ease the unemployment in this country. Six respondents who did not favour also had a problem with companies that were exploiting the 'cheap labour' available in third world countries. According to one,

'I don't like the Nike situation where they produce shoes using cheap labour and child labour sometimes to produce goods that are then sold at boutique prices'.

6.5.5 SUMMATION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS – INTERVIEW SAMPLE

The purpose of this interview sample was to obtain a better insight into the challenges faced by managers in HRM, their perception of their organisations' priorities and values, their personal values and issues central to foreign labour employment.

The managers who responded came from 36 companies situated in metropolitan Melbourne, Australia. They found these issues interesting and relevant and were very responsive. Their experiences and opinions had not only confirmed much of what that has been written and published but also added depth to the knowledge of the issues in question.

CHALLENGES IN HRM

According to this sample of Australian managers, new challenges arose primarily from technological developments and their effects on the workforce and environment. Some of these concerned 'older' employees not so keen with organisation and work restructuring, finding the 'right' personnel to undertake positions in newly created industries and 'a far better educated more informed and intelligent workforce'. Moreover, work is not simply just work. Employees are expecting more, out of what they do and with regards to their wage and work-environment. The workforce is also becoming increasingly more culturally diverse with more and more organisations drawn to operate on a global basis. This has resulted in greater efforts to improving communication of company's procedures, policies and values to the employees. Business organisations have also had to invest continually in staff training and in the upgrading of equipment as a result of advances made in technology.

These challenges in HRM voiced by the Australian managers do reflect the situational changes discussed in the literature that has been reviewed in Sections 2.4-2.5. Firstly, technological development has effectuated not only a greater differentiation of task and labour content in the industrialisation process but also a promotion of a greater specialisation of tasks and a higher skill level amongst workers. Secondly, globalisation, the mushrooming of multinationals around the globe in recent decades most particularly, has generated an unprecedented movement of the world's population, which in turn has caused an immense diversity of cultures to occur in the workforce of many countries. Thirdly, technological development, globalisation and international migration have together brought about a work revolution that has changed the nature of work and the workplace environment so significantly to affect organisational and employment practice and relations.

BUSINESS PRIORITIES & VALUES

The majority of respondents perceived their business organisations as having accorded a greater emphasis on being 'good corporate citizens' by meeting their social and environmental obligations to the community rather than profit making. These companies the respondents worked for, were also thought to place a high value on their employees.

Both these opinions indicate that an 'ethical climate' (Victor & Cullen 1987, 1988) exist amongst these Australian businesses. By being people-oriented and having the interest of the community at heart, these businesses in Australia are undoubtedly moving away from Friedman's (1970) profit-as-the-bottom-line yardstick for business and adopting 'triple-bottom-line' (Armstrong & Sweeney 2001, p. 1-15) elements into their business culture. To a large extent, this move can be attributed to the formal reporting obligations that all publicly listed companies in Australia are required to meet (ibid).

RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL VALUES

The respondents regarded 'core values' such as integrity and fairness as most important for keeping good relations, whether they are personal or business. This speaks well for given that these respondents occupy seats in management, their values will thus serve to promote an 'ethical culture' (Trevino 1990; Trevino et al. 1998) and an 'ethical climate' (Victor & Cullen 1987, 1988) that inadvertently will produce behaviours that are sound, of good judgement and of benefit for the business. As discussed in Section 4.6.3, EDM theorists such as Ferrell et al. 1989, Fritzsche 1991, Trevino 1986 among others, had advised on the significant influence 'referent others' have on the ethos of the whole organisation.

FOREIGN LABOUR

It was important to learn the Australian cultural context of foreign labour at this early stage of the research, particularly in view of plans to carry out further studies employing the quantitative methodology.

This qualitative inquiry showed a greater preference for Australian businesses to generally employ foreign workers in Australia rather than 'hire them in

other countries'. Nearly three-quarters of all respondents favoured bringing skilled foreign labour into Australia and hiring foreign workers already in the country. The majority consisted of respondents aged between 31-40. Almost two-thirds were not in favour of work and businesses leaving Australia. These were the people with a strong sense of ensuring their economy remained healthy in terms of job provision, skill competency and wealth generation. Their considerations fall in line with most respondents' perceptions of their organisations' business priorities as given to meeting obligations to the community.

Skill was the only important factor for respondents' preference for bringing in foreign labour into Australia. Those with skills sought by Australian industries were welcomed in Australia and those regarded as unskilled were not. Respondents were favourable towards the hiring of foreign workers, both skilled and unskilled, already in Australia provided they were given the equitable treatment accorded to nationals in this country. They did not favour the exploitation of workers, even for those outside Australia. This is consistent with the findings on respondents' personal values and by Milner and Quiltry (1996, p. 30-31) on Australia's social environment as being egalitarian, of 'fair go' and of 'mateship' (discussed in Section 4.7).

The predominance in this sample of Christian Australian males born in Australia of North European ancestry working in private limited companies that are not family-owned reflects the norm of the Australian workplace 'landscape'. The opinions of these participants will undoubtedly be the ones that permeate the business community. Their responses are in line with the government's recent policies on equity, multiculturalism and on attracting young and highly qualified migrants from Asia (discussed in Chapter III under Australia's Immigration Policy). At the same time, they reflect the impact of the policies concerning FLE, which are based very much on the history, socio-economic, ecological and environmental factors of this country (Castles 1992; DIMA 2001a, 2001b, 2001c; Iredale 1995, 2001; Kotler 2003; Triandis & Suh 2002; Year Book Australia 2001).

PART TWO

6.6 CASE STUDIES

The sample of respondents discussed above comprised 36 Australian managers from Australian-owned companies based in Melbourne, Australia. This section will present two case studies of Singapore-born citizens, working and residing (short term) in Melbourne, Australia, but employed by Singaporean companies. One was a Station Manager employed by a large multi-national corporation in its Melbourne branch office. The other was a private businessman who made periodic visits to be with his family in Melbourne. These two had responded to the letter [app. VI.11], which had been sent to Singapore-owned companies based in Melbourne to engage the opinions of expatriates. It was envisaged that the inclusion of these participants could add further insight, either by confirming or providing another perspective on those results derived from the other samples.

6.6.1 CASE STUDY #1 – Mr A

Gender	Male
Age	40 years
Status in Company	Employee / Station Manager
Years in this Position	> 5 years
Years with Company	14 years
Nationality	Singaporean
Place of Birth	Singapore
Ethnic Identity	Indian
Religion	Christian
Type of Company	Public-listed / Offshore operations / Not family-owned
Industry Grouping	Service – international air carrier

(I) Attitudes towards foreign labour employment (Q1-Q23)

(a) Employment of foreign workers in Singapore

According to Mr A, until the recent onset of recession, Singapore has always faced a situation where ‘there has been more jobs than there are people’. Having

workers from overseas was never a problem. The situation might turn out differently should the present recession continue.

Mr A favoured the bringing in of skilled foreign workers as long as they possess the skills (a) required by companies in Singapore and (b) supported by the government. Given today's competitive market and globalisation, he felt that it is necessary for the company to bring in personnel, particularly skilled ones from other countries, as well as to post its own workers to branches offshore.

The company's headquarters consist of a wide diversity of people: personnel of different nationalities, race and ethnic groupings and religion. Over the years, the company has been bringing in more and more foreigners, 'flying staff' in particular. These foreign workers are brought in on a regular basis, about two to three times a year, either through recruitment companies or through selection made by crew teams sent overseas. Generally, apart from personnel for administration and marketing, recruitment tends to be very specialised, that is, the company seeks to employ people with skills to work in IT, as pilots and engineers. These foreign workers would be given the salary and working conditions stipulated by the labour regulations in Singapore. In addition, they may receive some expatriate allowances, for example, for housing, car, their children's education etc.

Mr A held the view that the number of foreigners brought into the company for either senior executive and managerial positions ought to be balanced with the 'local' numbers. Opportunities, likewise, should also be given to the latter to 'rise up within the organisation'. In other words, there should be a 'level playing field' for all workers whether they be locals or foreign. He conceded that the thinking culture of Singaporeans towards foreign workers is changing. Years ago, a non-Singaporean worker would not be able to go up beyond a certain level. This is not the case nowadays.

Mr A considered that Singapore does not have much choice but to bring in foreign unskilled workers to take on the work Singaporeans are not prepared to do. There are advantages to having unskilled foreign labour in this country. Firstly, they 'release' Singaporeans to become involved in more skilled work. Secondly, Singaporeans have been able to attain a higher quality of life. Thirdly, labour costs for employers, particularly those in the tourism and travel industries (since many foreign workers are employed in restaurants, hotels and department stores), can be

kept low and this in turn is beneficial not only for the population but also for visitors to Singapore.

Mr A favoured the hiring of skilled foreigners already in the country. Compared with someone who has just been brought over and is completely new to Singapore and its culture, these foreigners would already be familiar with the Singapore way of doing things. They know the culture and they have the edge.

However, these sentiments do not flow onto the hiring of unskilled foreigners already in the country. Mr A supported the government's stance; that these workers should return to their country of origin after three to five years, at the completion of their contract. They should not be allowed to grow their roots as this could lead to social unrest in the country.

(b) *Sending work, setting up a branch or relocating*

In order of preference, Mr A would prefer (a) sending the work to a company overseas, (b) setting up a branch operation in another country and (c) moving the entire operations outside of Singapore. The latter preferences would be considered only when the business is trying to meet a specialised need.

Sending work to companies in other countries is favoured only when it is cost effective. His company, for example, sends most of the accounting work to China because labour is much cheaper.

Setting up a branch in another country is not only favoured but also considered very important for this company. Given that Singapore's population base is very small, about three to four million, the growth for the company, therefore, would be very limited if it did not venture to be global. Moreover, to operate successfully like all other international flight carriers, there is a need to set up a branch in every destination they fly to. To places they do not fly to, a general sales agent would be employed to sell their tickets.

(2) *Respondents' opinions on 10 job selection factors (Q24)*

Educational qualification, industry and work experience were considered the most important factors in the selection of candidates for employment. Nationality was regarded of some importance whilst place of birth, ethnic identity and religion were of no importance.

(3) ***Respondents' opinions – profit and other company priority items (Q25 & Q26)***

Mr A was in complete agreement that 'profit is the prime motive of business' and that a company 'cannot keep going otherwise'. However, items such as 'good quality service' and 'good quality product' took precedence over profit in terms of priority.

6.6.2 CASE STUDY #2 – Mr B

Gender	Male
Age	51-60 years
Status in Company	Proprietor / Managing Director / Businessman
Years in this Position	> 10 years
Years with Company	> 10 years
Nationality	Singaporean
Place of Birth	Singapore
Ethnic Identity	Chinese
Religion	Christian
Type of Company	Proprietary limited / Offshore operation / Family-owned
Industry Grouping	Service – international freight forwarding and warehousing

(1) ***Attitudes towards foreign labour employment (Q1-Q23)***

(a) ***Employment of foreign workers in Singapore***

From his experience, Mr B had found that present day workers generally 'were difficult to retain', 'had no sense of loyalty and tended to view their job 'as a stepping stone'. This problem was exacerbated by competitors who 'poach staff'. It was not surprising to learn that Mr B regarded most foreign workers in a positive light. Compared to the local workers, he stated that foreign workers were not so demanding in terms of their salary, working conditions and career paths. In addition, they were bound by the employment contract to the company for a period of three to five years. This, in turn, proved more reassuring for the employer who could at least expect the employee to remain with the company for the duration of that time.

Mr B favoured the bringing of foreign workers into Singapore so long as they possessed the skills and abilities to contribute to the good of the country. Mr B felt that the most important factors for employing foreign workers were their legitimate

immigration clearance to work in Singapore, willingness to work hard and even take on jobs Singaporeans are not prepared to take on.

Foreign workers who had been exposed to global culture are considered a benefit to Singapore. The cultural exchange that takes place when staff are sent to work in overseas branches, for example, is valuable to a country that is multicultural and multinational.

He was most in favour of bringing in foreign workers for specialist positions, skill gaps and shortages in industry. Singapore, at present, is drawing on skills from Hong Kong and America to fill the shortages in IT, banking and shipping sectors. He had, on a few occasions, brought in workers from other countries and hired workers already in the country for managerial, technical, sales, administrative or computer-related positions. They were given the salary and working conditions in accordance with the labour regulations in Singapore.

Unskilled foreign workers are generally found in jobs regarded as “those Singaporeans do not want to do”, for example, as domestic maids, shipyard workers etc. However, whilst it can be said that unskilled foreign workers have contributed much to Singapore, they have been known to cause some social problems such as drunkenness. For this reason, Mr B tended not to favour employing unskilled foreign nationals already in this country.

(b) *Sending work, setting up a branch or relocating*

Mr B conceded that because Singapore is limited in its resources, companies might find that they need to go overseas in order to tap onto the best of resources and gain access to capital markets. He was in favour of the work to be sent overseas and branches to be set up in other countries to enable the company to remain competitive. However, he felt that Singapore should remain the base from where the company operates.

(2) *Respondents’ opinions on 10 job selection factors (Q24)*

Educational qualification and experience working in the field were regarded to be the most important factors for selection. Ethnic identity, religion and nationality were nominated as of some importance together with age and place of birth.

(3) *Respondents' opinions – profit and other company priority items (Q25 & Q26)*

Profit was to Mr B 'the prime motive of business' because 'it is the reason for being in business' and a 'measure of success'. Other items he regarded as *of great importance* to the company were 'staff competency', 'staff loyalty', 'teamwork', 'product development', 'company's growth and development', 'company's capital investments', 'fostering good relationships with associates in business' and 'maximising shareholder returns'.

6.6.3 SUMMATION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS – CASE STUDIES

Given the size of Singapore, its population and limited resources, the two Singaporeans overwhelmingly tended to favour skilled foreign workers, whom they felt were able to enhance creativity and diversity in the workplace environment. They felt also that the interchange of foreign skill had become very necessary in these global times and thus, were more favourably disposed to work being sent overseas and business branch operations being set-up in other countries than the Australians in the interview sample. They felt that these offshore branch operations would not only maximise opportunities for the growth and development of the company but also enable it to remain competitive as it gains access to resources that are not available in Singapore.

Even though unskilled foreign workers can be seen as cost effective for employers and the nation as a whole, the Singaporean respondents did not favour having these 'foreigners' stay on in the country beyond the duration of their employment contract, as they perceived this could lead to social disquiet. The Australians, on the other hand, did favour the hire of the foreign unskilled already in the country. It can be said that on this score, they are more approving of the employment of the foreign unskilled in their country than the Singaporeans are.

Generally, skilled foreign workers brought into the country were accorded salary/working conditions stipulated by the Singapore's labour regulations. Industry and work experiences together with educational qualification were considered the most important job selection factors.

Whilst profit was perceived as ‘the prime motive of business’, it was not, however, of far greater importance than having a good quality service or product.

The overall attitude of these two Singaporeans toward employment of the foreign skilled and unskilled within the country can be said to resemble those of the Australians whereby the foreign skilled were welcomed and the foreign unskilled were not. However, with regards to attitudes concerning FLE in other countries, the Singaporeans indicated a far more positive attitude than the Australians did. By a large measure, the smallness and the limited resources of Singapore (as the two respondents had indicated) compared to that of Australia has made it necessary for Singaporean businesses to venture overseas. Other factors such as the cultural history, ecology and maintenance systems (Triandis & Suh 2002; Castles & Miller 2003) could also account for the differences in attitudes between the two sample groups.

PART THREE

6.7 QUANTITATIVE SURVEY SAMPLE

Direct mail surveys were utilised for this quantitative phase of the study because they were cost effective as a method for collecting data from all the states in Australia as well as Singapore and Malaysia. There were three distinct phases.

The pilot as the first phase was administered in Melbourne, Australia to individuals in academia and industry. In the second phase, surveys were sent to a random sample of 500 companies, 250 in Australia and 250 in Singapore. A third phase had to be implemented and the stratified quota sampling method was carried out to procure a sample frame comprising a cross-combinatorial and designated number of respondents in regards to the variables of country, race/ethnicity and religion [refer to app. I.1].

The methodology by which these three different samples were obtained will be described and followed on by the empirical results.

6.8 PILOT METHODOLOGY

Foddy (1993) had commented on how questions in the survey could so easily be misunderstood by participants. He pointed out the usefulness of piloting or pre-testing the questions to ascertain whether respondents are able to interpret the questions as the researcher intended and find their way easily from one question to another, especially where filter questions were being used. The purpose of a pilot was to determine the respondent's degree of comprehension with the instructions and with the words and phrases used in the questions and response options.

From the data collected from the qualitative study, a survey was devised employing both open and closed questions. A seven-point Likert Scale was utilised with the closed questions. The questions were focused on the following:

- [a] viewpoints on six different types of foreign labour
- [b] vignettes for situational perspectives
- [c] business priorities and their level of importance
- [d] selection factors considered for a job position and their level of importance
- [e] demographic information of the respondent and the company they work for.

From suggestions given by two supervisors and colleagues working in the department, several revisions were made to the pilot survey [app. VI.12]. This was pilot tested with two different groups of participants: owners or employees of companies based in Melbourne.

The first group consisted of three individuals who either ran their own business or had some degree of ownership of the company. Their responses led to a further revision of the survey.

The second group were five individuals recommended by staff at the university. Respondents were from the service, finance and wholesale/retail sectors. Each had a good experience and knowledge of their particular industry. They were contacted by phone initially and asked to assist with the testing of the survey. All the respondents were Australians and Christians. Four were born in Australia, of Anglo-Celtic origin and aged between 41-50 years.

Two of the eight surveys were incomplete and this meant the analysis could only be carried out with responses from the remaining six.

6.8.1 PILOT RESULTS

The values of the seven-point Likert Scale were combined to form two response categories: for those not in favour (numbers 1 to 3) and for those in favour (numbers 4 to 7).

(1) *Attitudes towards FLE*

TABLE 6.13
VIEWPOINTS ON SIX DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN
LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

Categories of foreign labour (n=6)	In favour	Not in favour	
'Import' of foreign workers	- Skilled	6	0
	- Unskilled	3	3
Those already in Australia	- Skilled	2	4
	- Unskilled	1	5
Send Work Overseas	3	3	
Relocation of business	1	5	

As shown in Table 6.13, the six respondents were more favourable towards bringing in foreign workers into Australia than employing those already in the country. They were also unanimously in favour of skilled rather than unskilled foreign labour being brought in. In view of the high unemployment rate in this country, these respondents felt that instead of bringing in unskilled foreign labour, local Australians ought to be given these 'unskilled' jobs. Most respondents tended to see bringing in of foreign skilled labour as meeting the required labour market skill needs. They saw this also as enriching for the country in helping grow its skill base. As one respondent pointed out, bringing in people with skills was of 'no cost' to Australia in terms of education and training. Foreign workers not only provided skill diversity but also have added 'freshness', for instance, to approaches in problem solving. Whilst these generally might be the advantages, respondents admitted that there are the disadvantages posed by language and cultural difficulties. The reported

numbers brought in had been small, between four to five workers in sales, administration and technical support roles. They had been given the wage and working conditions stipulated by the Australian Industrial Relations Commission (AIRC).

The respondents were equally divided in their views on work being sent overseas. Some felt this was a complex issue and did not regard out-sourcing good for the local labour force. The others were favourable if they could know that these 'foreign workers' were suitably trained and understood the nature of the work conditions and policy of the company. In regards to relocation, the majority of respondents were certainly not in favour of Australian companies moving their entire business operations to other countries. They saw this as reducing the employment opportunities for those in Australia and voiced their concerns for the future of employment and, in particular, for small businesses dependent on these 'lost' companies.

The responses [Table 6.13] were subjected to three nonparametric tests available on the SPSS: namely, the Chi-Square, Sign and Fisher Exact Probability Tests. When these tests did not show any level of significance, manual factorial computations (with Table of Factorials on p. 287) utilising the Fisher Exact Probability Test formula (p. 97) provided in Siegel's (1988) *Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences* were then carried out. These also did not reveal any acceptable level of significance for the different categories of FLE [app. VI.13-VI.15].

(2) *Scenarios (Q21& Q22)*

Of the six respondents, four stated that they were not likely to bring in foreign workers to help with completing the Skyscrapers Ltd building project. They felt that this could cause a major industrial dispute. Even if they did bring in foreign workers, these would only be the top management people.

Rather than have businesses move their operations to the neighbouring country, respondents were more favourable towards sending the work there. Respondents felt that this was utilising the more competitive labour of the other country, especially if it were available at a lower cost. Moreover, this allowed the Australian companies to concentrate in selling the finished product locally.

(3) *Scenario (Q23)*

In terms of the factors considered as important in the selection of the candidate for the new specialist position, respondents ranked ‘educational qualifications’ as the most important, followed by ‘years of experience/publications’ and ‘years of job experience’.

(4) *Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business.*

Four of the six respondents agreed that profit is the prime motive of business. Of the two that disagreed, one felt that profit came with good service. It was more important to give a good service, back-up support and treat customers well.

(5) *Company priority items*

Of the 16 items listed, respondents ranked ‘good quality product’ as the most important to the company. This was followed by ‘good quality service’, ‘staff competency’ and the ‘company’s public image’.

6.8.2 AMENDATIONS FROM THE PILOT STUDY

The suggestions and response feedback from respondents led to survey revisions [app. VI.16], which included the use of structured multiple-choice response categories in place of open-ended questions, dividing the questions under several section headings, working in definitions of key words, rewording of some questions and improving the clarity of instructions. Attention was given to making sure that the questions were attractively laid out and easy for the respondents to follow through so that the survey did not take too much time to complete. A question on the wage conditions being paid to foreign workers in the company located in Australia and in its overseas branches was also included.

6.9 RANDOM SAMPLE METHODOLOGY

Of the 500 surveys mailed out, 250 were sent to Australian-owned companies based in Australia and 250 were posted to Singaporean-owned companies located in Singapore. Because comparability between the qualitative and quantitative studies was important to the research, the surveys were addressed to the Managing Director/Director of the company. This was also done in view of the influence he or she would have over the company's participation in the research. As top representative of the company, this individual would also be able to nominate the person best informed of the FLE policies/regulations of the country and company.

The Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000 database was once again utilised to construct the sample frames: one for Australia and one for Singapore. Firstly, from every alphabetical listing of companies in each of the country's database, names were drawn using a table of random numbers. This systematic selection was repeated until a list of 50 company names was obtained for each subsample of the five industry groupings in each country. A proportionate number of units from each of the five industry groupings was needed to ensure that the sampling frame would be representative of the country's industry population.

Secondly, a check was made from Kompass Australia and Singapore databases and the White/Yellow Pages Directory via the Internet for the company's name, address and telephone number and, more importantly, the name of the addressee. Following on the advice of Alreck & Settle (1995) that 'personalised' surveys can increase the rate of response, the latter was typed on the envelope and cover letter [app. VI.17]. A number of companies were not listed in these two main check-sources and the initial method of selecting companies from The Dun & Bradstreet database had to be run through several times before the required number of units for each sample frame was attained.

About one and a half weeks after the assigned closing date, a follow-up letter [app. VI.18] was posted to the companies that had not responded. This period was about four weeks from the day the surveys were first sent. The second follow-up, approximately two months from the initial mail-out, was conducted via telephone to the addressees of the companies that still had not responded. Surveys had to be faxed or emailed to those who indicated a favourable interest in the research. This helped to

increase the respondent numbers. Two further phone follow-ups were conducted. A thank-you letter [app. VI.19] was mailed to all survey respondents.

6.9.1 RESPONSE RATE OF RANDOM SAMPLE

TABLE 6.14: RANDOM SURVEY RESPONSE RATE FROM AUSTRALIA AND SINGAPORE

		AUSTRALIA		SINGAPORE	
		Number of surveys	% of total sample	Number of surveys	% of total sample
RESPONSE	1 st mail out	23		20	
	Follow-up mail out	32		6	
	Follow-up phone call	25		14	
	TOTAL RECEIVED	80	32	40	16
NON-RESPONSE	Unable to make contact	45		93	
	Phone not in service	10		43	
	Phone unanswered/engaged	10		21	
	Phone number belongs to a different company	12		3	
	Answering machine/voicemail/switchboard	4		6	
	Phone call not returned	3		12	
	Person unavailable – on business trip	4		4	
	Fax	2		4	
	Declined	40		22	
	Too busy	5		6	
	Not interested	31		16	
	Company's policy not to get involved	2		-	
	Do not get paid to do surveys	2		-	
	Contacted but no response	83		93	
	Company dissolved	1		1	
	Language difficulty	1		1	
TOTAL NOT RECEIVED	170	68	210	84	

Concerted efforts employing follow-ups by mail and telephone calls to prospective respondents assisted in increasing the number of surveys being returned. One hundred and twenty surveys were received from the 500 mailed out, indicating a response rate of 24 percent [refer to Table 6.14]. The response rate for surveys from Australian companies was two times better than that from Singaporean companies.

6.9.2 DESCRIPTION OF RANDOM SAMPLE [app. VI.20-VI.21]

Of the 120 surveys received, a total of 80 were from Australian companies, with the majority from the state of New South Wales (40%). These responses came mainly from the service (31%) and manufacturing (30%) industries. Seventy-one percent were received from proprietary limited companies, 56 percent from companies with no offshore operations and 51 percent from family-owned companies. The respondents were mostly males (87%), of the 41-50 year age group (39%), employees (61%) and holding positions of Managing Director/Director (53%) in their companies. Twenty-four (31%) owners had served as Managing Director/Director of their companies for more than 10 years. Ninety-seven percent of the respondents were Australians and 68 percent were born in Australia. Eighty-six percent of respondents identified themselves as Anglo-Celtic. Seventy-six percent considered themselves as Christians.

The remaining 40 responses were obtained from Singaporean companies. These were primarily from the service (28%), finance (25%) and manufacturing (23%) sectors. The majority of responses were recorded from proprietary limited companies (50%), companies with offshore operations (90%) and non-family-owned (78%). The respondents were mostly males (80%), of the 41-50 year age group (43%), employees (75%) and who were Managing Directors/Directors (50%) in their companies. Twelve (30%) Managing Directors/Directors, of which seven (18%) were also owners, had served in this position for over 10 years. A greater proportion were also Singapore citizens (93%) born in Singapore (78%) of Chinese ancestry (93%) and who regarded themselves as Christians (43%).

The total number of females (18) from both countries was notably very much lower than the total number of males (100) [app. VI.21]. Females made up only 15 percent of the total sample of respondents. This figure is indicative of the low

representation by women in the upper echelons of business organisations. Wherever possible, attempts were made to obtain a female participant. More effort, however, was directed at obtaining participants who were key decision-makers, particularly in human resource management. It was successfully achieved given the highest representation by respondents in the position of Managing Director/Director, by those who had been with the same organisation or held their positions for over 10 years. From both countries, the respondents were mainly citizens and those born in their country of employment and from the 41 years plus age groups. In terms of race/ethnicity, the dominant groups of the two countries were evident. However, in regards to religion, Christians made up the largest response group.

The majority of respondents were employees rather than owners. The greatest numbers responded from the service industry and proprietary limited companies. Respondents from Australia came mostly from companies that were family-owned and based in Australia only. Singapore, on the other hand, had respondents mainly from companies that were non-family-owned and with offshore operations.

It can be said that the overall sample attained a good balance in terms of proportionate numbers required for a sample to be representative of the population even though Australia had proportionately a better response rate than Singapore [Tables 6.15-6.16]. When the sample and population comparisons were made, Australia showed a population that was close to five times that of Singapore's. By industry groups, Australia had a very high favourable response from the manufacturing sector whose population was seven and half times smaller than that of the finance sector. In comparison, Singapore received the most favourable response from the mining sector, which had the smallest population. In terms of responses from the eight states, New South Wales had the most number. However, in regards to the percentage of sample to the population, Tasmania registered the highest proportion of responses received.

TABLE 6.15: SAMPLE AND POPULATION COMPARISONS FOR AUSTRALIA

Comparison by				
POPULATION SIZE OF AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES BY INDUSTRY GROUPS	Industry Group	Sample	Population¹	% of Sample to Population
	Mining	9	372	2.4
	Manufacturing	24	618	3.9
	Service	25	920	2.7
	Wholesale	15	857	1.8
	Finance	7	4750	0.1
	TOTAL	80	7517	1.1
POPULATION SIZE OF AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES BY STATE	State	Sample	Population¹	% of Sample to Population
	NSW	32	4220	0.8
	Victoria	19	3505	0.5
	Queensland	7	1145	0.6
	SA	5	912	0.5
	WA	12	1198	1.0
	ACT	2	158	1.3
	Tasmania	3	116	2.6
	NT	-	72	-
TOTAL	80	11326	0.7	
POPULATION SIZE OF AUSTRALIA	State	Sample	Population² (‘000)	% of Sample to Population
	NSW	32	6,532.5	0.0005
	Victoria	19	4,829.0	0.0004
	Queensland	7	3,627.8	0.0002
	SA	5	1,502.4	0.0003
	WA	12	1,909.8	0.0006
	ACT	2	470.3	0.0004
	Tasmania	3	197.6	0.0015
	NT	-	314.2	-
TOTAL	80	19,386.7	0.0004	

Source: ¹ Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000² ABS 2002b Regional Population Growth 2000-01 (figures at 30 June 2001)

TABLE 6.16: SAMPLE AND POPULATION COMPARISONS FOR SINGAPORE

Comparison by				
<i>POPULATION SIZE OF SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES BY INDUSTRY GROUPS</i>	Industry Group	Sample	Population¹	% of Sample to Population
	Mining	5	46	10.9
	Manufacturing	9	245	3.7
	Service	11	171	6.4
	Wholesale	5	395	1.3
	Finance	10	363	2.8
	TOTAL	40	1220	3.3
<i>POPULATION SIZE OF SINGAPORE</i>		Sample	Population² ('000)	% of Sample to Population
	TOTAL	40	4,017.7	0.01

Source: ¹Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000
²Singapore Census of Population 2001

6.10 STRATIFIED QUOTA SAMPLE METHODOLOGY

6.10.1 QUOTA SAMPLE DESIGN

It was the initial plan to source participants from two countries (Australia and Singapore), three race/ethnic groupings (Caucasian, Chinese and Malay) and three religious denominations (Christian, Buddhist and Muslim). The cross-combination of these eight variables would produce 18 categories of participants. Each designated category required a minimum of four participants in order that a sample of 72 could be achieved. This was the number needed for a satisfactory multivariate analysis.

In view of the time factor, only the categories of participants that were not available from the random sample would be sourced. Three categories of participants from this sample were found to have well over the required number of four respondents: 43 Australian-Caucasian-Christians, 15 Singaporean-Chinese-Christians and 8 Singaporean-Chinese-Buddhists. From each of these three categories, four participants were selected at random to satisfy the quota for each category.

Following discussions with a reliable Muslim official and after 10 weeks of unsuccessful attempts at securing Malay and Muslim respondents in Melbourne, it was learnt that

- [a] most of the Muslim businesses in Melbourne were small food and provision operators.
- [b] the 2001 September 11 was causing some ambivalence within the Muslim community.
- [c] Muslims, by and large, tended to be reluctant to participate in surveys.
- [d] even though the number needed was only four, it would still be difficult to secure Caucasian and Malay Muslims and near impossible to find Chinese Muslims, Malay Christians and Malay Buddhists in Australia, let alone in the other two countries.

Given these factors and the time that had been spent in pursuit of the necessary participants, the supervisors decided it was best to do away with the 'Malay' and 'Muslim' categories. The elimination of these two categories drastically reduced the remaining number to eight. Considering the possibility that two race/ethnic groupings and two religious denominations from two countries might prove insufficient analysis, it was decided that Malaysia be added as another country to the study. As a predominantly Malay and Muslim country, Malaysia was deemed suitable not only in fulfilling the two categories considered previously but also for making cross-cultural comparisons between an Anglo Christian Australia and between a Chinese Buddhist Singapore. Apart from this, these three countries shared a common British colonial heritage. The three main race/ethnic and religious groups still predominate in multicultural Singapore and Malaysia even though the composition might be different for each country.

With three countries, two ethnic groupings and two religious denominations, the categories totalled 12 [refer to app. I.1]. Six instead of four participants were now required for each category to make the required 72 for the sample. A category of six Malaysian Malay Muslims respondents was also considered.

6.10.2 SEARCH FOR PARTICIPANTS

The first points of contact were Muslim and Buddhist Associations in Australia and Singapore [app. VI.22]. The initial search in the telephone directory assistance of both countries for 'Muslim' and 'Buddhist' gave several useful leads. Those in Australia were phoned and appointments were arranged with suitable persons. Those in Singapore were first emailed a letter requesting for assistance to suitable referrals [app. VI.23]. A letter was also forwarded by one of the researcher's supervisors enlisting support for the surveys [app. VI.24]. The associations were then contacted by phone when no response was received after about two weeks.

As mentioned above, the 'Malay' and 'Muslim' categories were removed after two and a half months of unsuccessful attempts at finding these respondents in Australia and Singapore.

Most Buddhist associations were unable to provide assistance because of confidentiality with members' list. Some others were helpful with referrals. However, not all of these referrals were interested to participate in the research. In most instances, participants were found through the researcher's personal contacts. The following describes how each of the categories of participants was sought.

Australia - Chinese-Christians

Five of these were recruited from the researcher's personal contacts. The remaining one was a respondent from the random sample.

Australia – Chinese-Buddhists

Requests through friends and relatives furnished a list of five people. Three referrals were given by one of the Chinese officials from the Buddhist organisation in Melbourne. These referrals were followed up and resulted in positive responses.

Australia – Caucasian-Buddhists

Most of the contacts (through email, post, phone and face-to-face) with the Buddhist organisations listed on BuddhaNet Buddhist Internet Directory [app. VI.22] did not produce any referrals. The contacts made with managers of golf clubs, the Lions and Rotary Clubs and masonic temples in Melbourne [app. VI.22] were similarly unproductive.

The main Buddhist official body in Victoria was able to assist with contacts in Singapore and Malaysia. Two Buddhist respondents from the qualitative interview sample also gave assistance with referrals. One of these respondents had kindly invited the researcher to a Buddhist festival celebration at the temple. This visit provided two participants. Two further referrals from friends of the researcher led to two successful responses.

Singapore and Malaysia – Caucasian-Christians

A search of ‘Caucasian’ sounding names in the Directors’ List found in Kompas Singapore and Malaysia produced the names and contact details of directors and/or managers of prospective companies. A check was then made in The Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000 database to ensure that these companies were ‘locally owned’ and sampling consistency could be achieved for comparisons to be made between the studies.

Each company was selected at random and the key official contacted by phone. After their consent to participate was obtained, the survey [as per random sample in app. VI.16] was emailed, faxed or posted as directed with a covering letter [app. VI.25]. Changes in reference to the appropriate country were the only ones made to the survey.

As the researcher did not want participation to be hampered by inquiries into the personal characteristics of the prospective respondents, this information was learnt only on receipt of the survey. Owing to this, more than the required number of six participants for each category had to be canvassed. This was also found necessary because due to work pressures, the few who agreed to respond changed their minds. Some respondents were found to be unsuitable, for example, they were agnostic or of religions other than Christianity. In other instances, Managing Directors/Directors had handed the survey over to their Human Resource Manager who did not fit into any of the required categories of participants. Seven responses from Singapore and six from Malaysia were received in the final count.

Singapore and Malaysia – Caucasian-Buddhists

Contacts were made with a wide range of organisations [list in app. VI.22]. These included

[a] Buddhist organisations provided in BuddhaNet Buddhist Internet Directory;

- [b] the international division as well as overseas offices of the Chambers of Commerce found in Singapore and Malaysia, for example, The American and British Chambers of Commerce;
- [c] social ethnic associations such as The American Association of Malaysia, The Association of British Women in Malaysia etc.;
- [d] departments dealing in either Chinese Studies, Southeast Asian Studies or Sociology in the main universities of Singapore and Malaysia.

The time given and the number of contacts made via the phone, email, fax, post and personal visits to Buddhist temples and associations located in the three countries, were by far the highest for the search for participants to fulfil the Caucasian-Buddhist categories. Every lead continued to be followed up until the time the analysis for this study was due to complete even though the search for participants officially ceased after seven arduous months. Seven participants were eventually found from Australia and three were obtained from Malaysia. None resulted from Singapore.

Malaysia – Chinese-Christians and Buddhists

The names of prospective participants were selected in much the same manner as that which had been described in the above section on ‘Singapore and Malaysia – Caucasian-Christians’. In this instance, however, the search from Kompas Malaysia involved directors or senior executives with ‘Chinese’ names. Of the seven that responded, six were Buddhists and one was a Christian. The remaining participants were secured through personal contacts.

Malaysia – Malay-Muslims

Kompas Malaysia was also enlisted for company directors with ‘Malay’ names. Seven were received in total and they were from Human Resource Managers who responded on behalf of the Director of the company who had been contacted by the researcher initially.

6.10.3 DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN FINDING PARTICIPANTS

The following describes the whole host of problems that made the search for these specific categories of participants an extremely difficult and lengthy process that took more than seven months (December 2001 – June 2002). Most of these problems were also experienced during the follow-up sessions conducted for the random sample respondents from Australia and Singapore. By and large, the time it took to get a prospective respondent depended largely on the extent of these difficulties.

[1] Listed number inaccurate

Before any initial contact, a check on the phone number and address of the company was conducted via the Yellow Pages on the internet website for a particular country. So, for example, Yellow Pages Australia would be <http://www.yellowpages.com.au> and Yellow Pages Singapore would be <http://www.yellowpages.com.sg> and so on. Despite these checks, some phone numbers were still not the numbers for the companies sought after. They belonged either to another company or a private residence, were fax numbers or were numbers no longer in operation.

[2] Telephone number change

Both Singapore and Malaysia (only in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor or 03 code areas) introduced eight-digit telephone numbers. Whilst those in Singapore just had the number six preceding the former 7-digit number, the numbers in the 03 code areas of Malaysia had been much more drastically converted. Even a check with the 8-digit conversion Customer Service available through the national carrier, Telekom Malaysia, on the Internet was often unsuccessful in securing the ‘right’ number of the company.

[3] Message routing service

For many of the larger companies, particularly in Singapore and Malaysia, the calls were answered by a message routing service. Messages that were recorded for the person who was unavailable in the office at the time of call were not returned

in the majority of cases. No further phone calls were made after three unsuccessful attempts at contacting the key official.

[4] Hard to get to executives and other contact persons

It was not unusual to make half a dozen calls before getting on to the first “gatekeeper” of the company or association. In most cases with Singapore and Malaysia, the researcher could only communicate for a survey response via the Secretary to the Managing Director or Director of the company. Sometimes it would be the receptionist. The executive would nearly always be in a meeting, on the phone, overseas, on leave or out of the office. In some instances, the Malaysian executives were located in another state in Malaysia or even in Singapore. Attempts would then be made with given contact numbers. This difficulty was encountered also with contact persons from the various associations. Phone calls to the company or association was discontinued following three unsuccessful follow-up attempts. The failure to secure a successful response from a designated key official of a company meant that there was a constant need to make repeated searches on Kompas for additional names of executives to contact. In a few instances, it was found that the names of the company executives listed in Kompas Directory were outdated or the company itself had gone into liquidation. Searches then had to be conducted on the Internet for the company’s website to try and locate the most suitable person to contact.

[5] Unclear telephone reception

The long distance phone calls placed a great strain on the ears and demanded great patience from both the researcher and the contact or prospective respondent. Often there was music or talk from the broadcast or just simply loud noises. The researcher had often to repeat what had been said or request the person speaking on the other side to do likewise. There were also times when the connection was so poor that the call had to be terminated and a new call attempted. There was no certainty of an immediate connection and sometimes several attempts were needed before the researcher was able to get back to the prospective respondent.

[6] Following up on leads

The first referral might not, as this was often the case, result in getting a successful response. It was found that referrals led to other referrals, sometimes as many as three to five. Every one was promptly attended to. When a referral agreed to respond to the survey, a copy was immediately sent to their address. If the survey was not received after two weeks, a follow-up call was made to the prospective respondent. When no response was forthcoming following two further follow-up calls, all attempts at getting the specific respondent ceased.

[7] Daylight saving hours

Daylight savings put Australia's time ahead by three hours. This meant calls to Singapore and Malaysia were restricted to between 12 noon to 3 pm or after 5 pm.

6.10.4 QUOTA SAMPLE RESPONSE

TABLE 6.17: QUOTA SAMPLE RESPONDENT PARTICIPATION

		<i>CHRISTIAN</i>	<i>BUDDHIST</i>	<i>MUSLIM</i>	<i>HINDU</i>	<i>NO RELIGION</i>
AUSTRALIA [n=25]	<i>CAUCASIAN</i>	*	7	2		
	<i>CHINESE</i>	5*	8			1
	<i>MALAY</i>			1		
	<i>LEBANESE</i>		1			
SINGAPORE [n=15]	<i>CAUCASIAN</i>	8	0			
	<i>CHINESE</i>	2*	5*			
MALAYSIA [n=43]	<i>CAUCASIAN</i>	6	3	1		2
	<i>CHINESE</i>	7	9			
	<i>MALAY</i>			7		
	<i>INDIAN</i>		6		2	

Note: *Adequate numbers were met in the random sample and thereby respondents for these categories were not actively sought

It was difficult to calculate the response rate for this phase of data collection because the prospective respondent was not always the first known contact. For the

most part, the participants were secured through contacts of friends and through the relevant associations as mentioned above. There were also a few who responded anonymously and the researcher was unable to determine their source contacts.

Although the targeted respondent number was 78, in all a total of 83 surveys made up the stratified quota sample: 25 from Australia, 15 from Singapore and 43 from Malaysia. It can be noted from Table 6.17 that more than the proposed six responses were received for some categories and responses came also from unsolicited categories. But more importantly, no Singapore-Caucasian-Buddhist respondents could be located and responses were received from only three Malaysian-Caucasian-Buddhists.

6.10.5 DESCRIPTION OF QUOTA SAMPLE [app. VI.26–VI.27]

The majority of the 25 Australian responses came from companies in the service industry (68%) and those reported as being sole proprietors and partnerships (44%), non-family-owned (60%) and based in Australia only (72%). Seventeen (68%) respondents were male and eight (32%) were female. The major responses were from the over 41-year age group (92%). Although there was an almost equal representation of owners (52%) and employees (48%), responses were mainly from Managing Directors/Directors (56%) and those who have served in their position as well as in the organisation for more than 10 years. Even though the responses were predominantly from Australian citizens (76%), the majority were born in other countries (79%). Fifty-six percent were Chinese and 64 percent were Buddhists.

Of the 15 responses from Singapore, the majority were obtained from companies in the service industry (40%) and those regarded as proprietary limited (40%), non-family-owned (87%) and with offshore operations (67%). Twenty percent of the total number of responses was from females. Most respondents were in the 41-50 year age bracket (53%). An almost equal number of responses came from owners (53%) and employees (47%). However, most respondents from Singapore were Managing Directors/Directors (64%) and those who have been in their positions and with the organisations for over five years. The responses received were also mainly from citizens of other countries (67%) and those born outside of Singapore

(67%). Although respondents were either Caucasian (53%) or Chinese (47%), most identified themselves as 'Christians' (60%).

Of the 43 responses received from Malaysia, 50 percent came from manufacturing, 45 percent from proprietary limited, 74 percent from non-family-owned and 64 percent from non-offshore based companies. The majority of respondents were males (86%) and in the age bracket of between 41-50 years (40%). Most respondents were employees (63%) and the majority of responses came from Managing Directors/Directors (50%) and those who had been in this position and with their organisation for 10 years or more. Responses were predominantly from Malaysian citizens (67%) born in the country (67%). Mostly Chinese (37%) and Buddhists (42%) responded to the survey.

Most responses obtained from Australia were from the service sector and companies listed as sole proprietors or partnerships and with no offshore operations. By comparison, responses from Singapore and Malaysia were greatest from the manufacturing and services industries and firms regarded as proprietary limited and with offshore operations. The majority of respondents in all three countries came from non-family-owned companies.

There was a predominance of male respondents from all three countries. Female respondents formed only 20 percent of the total sample. Those who responded were mainly senior age wise, coming predominantly from the age bracket of between 41-50 years. Australia and Singapore had quite similar responses from owners and employees but Malaysian respondents were mostly employees. Respondents from all three countries were mainly Managing Directors/Directors and those who had been in their position and with the organisation for five to well over 10 or more years. Whilst respondents from Australia and Malaysia were mostly citizens, those from Singapore tended to be non-citizens. The majority of Australian and Singaporean respondents were born in other countries whereas Malaysian respondents were mainly those born in the country. Those who responded were mostly from the Chinese and Caucasian race/ethnic groups. The main Buddhist numbers came from Malaysia and Australia. Most respondents from Singapore were from the Christian group.

6.10.6 AGGREGATE OF SAMPLES

In all samples, it was observed that a significantly higher proportion of the sample comprised more male respondents than female respondents. In most instances, this was at a ratio of 1:4. Managing Directors/Directors gave the highest number of responses compared to those holding other positions. Generally, respondents were mostly seniors (41 years and above) who have served long (10 years or over) tenures both in their positions and organisations. Most came from the service industry and companies that were regarded as proprietary limited. Apart from Australia, responses from Singapore and Malaysia were obtained mostly from companies, which had offshore operations and were not family-owned.

6.11 EMPIRICAL RESULTS OF SURVEY SAMPLE

For the analysis, the random and quota samples were combined and this brought the total respondent numbers to 203, with 105 from Australia, 55 from Singapore and 43 from Malaysia. Discussions on the empirical results of these three country groups will take place in the first three sections with each section giving an analysis at the main country and at the sub-group levels. A more detailed analysis will be carried out at the main country level. Tests of correlation will be conducted between the eight levels of cultural (demographic) variables and the dependent variables. At the sub-group level, only the key differences either with the main country group or amongst the related race/ethnic and religious sub-groups will be discussed.

Following these three sections will be cross-comparative discussions by the [1] total country sample and [2] total race/ethnic and religious sub-groups. Two main tests of significance will be applied between respective dependent variables and the independent country, race/ethnic and religious samples: Pearson Chi-Square for the nominal variables and Independent Groups T-Test to compare the means of interval variables.

The two primary race/ethnic samples investigated are the Anglo-Celtics/Caucasians (CA) and the Chinese (CH). The two main religious samples examined are the Christians (CR) and the Buddhists (B). Because these four samples

are not the predominant race/ethnic and religious groups in Malaysia, a small sample of Malay Muslim respondents will be incorporated as part of the analysis for the Malaysian country sample.

6.11.1 AUSTRALIAN SAMPLE

6.11.1.1 Attitudes of Australians

[1] Seven categories of Foreign Labour Employment (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

With the seven categories of FLE shown in app. VI.28, Australians were more in favour of foreign worker employment within the country than in other countries. 'Hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' (95%) was the most favoured, followed by 'bringing in the foreign skilled' (91%) and 'set-up of branch' (89%). 'Company relocation' was the least favoured choice of FLE with 81 percent of Australians not in favour. It was significantly found that respondents who favoured

- (i) 'hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' ($F_{3,98}=8.37$, $p<.001$, Adjusted $R^2=.18$) were Australians aged 41-50 years (β -.33, $p<.001$), working in sole-proprietor/partnership (β -.23, $p<.05$) and non-family-owned type of companies (β .21, $p<.05$).
- (ii) 'work sent' ($F_{2,100}=7.35$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$) were Australians who had been employed in their positions 2-5 years (β .30, $p<.05$) and in the organisation for 1-2 years (β .24, $p<.05$).
- (iii) 'set-up of branch' ($F_{1,40}=8.12$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.15$) were employees (β .41, $p<.05$) rather than owners.

[2] Three business scenario options (Q23a)

The responses obtained for 'work sent', 'set-up of branch' and 'company relocation' reflect the same choices that these Australians had made concerning the employment of foreign workers in other countries [app. VI.28, VI. 167]. Ninety-one

percent of responses favoured 'set-up of branch', 86 percent for 'work sent' and 81 percent for 'company relocation'.

6.11.1.2 Reasons for Foreign Labour Employment - Australians

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

The percentage of responses *favouring* the employment of the foreign skilled, 'brought in' as well as those 'already in the country', were more than doubled those *in favour* of 'bringing in' the foreign unskilled [app. VI.168].

Of the six reasons *favouring* the foreign skilled 'brought in', 'skill gap/shortage' (89%, mean=5.90) had the highest percentage of responses. The lowest percentage of responses and means for 'senior executive' (81%, mean=3.73) and 'other managerial' (81%, mean=3.74) positions by comparison seem to suggest that Australians were less *in favour* of 'bringing in' foreigners for these reasons. It was found that Australians *in favour* of 'bringing in' the foreign skilled ($F_{1,91}=9.49$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.08$) were significantly those who had served in their positions for 2-5 years ($\beta.31$, $p<.01$).

Of the two reasons, Australians seemed more inclined to 'bring in' the foreign unskilled for 'meet short supply in industry' (36%, mean=5.10).

Of the six main reasons *favouring* the 'hire of foreigners already in the country', 'best person for the job' (90%, mean=5.52) obtained the highest whilst 'cultural diversity is good for the company' (83%, mean=4.83) recorded the lowest response percentages. 'Skill shortage' (1%, mean=7.00) was a highly favoured reason suggested by one respondent.

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q12, Q17, Q20)

From app. VI.169a and VI.169b, it can be observed that reasons favouring 'set-up of branch' attracted the largest percentage of responses. Conversely, the lowest response percentages came from the reasons *favouring* 'company relocation'.

The best reasons were:

- (i) 'In keeping with principle of "best person or business" for the job' (45%, mean=5.32) for 'work sent'.
- (ii) 'Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' for 'set-up of branch' (85%, mean=6.22) and 'company relocation' (18%, mean=6.11).

Amongst the reasons *favouring* these three categories of FLE in other countries, 'foster international trade relations' was consistently found to have the lowest percentage of responses and mean outputs (<5). 'Local knowledge and expertise' (3%, mean=6.67) and 'access to lower cost staff resources' (1%, mean=6.00) were two highly favoured reasons suggested by four respondents favouring 'set-up of branch'.

[2a] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country (Q3, Q8)

In both the instances for *not favouring* FLE within the country [app. VI.170], respondents' concern were more for rising unemployment numbers and how these would place a 'burden' on the welfare system rather than for reduced numbers of favourable jobs for locals.

Significance was indicated between Australians *not in favour* of 'hiring foreigners already in the country' ($F_{1,29}=10.42$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.24$) and those who worked in family-owned companies ($\beta.51$, $p<.01$).

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q13, Q18, Q21)

Appendix VI.171 shows that the reasons *not favouring* 'company relocation' received the most responses whilst those *not favouring* 'set-up of branch' obtained the least responses.

'Prefer product to be made locally' was the primary reason for *not favouring* 'work sent' (50%, mean=5.87) and 'company relocation' (77%, mean=5.48). 'Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (10%, mean=6.00) was considered *most* for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'.

The reasons found with the lowest percentage of responses were

- (i) 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (48%, mean=6.04) for 'work sent' and 'company relocation' (76%, mean=6.03).
- (ii) 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' (7%, mean=6.00) for 'set-up of branch'.

Significance was indicated between Australians who were not in favour of 'set-up of branch' ($F_{1,8}=11.15$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.53$) and those (i) aged 31-40 years ($\beta-.76$, $p<.05$) and (ii) who had been in their positions for less than one year ($\beta-.76$, $p<.05$). Australians not in favour of 'company relocation' ($F_{1,80}=11.20$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$) were also significantly found to be those who had served in their organisations for 1-2 years ($\beta-.35$, $p<.01$).

6.11.1.3 Practice of Foreign Labour Employment by Australian Companies

[1a] Employment of three categories of foreign labour (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

The companies' practice of the three categories of FLE, that is, foreigners 'brought in' or 'hired whilst already in country' and 'work sent', can be said to be in keeping with the attitudes of the respondents [app. VI.28, VI.29].

As displayed in app. VI.29, the 'hire of foreigners already in the country' (61%) was the most popular practice conducted mostly *on a few occasions* by 32 percent of respondents' companies in Australia. 'Work sent' was the least utilised of the three categories, with 76 percent of Australians stating that their companies had *never* sent work to other countries.

Regression analysis conducted for Australian respondents employed in companies that had ever utilised any of the three categories of foreign labour exhibited significance for those from

- (i) non-family-owned ($\beta.34$, $p<.01$) companies that had 'brought in' foreigners from other countries ($F_{1,101}=12.92$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$).
- (ii) sole-proprietor/partnership ($\beta-.20$, $p<.05$) companies that had 'hired foreign nationals already in Australia' ($F_{1,102}=4.31$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.03$).

- (iii) the ages 25-30 years (β .24, $p < .05$) employed in companies that had 'work sent' to other countries ($F_{1,98} = 6.19$, $p < .05$, Adjusted $R^2 = .05$).

[1b] Frequency and numbers of foreign workers ever employed within the country (Q4, Q9)

Appendices VI.30 and VI.31 show the smallest and largest numbers of foreign workers ever 'brought in' as well as 'hired whilst already in Australia' by respondents' companies. In terms of frequency, the tables reveal that Australian companies were more inclined to 'bring in' foreign nationals *once only* or *on a few occasions* but tended to 'hire those already in the country' most *on a few occasions*.

Appendix VI.30 indicates that one to 2001 were the numbers 'brought in' *once only*. The numbers 'brought in' *on a few occasions* were one and five for the smallest and one to 15 for the biggest intake. For those 'brought in' *regularly*, the numbers were just one for the smallest and one and 18 for the largest intake.

It can be observed in app. VI.31 that the intake for those 'hired whilst already in the country' *once only* was from one to four. The numbers employed *on a few occasions*, however, varied from one to 10 for the smallest and one to fifteen for the largest intake. For those employed *regularly*, the numbers ranged from one to 10 for the smallest and one to 40 for the biggest intake. The range intake for the employment of these foreigners *on a few occasions* and *regularly* was shown to be a little higher than those 'brought in'. The larger numbers by Australian companies employing foreign nationals 'already in country' compared to 'bringing' them in for employment demonstrate their stronger preference for the former.

[1c] Description of work sent to other countries (Q15)

Three main types of work were described as having been 'sent' to other countries by 23 respondents' companies in Australia. Eight were manufacturing, 13 were services and two were a combination of these two types of work. The manufacturing work 'sent' included the manufacture of clothing, cosmetics, electronic software and parts. Examples of services employed from other countries were managerial, sales, mechanical repairs, engineering and technical assistance,

engine overhauls, accounts payable, IT, research and development of product, financial banking and insurance, printing and market research data processing.

[1d] Personnel, salary and work conditions (Q5, Q10)

As app. VI.32 and VI.33 reveal, most of the foreign workers ‘brought in’ (44%) and ‘hired whilst already in the country’ (35%) by Australian companies were from the ‘technical’ area. Like all other foreign workers except those employed in managerial capacities, ‘technical’ foreign workers were predominantly given salary and work conditions stipulated by the Australian labour regulations. The majority of managers who were ‘brought in’ had salary and work conditions in accordance with international market standards labour regulations whilst most of those ‘hired whilst already in the country’ received remuneration specified by the labour regulations of Australia.

[2] Sources of foreign labour (Q22)

Appendix VI.174 indicate that the first preference of respondents’ companies in Australia was to source their foreign workers from a ‘local labour agency’ (84%, mean=5.38). ‘Recruit personally from overseas’ (83%, mean=3.89) was second whilst using an ‘agency in foreign country’ (75%, mean=3.23) was third. Three respondents were *most in favour* of sourcing from ‘sister companies overseas’ (3%, mean=7.00).

No significance was established between Australian respondents’ characteristics and their companies’ preference to ‘recruit personally from overseas’. Significant findings were indicated, however, between

- (i) ‘Christian’ (β .38, $p < .001$) Australian respondents working in companies preferring to source from ‘local labour agencies’ ($F_{1,84} = 14.24$, $p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .14$).
- (ii) Australian respondents employed in the mining industry (β -.31, $p < .05$) and in companies choosing to source from ‘agencies in foreign countries’ ($F_{1,77} = 8.08$, $p < .05$, Adjusted $R^2 = .08$).

6.11.1.4 Other Foreign Labour Employment considerations by Australians

[1] Participants' residence considerations (Q23b)

As indicated in app. VI.34, there were two main types of Australians. The first were the majority of Australians (22%) who would *not likely at all/least likely* consider to living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs. The second were those (17%) who would 'moderately' consider living in a foreign country. Regression analysis revealed that respondents who had served in their positions for lengths of 2-5 years (β -.21, $p < .05$) were significantly in this 'moderate' ($F_{1,99}=4.55$, $p < .05$, Adjusted $R^2=.03$) group.

[2] Opinions on ten job selection factors (Q24)

Australians considered 'work experience' (97%, mean=6.10) to be the most and 'religion' (96%, mean=1.96) the least important of the ten factors for job selection [app. VI.175].

[3] Opinions on profit and other company priority items (Q25, Q26)

As app. VI.35 shows, 61 percent of Australians were in agreement that 'profit is the prime motive of business'. These respondents ($F_{2,197}=3.99$, $p < .05$, Adjusted $R^2=.03$) were significantly found to be male (β .16, $p < .05$) and had been with their organisations for 10 years or over (β -.16, $p < .05$).

Of the four reasons agreeing with the profit statement, 'reason for being in business' (59%, mean=5.92) had the greatest whilst 'a waste of time otherwise' (52%, mean=5.06) had the lowest number of respondents. The Australians who disagreed with the profit statement were in complete agreement (38%, mean=6.13) that profit was 'important and necessary' but not the prime motive of business.

Four Australian respondents added their own highly rated company priority item – safety (1%, mean=7.00), honesty (1%, mean=7.00), corporate ethics (1%, mean=7.00) and technical proficiency (1%, mean=6.00) - to the main list of 16 found in app. VI.176.

Eight items had a higher average score to profit (96%, mean=5.88). They were ‘good quality service’ (96%, mean=6.51), ‘staff competency’ (96%, mean=6.26), ‘company’s growth and development’ (96%, mean=6.20), ‘staff work ethic’ (96%, mean=6.20), ‘staff well being’ (96%, mean=6.10), ‘staff loyalty’ (96%, mean=6.05), ‘company’s public image’ (96%, mean=5.97) and ‘fostering good relationships’ (96%, mean=5.96).

‘Good quality service’ (96%, mean=6.51) was the most important and ‘maximising shareholder returns’ (93%, means=5.73) was the least important of the 16 main company priority items.

6.11.1.5 Ethics of Australians

[1] Ethical stance on Foreign Labour Employment and View of Profit (Q2a, Q2b, Q3, Q7, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q26)

It can be observed from the overall means obtained for the reasons favouring and not favouring each form of FLE that Australians were inclined toward a deontological rather than a teleological stance [app. VI.177a].

The profit mean of 5.88 indicates that even though Australians considered profit to be of great importance, this was not surpassed by the deontological stances they took, particularly toward FLE in other countries.

6.11.1.6 Australian Sub-Groups – Key Differences

This section will focus on the four Australian sub-groups: Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (ACA), Chinese (ACH), Christian (ACR) and Buddhist (AB). The views of ACA and ACR were the most compatible whilst those of AB were at most variance with those of its main group.

[1] Like the FLE choices made by main Australians, ACA and ACR considered ‘hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ first, ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ second and ‘set-up of branch’ third [app. VI.166, VI.178, VI.189,

VI.200, VI.211]. AB held both these first and second choices as their top preferences whereas ACH had 'set-up of branch' foremost in their list.

[2] Of the six reasons *favouring* the foreign skilled brought in, 'skill gap/shortage' was the first reason of main Australians (89%, mean=5.90), ACA (91%, mean=5.87) and ACR (87%, mean=6.00) [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213]. AB preferred 'skill transfer/ exchange' (100%, mean=6.00) as their first reason whereas ACH chose these two and 'specialist positions' (89%, mean=6.00) as their primary reasons for 'bringing in the foreign skilled'.

[3] AB was the only sub-group to deviate from the popular choice of 'meet short supply in industry' for 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213]. They preferred 'take on jobs locals not prepared to do' (41%, mean=5.14) as their main reason for doing so.

[4] Of the six reasons *favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country', 'best person for the job' was most preferred by main Australians (90%, mean=5.52), ACA (91%, mean=5.47) and ACR (89%, mean=5.61) [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213]. ACH (94%, mean=5.82) and AB (100%, mean=5.71) considered 'PR is the same as a local' most of all.

Like the main Australians (83%, mean=4.83), ACA (81%, mean=4.69) and ACR (79%, mean=4.57) least preferred 'cultural diversity is good for the company'. ACH (94%, mean=4.82) and AB 100%, mean=4.47) felt 'ability to fit in with local environment' was least of the six reasons for 'hiring foreigners already in country'.

[5] Of the four reasons *not favouring* 'work sent', 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' was the first reason considered by ACA (47%, mean=6.03) and AB (47%, mean=6.13) [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216]. Main group had 'prefer product to be made locally' (50%, mean=5.87) as their first reason. ACH chose 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (61%, mean=6.18) whilst ACR selected

'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (58%, mean=6.06) as their best reason for *not favouring* 'work sent'.

On the least of the four reasons *not favouring* 'work sent', main Australians (48%, mean=6.04), ACA (45%, mean=5.94) and ACR (56%, mean=6.03) regarded 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' whilst ACH (61%, mean=5.27) and AB (47%, mean=5.75) considered 'prefer product to be made locally'.

- [6] Instead of the most popular reason (loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment) for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch', ACR preferred 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (11%, mean=5.86) whilst MM chose 'prefer product to be made locally' (14%, mean=6.00) [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216].

MM considered the remaining three (14%, mean=4.00) as their least reasons for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'. ACA (7%, mean=4.60) and ACR (10%, mean=5.00) regarded 'prefer product to be made locally' whereas AB preferred 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (12%, mean=6.00) as least of the four reasons. These two latter reasons were different from the most least of reasons selected by main group and ACH. Their least reason was 'local community missing out on generation of wealth'.

- [7] Of the five reasons *not favouring* 'company relocation', 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' was the first reason nominated by ACH (83%, mean=6.20) and ACR (84%, mean=6.15) [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216]. Main group felt most for 'prefer product to be made locally' (77%, mean=5.48). ACA considered 'effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company' (75%, mean=6.18) whilst AB chose 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (88%, mean=5.33) as their best reason for *not favouring* 'company relocation'.

On the least of the five reasons *not favouring* 'company relocation', main group considered 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (76%, mean=6.03). ACR regarded this reason and 'effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company' (82%,

mean=6.16) least for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’. ACH selected ‘prefer product to be made locally’ (83%, mean=4.73) their least. ACA (73%, mean=5.98) and AB (82%, mean=5.71) nominated ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’ as least of the five reasons for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’.

- [8] In terms of employment of the three categories of foreign labour, all Australian sub-group of companies reported having ‘foreigners already in country’, followed by ‘foreigners brought in’ and ‘work sent overseas’ [app. VI.172, VI.184, VI.195, VI.206, VI.217]. AB companies had employed the most ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ whilst ACH companies had the most ‘foreigners brought in’.

ACH companies employed most whilst ACR companies employed least of the three categories of foreign labour.

- [9] ‘Technical’ personnel were the most popular category of foreign workers employed by Australian companies [app. VI.40-41, VI.48-49, VI.56-57, VI.64-65]. Other than those employed by ACR companies, ‘technical’ foreign workers were given salary and work conditions stipulated by Australian labour regulations. ACR companies brought in ‘technical’ foreign workers on standards recommended by Australia as well as those of the international market.

AB companies brought in mostly ‘managerial’ foreign workers and gave them international market standards type of salary and work conditions. Other than ‘technical’, they also most employed ‘administrative’ foreign workers ‘already in the country’. These foreign workers were accorded Australian salary and work conditions.

- [10] Of the three sources of foreign labour, AB companies most preferred ‘recruit personally from overseas’ (76%, mean=4.92) instead of ‘local labour agency’ (76%, mean=4.38), which was the favourite choice of the majority of Australian companies [app. VI.174, VI.186, VI.197, VI.208, VI.219].

[11] Of the four sub-groups, AB (mean=5.06) were the most favourable to whilst ACR (mean=3.48) were the least supportive of living in a foreign country [app. VI.42, VI.50, VI.58, VI.66].

[12] Of the three most important job selection factors, main Australians, ACA and ACR felt that 'work experience' was first, 'educational qualifications' was second and 'years of work experience' was third [app. VI.175, VI.187, VI.198, VI.209, VI.220]. ACH and AB considered 'years of work experience' in second and 'educational qualifications' in third places instead.

[13] Of the sub-groups, ACA (64%) had the highest whilst AB (47%) had the lowest percentage of respondents who agreed that 'profit is the prime motive of business' [app. VI.35, VI.43, VI.51, VI.59, VI.67].

Of the four reasons, main Australians (61%, mean=5.92), ACA (61%, mean=5.98) and ACR (61%, mean=6.13) were most agreeable with 'reason for being' for doing so. ACH chose 'measure of success' (50%, mean=5.78) whereas AB preferred 'cannot keep going otherwise' (47%, mean=5.00) as their main reason for agreeing with the profit statement.

[14] Of the four sub-groups, ACR was the most deontological whereas AB was the least deontological on FLE [app. VI.177a]. None of the sub-groups went completely deontological.

ACR and ACA had the highest profit mean (5.92) whilst AB had the lowest profit mean (5.19) of the four sub-groups.

6.11.2 SINGAPOREAN SAMPLE

6.11.2.1 Attitudes of Singaporeans

[1] Seven categories of Foreign Labour Employment (*Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19*)

Of the seven categories of FLE, 'bringing in the foreign skilled' (95%) had the highest percentage of responses [app. VI.68]. 'Set-up of branch' (94%) followed a close second and 'hiring the foreign skilled already in country' (92%) had the third highest response percentage. 'Hiring the foreign unskilled already in country' (58%) was the least favoured of the seven categories. It was also the least favoured of the four categories of FLE within the country whilst 'company relocation' (61%) was the most unfavoured of the three categories of FLE in other countries.

Significant findings showed that respondents who favoured

- (i) 'bringing in the foreign skilled' ($F_{1,53}=7.85$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$) were inclined to be Buddhists ($\beta-.36$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' ($F_{1,38}=6.94$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.13$) were male ($\beta.39$, $p<.05$).
- (iii) 'work sent' ($F_{1,53}=4.77$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.07$) were Christians ($\beta.29$, $p<.05$).
- (iv) 'set-up of branch' ($F_{3,50}=17.05$, $p<.001$, Adjusted $R^2=.48$) were Singaporeans aged 41-50 years ($\beta-.33$, $p<.01$), working in sole-proprietor/partnership ($\beta-.33$, $p<.01$) and offshore-based ($\beta.54$, $p<.001$) type of companies.

[2] Three business scenario options (*Q23a*)

Singaporeans gave the same responses as those pertaining to FLE in other countries [app. VI.167, VI.68] when they considered the three business scenario options. 'Set-up of branch' (96%, mean=5.28) was ranked first, followed by 'work sent' (91%, mean=4.72) and 'company relocation' (91%, mean=3.34).

6.11.2.2 Reasons for Foreign Labour Employment - Singaporeans

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

As seen in app. VI.168, the figures *favouring* skilled foreigners ‘brought into’ Singapore as workers were almost twice that *favouring* the foreign unskilled ‘brought in’. This serves to indicate a greater preference for skilled foreign labour.

Of the six reasons *favouring* foreign skilled ‘brought in’, ‘skill gap/shortage’ (87%, mean=5.65) and ‘competing on global market’ (87%, mean=5.52) received the highest whilst ‘skill transfer/exchange’ (80%, mean=5.45) had the lowest of responses.

Of the two reasons *favouring* foreign unskilled ‘brought in’, ‘meet short supply in industry’ (49%, mean=6.00) indicated a slightly higher mean than ‘take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ (49%, mean=5.85).

‘Best person for the job’ (96%, mean=5.08) had the most responses *favouring* the ‘hire’ of foreigners ‘already in country’. ‘Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country’ (91%, mean=4.20) and ‘cultural diversity is good for the company’ (91%, mean=3.98) recorded the lowest response percentages.

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q12, Q17, Q20)

Of the three categories of FLE in other countries, ‘set-up of branch’ drew the most number of responses [app. VI.169a, VI.169b].

The main reason *favouring* ‘work sent’ was ‘ensure company’s sustainability and profitability’ (84%, mean=5.65). Respondents were most responsive to ‘company to be and to remain competitive on world market’ (93%, mean=5.90) for ‘set-up of branch’. ‘Access to resources not available in country’ (60%, mean=5.64) was the main reason by those *favouring* ‘company relocation’.

In all three instances of FLE in other countries, ‘foster international trade relations’ was observed as having the smallest responses as well as the lowest means.

Significance was found between respondents *favourable* to ‘company relocation’ ($F_{1,30}=5.01$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$) and those who had worked in their organisation for less than one year (β -.38, $p<.05$).

[2a] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country (Q3, Q8)

The third reason listed for *not favouring* foreigners ‘brought into’ Singapore as workers had a nil response [app. VI.170]. This could be due to the lack of a welfare system for the unemployed in Singapore. Between the first two given reasons, ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ (24%, mean=4.23) was the primary reason for *not favouring* ‘bringing in foreigners’. In the instance for *not favouring* the ‘hire’ of foreigners ‘already in country’, Singaporeans were inclined more toward ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ (31%, mean=3.88).

Significance was established between respondents unfavourable to

- (i) ‘bringing foreigners into Singapore as workers’ ($F_{1,11}=9.76$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.42$) and those working in companies with no offshore locations (β .69, $p<.05$).
- (ii) ‘hiring foreigners already in the country’ ($F_{1,15}=5.07$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.21$) and those working in the ‘wholesale’ industry (β .50, $p<.05$).

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q13, Q18, Q21)

The four reasons for ‘work sent’ and ‘set-up of branch’ indicated similar percentage responses and little “mean” variability [app. VI.171].

- (i) ‘Local community missing out on generation of wealth’ and ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’ (15%, mean=4.88) scored the highest whilst ‘prefer product to be made locally’ (15%, mean=4.38) had the lowest means for respondents *not favouring* ‘work sent’.
- (ii) ‘Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’ (7%, mean=5.00) had the largest means to ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’, ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local

community' and 'prefer product to be made locally' (7%, mean=4.75) from respondents *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'.

'Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company' (36%, mean=4.80) had the largest response percentages *not favouring* 'company relocation'. With the remaining four reasons, 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (35%, mean=3.68) obtained the lowest mean.

Significance was noted between respondents *unfavourable* to 'work sent' ($F_{1,6}=11.35$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.60$) and those employed in sole-proprietor/partnership type of companies ($\beta .81$, $p<.05$).

6.11.2.3 Practice of Foreign Labour Employment by Singaporean Companies

[1a] Employment of three categories of foreign labour (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Appendix VI.69 indicates that 'foreigners brought in' (87%) was the best utilised of the three categories of FLE. Respondents' companies in Singapore tended to employ this form most *on a few occasions* (41%) and *regularly* (41%). 'Work sent' was the least employed of the three with 44 percent of respondents claiming that their companies had *never* sent work to other countries.

Regression analysis performed on Singaporean respondents from companies that had ever employed any of the three categories of foreign labour revealed significantly that those who were male ($\beta .38$, $p<.01$) and worked in companies with offshore locations ($\beta .27$, $p<.05$) had 'brought in' foreign workers ($F_{2,51}=10.97$, $p<.001$, Adjusted $R^2=.27$) whilst those who had been with their organisations for less than a year ($\beta -.37$, $p<.05$) were inclined to have 'hired foreigners already in the country' ($F_{1,52}=8.09$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.11$).

[1b] Frequency and numbers of foreign workers ever employed within the country (Q4, Q9)

The smallest and largest numbers of foreigners ever 'brought in' including those 'hired whilst already in Singapore' by respondents' companies are listed in

app. VI.70 and VI.71 respectively. On the whole, the tables show that companies in Singapore were inclined to 'bring in' foreigners both '*on a few occasions*' and '*regularly*' but tended to 'hire those already in country' occasionally much more than on a regular basis.

Appendix VI.70 shows that one to four were the numbers 'brought in' *once only*. For those 'brought in' *on a few occasions*, the range was from one to 40 for the smallest and two to 200 for the biggest intake. The numbers 'brought in' *regularly* ranged from one to 50 for the smallest and from three to 300 for the largest intake.

Appendix VI.71 reveals that there was little difference for the intakes conducted *once only* and *on a few occasions* for foreigners 'brought in' or 'hired whilst already in Singapore'. However, the range for those employed *regularly* in the latter instance was very much larger than those 'brought in'. The number range was from one to 1200 for the smallest and three to 2500 for the largest intake.

[1c] Description of work sent to other countries (Q15)

Manufacturing and services were the two main kinds of work that had been 'sent' to other countries by 28 Singapore respondents' companies.

Thirteen of these companies had manufacturing 'work sent' overseas that included garment making, metal fabrication of steel structures, ship building, software, automotive and metal parts, packaging and primary products requiring high labour content.

The remaining 15 companies employed services such as the installation of sprinkler systems and pipeworks for fire protection, engineering (consultancy, drafting and drawing for steel fabrication works), editorial and graphic design, blasting and painting of steel plates, research and design for IT including market communication, roofing and tiling, technical, data processing, computer programming and administration from other countries.

[1d] Personnel, salary and work conditions (Q5, Q10)

It can be seen in app. VI.72 and VI.73 that 'technical' workers were the majority of those 'brought in' (37%) as well as 'hired whilst already in country' (36%). 'Technical' foreign workers, like the others employed in managerial, sales

and administrative capacities, were primarily provided with salary and work conditions stipulated by the Singapore's labour regulations. Foreigners engaged in 'other' capacities had several types of salary and work conditions; those conforming to Singapore's labour regulations and international market standards.

[2] Sources of foreign labour (Q22)

As app. VI.174 shows, 'local labour agency' (95%, mean=4.92) was the top source of foreign labour for respondents' companies in Singapore. This was followed by 'agency in foreign country' (91%, mean=3.92) and 'recruit personally from overseas' (89%, mean=4.49). One respondent most favourably suggested 'sister companies overseas' (2%, mean=7.00) as a source for foreign workers.

No significance was established between the demographics of Singaporeans and sourcing from 'local labour agency' or 'agency in foreign country'. Significance was found, however, for respondents aged 61 years and above (β .31, $p < .05$) and working in companies with offshore locations (β .39, $p < .01$) preferring to 'recruit personally from overseas' ($F_{2,46}=8.61$, $p < .01$, Adjusted $R^2=.24$).

6.11.2.4 Other Foreign Labour Employment considerations by Singaporeans

[1] Participants' residence considerations (Q23b)

Appendix VI.74 indicates that 34 of the 54 Singaporean respondents (63%) would 'moderate to very likely' consider living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs.

[2] Opinions on ten job selection factors (Q24)

Nine of the 10 job selection factors drew responses of 98 percent [app. VI.175]. Of these nine factors, 'work experience' (mean=6.17) scored the highest mean. The remaining job selection factor, 'nationality', had a response of 96 percent and an average score of 3.75.

[3] Opinions on profit and other company priority items (Q25, Q26)

Altogether 73 percent of Singaporeans agreed whilst 27 percent disagreed with the statement that ‘profit is the prime motive of business’ [app. VI.75].

Of the four reasons that went along with the profit statement, ‘reason for being’ (73%, mean=6.33) received the most number of responses and highest mean score. ‘A waste of time otherwise’ (67%, mean=4.95) had the least number of responses and lowest mean score.

Those who disagreed with the profit statement were also quite strong in their opinion rating (27%, mean=6.13).

The list of 17 company priority items presented in app. VI.176 is made up of 16 main items and a respondent’s suggestion - ‘political stability’ (2%, mean=5.00). ‘Company’s public image’ (100%, mean=6.25) was the most important company priority item. Together with ‘teamwork’ (100%, mean=6.22), they attained slightly higher mean opinion ratings than ‘profit’ (100%, mean=6.16). ‘Good quality product’ (96%, mean=6.58) was the least important of the 16 company priority items.

6.11.2.5 Ethics of Singaporeans

[1] Ethical stance on Foreign Labour Employment and View of Profit (Q2a, Q2b, Q3, Q7, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q26)

The overall means on each form of FLE indicate that Singaporeans were thoroughly teleological in their ethical stances on FLE [app. VI.177a].

The teleological stance adopted by Singaporeans toward FLE both within the country and in other countries is in keeping with their high regard for profit (mean=6.16), which was found to be greater than that of the Australians (mean=5.88).

6.11.2.6 Singaporean Sub-Groups – Key Differences

This section will concentrate on the four Singaporean sub-groups: Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (SCA), Chinese (SCH), Christian (SCR) and Buddhist (SB). Although the sub-groups varied considerably in their views, the differences were approximately the same in number between each sub-group and its main group.

[1] All four sub-groups ranked the three most popular FLE categories differently from their main group [app. VI.166, VI.178, VI.189, VI.200, VI.211]. SCH (93%) and SCR (100%) had ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ and ‘set-up of branch’ as their prime FLE choices. SCA nominated ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ and ‘hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ (100%) as their first FLE preferences. SB selected ‘hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ first (87%). ‘Bringing in the foreign skilled’ and ‘set-up of branch’ (82%) were their second preferences.

[2] Of the six reasons *favouring* the foreign skilled ‘brought in’, SCA (100%, mean=5.40) and SCR (96%, mean=5.68) were compatible with their main group (87%, mean=5.65) on ‘skill gap/shortage’ as the best reason [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213]. SCH (84%, mean=5.78) and SB (76%, mean=5.54) preferred ‘specialist positions’ as their first reason.

Like their main group (80%, mean=5.45), SCH (75%, mean=5.58) and SCR (85%, mean=5.55) considered ‘skill transfer/exchange’ as least of the six reasons for *favouring* the foreign skilled ‘brought in’. SCA nominated ‘specialist positions’ (90%, mean=5.89) whereas SB decided on ‘other managerial positions’ (65%, mean=4.36) as their least reasons.

[3] Of the two reasons *favouring* the foreign unskilled ‘brought in’, SCH (45%, mean=5.95) and SB (47%, mean=6.50) preferred ‘take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213]. SCA (60%, mean=6.50) and SCR (50%, mean=6.08) were in step with their main group (49%, mean=6.00) on ‘meet short supply in industry’ as the better reason.

- [4] SB was the only sub-group to select ‘willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ (94%, mean=5.56) instead of the popular choice of ‘best person for the job’ as its main reason for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213].

On the least of the six reasons for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’, main group (91%, mean=3.98), SCH (89%, mean=3.69) and SB (88%, mean=3.87) nominated ‘cultural diversity is good for the company’ whereas SCA (90%, mean=3.56) and SCR (92%, mean=3.92) decided on ‘legitimate immigration clearance to work in country’.

- [5] Of the six reasons *favouring* ‘work sent’, SCH (82%, mean=5.58) and SCR (96%, mean=5.60) agreed on ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ as their main reason [app. VI.169a, VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a]. SB preferred ‘company to be competitive on world market’ (76%, mean=5.77) as their first reason. Both these reasons were different from the primary choice of the main group, which was ‘ensure company’s sustainability and profitability’ (84%, mean=5.65). SCA had this reason together with ‘company to be competitive on world market’ and ‘competitive product, both in price and quality’ (90%, mean=6.11) as their principal reasons for ‘work sent’.

Most respondents regarded ‘foster international trade relations’ as least of the six reasons *favouring* ‘work sent’. SCA was the only sub-group to consider ‘in keeping with principle of “best person or business” for the job’ (80%, mean=5.50) least for ‘work sent’.

- [6] Of the five reasons *favouring* ‘set-up of branch’, SB preferred ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ (82%, mean=6.21) rather than the most popular choice of ‘company to be and to remain competitive on world market’ [app. VI.169a, VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a].

- [7] Of the five reasons *favouring* ‘company relocation’, ‘access to resources not available in country’ was the first choice of main group (60%, mean=5.64), SCH (61%, mean=5.59) and SB (47%, mean=5.38) [app. VI.169b, VI.181b,

VI.192b, VI.203b, VI.214b]. SCA (60%, mean=6.50) and SCR (62%, mean=6.50) preferred 'company to be competitive on world market' as their main reason.

[8] SCA was the only sub-group to prefer both reasons (40%, mean=3.25) - 'number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced' as well as 'unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system' - for *not favouring* the hire of 'foreigners already in country' [app. VI.170, VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215].

[9] Of the four reasons *not favouring* 'work sent', 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' was the most popular reason [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216]. Main group (15%, mean=4.88) and SCH (16%, mean=4.86) also regarded 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' as another of their first reasons. SCA nominated all four reasons (10%, mean=5.00) as their primary reasons.

Besides SCA, SCR was the other sub-group that considered 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (4%, mean=3.00) least for *not favouring* 'work sent'.

[10] Of the four reasons *not favouring* 'set-up of branch', SCR was the only sub-group to have 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (4%, mean=4.00) as its main reason [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216]. Main group (7%, mean=5.00), SCH (9%, mean=5.00) and SB (18%, mean=6.00) considered 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' as the primary reason for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'. No responses were obtained on all four reasons from SCA.

[11] Of the five reasons *not favouring* 'company relocation', main group (36%, mean=4.80), SCH (36%, mean=5.13) and SB (53%, mean=5.11) considered 'effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company' as their first reason [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216]. SCA preferred 'prefer product to be made locally' (30%, mean=4.00) whilst

SCR chose 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (35%, mean=4.00) as their main reason.

On the least of the reasons, SCA (30%, mean=2.00) and SB (41%, mean=4.71) nominated 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' whereas SCH (34%, mean=3.67) and SCR (31%, mean=3.25) selected 'prefer product to be made locally'. None of these reasons corresponded with the main group's least (possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community).

- [12] By a small fraction, SB companies had employed 'foreigners already in country' more than 'foreigners brought in' [app. VI.172, VI.184, VI.195, VI.206, VI.217]. Companies represented in the other three sub-groups corresponded with the main group of companies on 'foreigners brought in' as the most employed of the three categories of foreign labour. SCR companies had 'foreigners already in country' and 'work sent overseas' as their second most employed category of foreign labour.

SCA companies had the most 'foreigners brought in'. SB companies had employed the most 'foreigners already in country'. SCA and SCR companies recorded the highest number for 'work sent overseas'.

SCH companies employed most whereas SCA employed least of the three categories of foreign labour.

- [13] 'Technical' personnel were the main foreign workers employed by Singaporean companies [app. VI.72-73, VI.80-81, VI.88-89, VI.96-97, VI.104-105]. In the main, they were given Singaporean salary and work conditions. The exceptions were those from SCA and SCR companies who 'brought in' these personnel on international market rates.

SCA companies employed foreign workers 'already in country' for 'technical' and 'managerial' positions most of all. The managerial personnel had salary and work conditions in accordance with international market standards whilst technical personnel had both international market and Singaporean standards salary and work conditions.

- [14] Of the three sources of foreign labour, SCA most preferred ‘agency in foreign country’ (100%, mean=3.80) instead of ‘local labour agency’ (100%, mean=3.60), which was the main preference of the majority of Singaporean companies [app. VI.174, VI.186, VI.197, VI.208, VI.219].
- [15] Of the four sub-groups, SCA (mean=6.20) were the most approving whereas SB (mean=3.63) were the least in favour of living in a foreign country [app. VI.82, VI.90, VI.98, VI.106].
- [16] All sub-groups regarded ‘work experience’ as the most important of the ten job selection factors [app. VI.175, VI.187, VI.198, VI.209, VI.220]. But instead of considering ‘educational qualification’ in second place like the majority, SCH and SB felt that ‘years of work experience’ was more important than ‘educational qualification’.
- [17] Of the sub-groups, SB (88%) had the highest whilst SCR (61.5%) had the lowest percentage of respondents who agreed that ‘profit is the prime motive of business’ [app. VI.83, VI.91, VI.99, VI.107].

‘Reason for being’ was the most favoured reason by those who agreed with the profit statement. SB agreed with the profit statement for this reason and ‘cannot keep going otherwise’ (88%, mean=6.07).

- [18] SCA (100%, mean=6.60), SCR (100%, mean=6.65) and SB (100%, mean=6.65) concurred that ‘good quality service’ was the most important of the 16 company priority items [app. VI.176, VI.188, VI.199, VI.210, VI.221]. SCH felt that ‘teamwork’ (100%, mean=6.23) was the most important. All the four sub-groups did not match their main group’s choice of ‘company’s public image’ (100%, mean=6.25).

Of the 16 company priority items, main group (96%, mean=6.58), SCA (90%, mean=6.11) and SCR (96%, mean=6.52) deemed ‘good quality product’ as least important. SCH felt it was ‘community-mindedness’ (98%, mean=5.12) whereas SB thought it was ‘staff work ethic’ (94%, mean=5.88).

[19] SB was the only sub-group that deviated from the straight teleological stances on FLE taken by the main group and the other three sub-groups [app. VI.177a]. It adopted a deontological stance on 'set-up of branch'.

Of the sub-groups, SB had the highest profit mean (6.24) whereas SCR had the lowest profit mean (6.00).

6.11.3 MALAYSIAN SAMPLE

6.11.3.1 Attitudes of Malaysians

[1] **Seven categories of Foreign Labour Employment** (*Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19*)

Appendix VI.108 shows that hiring the foreign skilled already in the country (95%) was the most *favoured* of the seven categories of FLE. Next in line was 'set-up of branch' (93%) and 'bringing in the foreign skilled' (92.5%). Of the seven categories of FLE, 'company relocation' (28%) was the least favoured.

Significant findings indicated that respondents who *favoured*

- (i) 'bringing in the foreign skilled' ($F_{2,37}=7.64$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.25$) were male ($\beta.36$, $p<.05$) and those aged 31-40 years ($\beta-.35$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) 'hiring the foreign skilled already in country' ($F_{2,35}=6.41$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.23$) were likely to be aged 31-40 years ($\beta-.37$, $p<.05$) and had been in their positions for 2-5 years ($\beta-.40$, $p<.05$).
- (iii) 'hiring the foreign unskilled already in the country' ($F_{1,23}=6.54$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.19$) were managers ($\beta.47$, $p<.05$).
- (iv) 'set-up of branch' ($F_{2,39}=8.18$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.26$) tended to have served in their organisations for 2-5 years ($\beta-.28$, $p<.05$) and were from non-family-owned organisations ($\beta.43$, $p<.01$).

[2] **Three business scenario options** (*Q23a*)

From app. VI.167, it can be noted that respondents ranked their three business scenario options in the same manner as they had responded to FLE in other

countries: 'set-up of branch' (100%, mean=5.51), 'work sent' (93%, mean=4.40) and 'company relocation' (93%, mean=3.55) [refer to app. VI.108].

6.11.3.2 Reasons for Foreign Labour Employment - Malaysians

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

'Specialist positions' (84%, mean=6.00) was the primary and 'other managerial positions' (81%, mean=3.63) was the least considered of the six reasons favouring foreign skilled 'brought in' [app. VI.168].

'Meet short supply in industry' (58%, mean=5.96) was the more favoured reason for bringing the foreign unskilled into Malaysia. Significance found that those in favour of 'bringing in' the foreign unskilled ($F_{1,23}=7.81$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.22$) tended to be aged 51-60 years ($\beta-.50$, $p<.05$).

Of the six reasons for 'hiring foreigners already in country', 'best person for the job' (98%, mean=4.93) was regarded foremost whilst 'cultural diversity is good for the company' (88%, mean=4.03) was considered least. It was significantly found that respondents favouring the 'hire of foreigners already in country' ($F_{2,36}=5.74$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.20$) were aged 61 years and above ($\beta.34$, $p<.01$) and working in the 'finance' industry ($\beta.38$, $p<.01$).

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q12, Q17, Q20)

It can be seen from app. VI.169a and VI.169b that 'set-up of branch' had the most whilst 'company relocation' had the least responses to the reasons favouring FLE in other countries. The reasons most favoured were

- (i) 'ensure company's sustainability and profitability' (63%, mean=5.63) for 'work sent'.
- (ii) 'maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' (93%, mean=6.25) for 'set-up of branch'.

- (iii) ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ and ‘company to be competitive on world market’ (30%, mean=6.15) for ‘company relocation’.

The reason least *favoured* for ‘work sent’ (60%, mean=3.77) and ‘company relocation’ (30%, mean=2.92) was ‘foster international trade relations’. For ‘set-up of branch’ (91%, mean=5.46), the reason least *favoured* was ‘access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale’.

Significance was observed between those *in favour* of

- (i) ‘work sent’ ($F_{1,24}=5.3$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.15$) and those working in sole-proprietor/partnership type of companies ($\beta=-.43$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) ‘set-up of branch’ ($F_{1,38}=10.92$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.20$) and those aged 61 years and above ($\beta=-.47$, $p<.01$).
- (iii) ‘company relocation’ ($F_{1,11}=9.14$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.40$) and those aged 51-60 years ($\beta=-.67$, $p<.05$).

[2a] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country (Q3, Q8)

Appendix VI.170 indicates that ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ was the main choice of respondents for *not favouring* ‘bringing in’ (33%, mean=4.64) as well as ‘hiring’ (26%, mean=4.18) foreigners already in Malaysia.

Significance was established between those *not in favour* of ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ ($F_{1,9}=8.82$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.44$) and those who had served in their organisations for 1-2 years ($\beta=.70$, $p<.05$).

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries (Q13, Q18, Q21)

Appendix VI.171 shows that there were no differences in the response percentages to the four reasons *not favouring* ‘work sent’ and ‘set-up of branch’.

‘Local community missing out on generation of wealth’ was the primary reason for *not favouring* ‘work sent’ (37%, mean=5.81) and ‘set-up of branch’ (7%, mean=6.00).

'Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (37%, mean=5.06) was the least of the reasons for *not favouring* 'work sent'. This reason together with 'prefer product to be made locally' (7%, mean=5.00) were the least of the four reasons for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'.

Of the five reasons *not favouring* 'company relocation', 'effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company' (67%, mean=5.52) had the highest mean. 'Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (65%, mean=5.18) had the lowest response percentages and means.

Significance was found for respondents unfavourable to 'company relocation' ($F_{1,27}=9.54$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.23$) and those who had served in their organisations for 1-2 years ($\beta-.51$, $p<.05$).

6.11.3.3 Practice of Foreign Labour Employment by Malaysian Companies

[1a] Employment of three categories of foreign labour (Q4, Q9, Q14)

The companies' conduct of the three categories of FLE, that is, in foreigners 'brought in' or 'hired whilst already in Malaysia' and 'work sent', was a little different to respondents' attitudes as displayed in app. VI.108. Respondents' companies had more foreigners 'brought in' rather than hired 'already in country' although respondents indicated they preferred 'hiring the foreign skilled already in country' as their top preference, followed by 'bringing in' the foreign 'skilled' and 'unskilled' to 'work sent'.

As seen in app. VI.109, 79 percent of companies were reported to have 'brought in' these workers compared with 62.5 percent that 'hired foreigners already in country' and 41 percent that had 'work sent' overseas. 'Bringing in' (39.5%) and 'hiring foreigners already in country' (40%) *on a few occasions* was the most frequent practice carried out by Malaysian companies.

Regression analysis conducted for respondents from companies that had ever employed any of these three categories of foreign labour showed significance for those from

- (i) 'finance' industry ($\beta-.41$, $p<.05$) that had 'brought in' foreigners from other countries ($F_{1,38}=7.77$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.15$).

- (ii) companies with offshore locations (β .44, $p < .01$) and had served in their positions for 5-10 years (β -.41, $p < .01$) who had 'work sent' to other countries ($F_{2,35} = 12.66$, $p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .39$).

[1b] Frequency and numbers of foreign workers ever employed within the country (Q4, Q9)

Appendices VI.110 and VI.111 indicate the smallest and largest numbers of foreign workers ever employed by respondents' companies in Malaysia. These tables show that Malaysian companies were inclined to 'bring in' and 'hire those already in Malaysia' mostly *on a few occasions* rather than *once only* or *regularly*.

Appendix VI.110 shows that for the numbers 'brought in' *once only*, the range was from four to 40. For those 'brought in' *on a few occasions*, the range was from one to 50 for the smallest and from one to 200 for the largest intake. The numbers 'brought in' *regularly* ranged from one to 20 for the smallest and from three to 100 for the largest intake.

The range intake for those 'hired whilst already in country' *once only* and *regularly* were quite similar to those 'brought in' [app. VI.111]. But for those employed *on a few occasions*, the range was much smaller, varying from one to 14 for the smallest and from two to 36 for the largest intake.

[1c] Description of work sent to other countries (Q15)

Three main types of work were described as having been 'sent' to other countries by 17 respondents' companies in Malaysia. Six were in manufacturing, nine were in services and two were a combination of these two types of work.

The manufacturing work consisted of making sub-components of office furniture, wire winding, metal fabrication and various electrical and medical devices.

Examples of services that were employed included engineering such as design and fabrication of jigs, computer modelling and software program, business information systems, administrative and technical expertise, auditing and policy development, training for learning and development, product research and development and marketing.

[1d] Personnel, salary and work conditions (Q5, Q10)

Appendices VI.112 and VI.113 show that 'technical' workers were the highest number recruited of the types of foreign personnel 'brought in' (33%) and 'hired whilst already in Malaysia' (33%). Regardless of whether they were 'brought in' or 'hired whilst already in Malaysia', 'technical' workers were predominantly given salary and work conditions of international market standards like 'managerial' and 'sales' foreign workers. Administrative and those classified as 'other' foreign workers were provided with conditions stipulated by the labour regulations of Malaysia.

[2] Sources of foreign labour (Q22)

Of the three sources of foreign labour listed in app. VI.174, 'local labour agency' (95%, mean=5.17) was preferred over 'recruit personally from overseas' (95%, mean=4.24) and 'agency in foreign country' (93%, mean=3.78) by Malaysian companies.

The only significance was found between respondents who preferred to source from 'agency in foreign country' ($F_{1,38}=6.58$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.13$) and those who had served in their positions for 1-2 years ($\beta.38$, $p<.05$).

6.11.3.4 Other Foreign Labour Employment considerations by Malaysian

[1] Participants' residence considerations (Q23b)

From app. VI.114, it can be noted that 13 of the 43 Malaysian respondents (30%) would 'most likely' consider living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs.

Regression analysis indicated significantly that these respondents ($F_{2,40}=8.47$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.26$) were likely to be aged 41-50 years ($\beta.39$, $p<.05$) and had served in their positions for 2-5 years ($\beta-.37$, $p<.05$).

[2] Opinions on 10 job selection factors (Q24)

‘Work experience’ (100%, mean=6.30) recorded the highest whilst ‘place of birth’ (100%, mean=2.14) scored the lowest means [app. VI.175].

[3] Opinions on profit and other company priority items (Q25, Q26)

Appendix VI.115 indicates that 74 percent of Malaysians agreed that ‘profit is the prime motive of business’. ‘Reason for being’ (74%, mean=6.28) was the chief while ‘a waste of time otherwise’ (72%, mean=5.68) was the least of the four reasons agreeing with the profit statement. Those who disagreed with the profit statement were highly agreeable that profit was ‘important and necessary’ but not the prime motive of business (26%, mean=6.27).

Of the 17 company priority items presented in app. VI.176, 16 were the items presented to participants whilst one (corporate ethics, 2%, mean=7.00) was suggested by a respondent. ‘Good quality product’ (100%, mean=6.49) was the most important of the 16 company priority items. Together with ‘good quality service’ (100%, mean=6.47), these two items scored higher mean outputs than ‘profit’ (100%, mean=6.28). ‘Product development’ (98%, mean=5.83) was considered the least important of the 16 company priority items.

6.11.3.5 Ethics of Malaysians

[1] Ethical stance on Foreign Labour Employment and View of Profit (Q2a, Q2b, Q3, Q7, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q26)

Appendix VI.177a indicates that Malaysians tended toward teleological views when it came to foreigners ‘brought in’ and ‘hired whilst already in the country’ and ‘set-up of branch’ but were inclined to hold deontological views with foreign workers employed for ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’.

Malaysians (mean=6.28) had the highest regard for profit compared to Australians (mean=5.88) and Singaporeans (mean=6.16).

6.11.3.6 Malaysian Sub-Groups – Key Differences

This section will review the differences among the four main Malaysian sub-groups - Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (MCA), Chinese (MCH), Christian (MCR), Buddhist (MB) - and the sample of seven Malay Muslims (MM).

Of the five sub-groups, MM demonstrated the most differences in opinions with the main Malaysian group. Between MCR and MB, the former had the greater number of differences with main group. However, these were less than those found with MCA.

- [1] Main group had ‘hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ (95%) as first followed by ‘set-up of branch’ (93%) and ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ (92.5%) [app. VI.166, VI.178, VI.189, VI.200, VI.211, VI.150]. MCA and MB nominated all these top three FLE categories (100%) as their primary preferences. MCH and MCR selected ‘hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ and ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ as their first and ‘set-up of branch’ as their second choices.

The selection made by MM was the most different, among the Malaysian sub-groups as well as among all sub-groups. They preferred unskilled to skilled foreign labour. They chose ‘bringing in the foreign unskilled’ and ‘set-up of branch’ (86%) as first and ‘hiring the foreign unskilled already in country’ (83%) as second preferences. ‘Hiring the foreign skilled already in country’ (80%) and ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ (67%) were in third and fourth places respectively.

- [2] ‘Specialist positions’ and ‘skill transfer/exchange’ were the two most popular choices for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213, VI.152]. MCH (81%, mean=6.08) and MM (43%, mean=6.33) preferred ‘skill transfer/exchange’ whilst MB considered both of these (89%, mean=5.88) as their primary reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’.

Most sub-groups felt that ‘other managerial positions’ was least of the six reasons *favouring* the foreign skilled ‘brought in’. MCA considered ‘competing on global market’ (100%, mean=3.92) least.

- [3] MM was the only sub-group to regard ‘willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ (100%, mean=3.71) over ‘best person for the job’ (100%, 3.57) as their primary reason for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213, VI.152].

Main group (88%, mean=4.03), MCR (92%, mean=3.92) and MM (86%, mean=3.17) felt that ‘cultural diversity is good for the company’ was least of the six reasons for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’. MCH (88%, mean=3.93) and MB (83%, mean=4.13) regarded ‘PR is the same as a local’ whereas MCA preferred ‘willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ (92%, mean=3.36) as their least reason.

- [4] Of the six reasons for ‘work sent’, MCH (56%, mean=5.89) and MB (72%, mean=6.00) considered ‘company to be competitive on world market’ as their first reason [app. VI.169a, VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a, VI.153]. MCR preferred ‘in keeping with principle of “best person or business” for the job’ (69%, mean=5.22) as their main reason. Like the main group (63%, mean=5.63), MCA chose ‘ensure company’s sustainability and profitability’ (92%, mean=5.64) as the primary reason for ‘work sent’. MM thought of this reason and ‘foster international trade relations’ (43%, mean=5.67) as their chief reasons.

‘Foster international trade relations’ was regarded least of the six reasons for ‘work sent’ by all other sub-groups except MM. This sub-group had three of the reasons as least considered – ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’, ‘company to be competitive on world market’ and ‘competitive product, both in price and quality’ (43%, mean=4.67).

- [5] MCA was the only sub-group to nominate ‘company to be and to remain competitive on world market’ (100%, mean=6.42) instead of the most popular ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ as their best reason for ‘set-up of branch’ [app. VI.169a, VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a, VI.153].

Of the five reasons for ‘set-up of branch’, main group (91%, mean=5.46), MCA (92%, mean=4.91) and MCR (85%, mean=5.00) selected

'access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale' as the least. MCH (88%, mean=4.71) and MB (94%, mean=4.24) felt that 'foster international trade relations' was their least whereas MM chose 'access to resources not available in country' (86%, mean=4.67) as their least.

- [6] 'Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' and 'company to be competitive on world market' were the most popular choices of the sub-groups for 'company relocation' [app. VI.169b, VI.181b, VI.192b, VI.203b, VI.214b, VI.153]. MCH also considered 'access to resources not available in country' (13%, mean=5.50) as another of their primary reasons for 'company relocation'. MM included 'foster international trade relations' (14%, mean=5.00) as one of their first reasons also.

'Foster international trade relations' was considered least of the five reasons for 'company relocation' by the majority. MCH preferred 'access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale' (13%, mean=2.00) whilst MM thought of this reason together with 'access to resources not available in country' (14%, mean=4.00) as least of the five reasons.

- [7] MCA and MCR did not agree with the most favoured choice of 'number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced' by main group (33%, mean=4.64), MB (28%, mean=5.00), MM (43%, mean=5.00) and MCH (31%, mean=5.00) for *not favouring* foreigners 'brought in' [app. VI.170, VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215, VI.154]. MCA nominated 'unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system' (25%, mean=5.00) whilst MCR selected 'burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs' (23%, mean=5.67) as their main reason. MCH had also regarded the latter (31%, mean=5.00) as another of their chief reasons for *not favouring* foreigners 'brought in'.

Instead of 'unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system' as least of the three reasons for *not favouring* foreigners 'brought in', MCA (25%, mean=3.67) and MCR (23%, mean=4.33) chose 'number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced' whereas MM decided on 'burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs' (29%, mean=4.00).

[8] MCA (25%, mean=3.67) and MCR (23%, mean=4.67) preferred 'unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system' to 'number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced' as their main reason for *not favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country' [app. VI.170, VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215, VI.154].

[9] Instead of 'local community missing out on generation of wealth', MCA (8%, mean=6.00) and MM (57%, mean=6.25) opted for 'prefer product to be made locally' whereas MB preferred 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' (28%, mean=6.20) as their chief reason for *not favouring* 'work sent' [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155].

MCH and MCR were the most different of sub-groups in considering 'prefer product to be made locally' instead of 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' as least of the four reasons *not favouring* 'work sent'.

[10] MM considered 'prefer product to be made locally' (14%, mean=6.00) instead of the most popular choice of 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' as their primary reason for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch' [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155]. 'Prefer product to be made locally' was regarded least of the four reasons by the majority. MB regarded all four reasons (6%, mean=7.00) as their main reasons. No responses came from MCA.

[11] MCA was the only sub-group to deviate from the chief reason (effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company) of the majority for *not favouring* 'company relocation' [app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155]. They selected 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' and 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community' (42%, mean=5.40) as their main reasons.

Instead of 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment', MCH (88%, mean=4.86) and MB (67%, mean=5.17) considered 'prefer product to be made locally' whereas MM preferred

‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’ (86%, mean=5.00) as least of the five reasons *not favouring* ‘company relocation’.

- [12] Except for MCA companies, there was consistency among the sub-group of companies for employing ‘foreigners brought in’ most of all and followed by ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ [app. VI.172, VI.184, VI.195, VI.206, VI.217, VI.156]. Of the three categories of FLE, MCA companies had employed ‘foreigners brought in’ most. Similar numbers of companies were recorded for ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’.

MM companies reported the most employment of ‘foreigners brought in’ whereas MCA companies had employed ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ most of all.

MCA companies employed most whilst MCH companies employed least of the three categories of FLE.

- [13] ‘Technical’ personnel were the primary foreign workers employed by Malaysian companies [app. VI.120-121, VI.128-129, VI.136-137, VI.144-145, VI.159-160]. MCA companies reported the highest employment of foreign ‘managerial’ personnel ‘brought in’. MCR companies had foreign ‘technical’ as well as ‘managerial’ workers ‘brought in’. MM companies were the only sub-group of companies that had the highest employment of ‘other’ foreign personnel.

Except for the ‘technical’ foreign workers employed by MCH companies, technical and managerial foreign personnel were given mainly international standards salary and work conditions. ‘Other’ foreign workers were awarded Malaysian salary and work conditions.

- [14] Of the three sources of foreign labour, MCA (92%, mean=4.64) and MM (100%, mean=4.86) most considered ‘recruit personally from overseas’ to ‘local labour agency’, the favourite of the majority of Malaysian companies [app. VI.174, VI.186, VI.197, VI.208, VI.219, VI.161].

[15] Of the five sub-groups, MCA (mean=6.17) was the most whilst MM (mean=3.43) was the least approving of living in a foreign country [app. VI.122, VI.130, VI.138, VI.146, VI.162].

[16] Instead of 'work experience', MCR (100%, mean=6.38) and MM (100%, mean=6.14) felt that 'educational qualification' was the most important of the ten job selection factors [app. VI.175, VI.187, VI.198, VI.209, VI.220, VI.163].

[17] Of the five sub-groups, MM (100%) had the highest whereas MCH (56%) had the lowest percentage of respondents who agreed that 'profit is the prime motive of business' [app. VI.123, VI.131, VI.139, VI.147, VI.164].

Instead of 'reason for being' as their main reason for agreeing with the profit statement, MCA chose 'cannot keep going otherwise' (83%, mean=6.40) whereas MM decided on 'measure of success' (7%, mean=6.29).

[18] Of the five sub-groups, MM were the only sub-group to regard 'profit' (100%, mean=6.71) instead of 'good quality product' as the most important of the sixteen company priority items [app. VI.176, VI.188, VI.199, VI.210, VI.221, VI.165].

MCH (100%, mean=5.75) and MB (100%, mean=5.06) felt 'community-mindedness' whereas MM thought 'staff loyalty' (100%, mean=5.00) was least of the sixteen items instead of 'product development', the most popular choice.

[19] MCR was the only sub-group that kept to the ethical stances of its main group [app. VI.177a]. MCA was the only sub-group that went completely teleological. MM was the most deontological of the five sub-groups.

With regards to profit means, MM (6.71) had the highest whereas MCR had the lowest (6.00) of the five sub-groups.

6.11.4 TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE

This section will present a cross-comparative summation of the results obtained on the three country groups. The section following will concentrate on the analysis by total race/ethnic and religious samples.

6.11.4.1 Attitudes of Total Country Sample

[1] Seven categories of Foreign Labour Employment by rank order (*Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19*)

Comparisons on the FLE preferences of the three countries indicated that Australians and Malaysians were more for *FLE within the country* than *FLE in other countries*. Singaporeans had a marginal preference for *FLE in other countries* [app. VI.166].

With regards to *FLE within the country*, skilled was favoured over unskilled foreign workers. Appendix VI.166 shows that the first choice and preferences of Singaporeans for ‘skilled’ foreign workers were opposite to that of Australians and Malaysians. Ninety-five percent of Singaporeans chose to ‘bring in the foreign skilled’ as compared to 92 percent who preferred to ‘hire the foreign skilled already in country’. Ninety-five percent of Australians and Malaysians, on the other hand, favoured to ‘hire the foreign skilled already in country’ as compared to 91 and 93 percent respectively who chose to ‘bring in the foreign skilled’.

In terms of ‘unskilled’ foreign workers, the preferences of Singaporeans and Malaysians were similar but different to those of Australians. Respondents from Singapore and Malaysia chose to ‘bring in’ (68%) over ‘hire’ of the foreign unskilled ‘already in country’. The latter was considered the last (58%) and second (62%) least choice of Singaporeans and Malaysians respectively. This was not the case for Australians who nominated ‘hiring’ the foreign unskilled ‘already in the country’ (59%) and ‘bringing in the foreign unskilled’ (50%) in fourth and fifth places.

With regards to *FLE in other countries*, all three countries demonstrated ‘set-up of branch’ as the first, followed by ‘work sent’ and finally ‘company relocation’ in their order of preferences. Employment of the foreign skilled, ‘brought in’ as well

as ‘hire of those already in country’, and ‘set-up of branch’ were the three most consistently favoured of the seven categories of FLE by nine-tenths of the respondents from each country. ‘Company relocation’ was the least favoured of the seven categories by less than one-third of respondents from Australia as well as Malaysia. By comparison, it was the second least favoured of the seven by 61 percent of Singaporeans.

Pearson’s chi-square conducted for each *favoured* FLE response and country variable found significant relationships between respondents’ country and those who favoured (i) ‘work sent’ ($\chi^2=20.70$, $df=2$, $p<.001$) and (ii) ‘company relocation’ ($\chi^2=28.60$, $df=2$, $p<.001$).

[2] Three business scenario options (Q23a)

By rank order, the three-business scenario options for all three countries reflect the same choices as those made in the question above regarding respondents’ attitudes toward FLE in other countries; that is, ‘set-up of branch’ was followed by ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’ [app. VI.167].

A significant difference was indicated between the Australians and Malaysians toward favouring ‘company relocation’. Malaysians (mean=3.55) were found to be more in favour of ‘company relocation’ ($t=-2.20$, $df=123$, $p=.015$, one-tailed) than Australians (mean=2.80).

6.11.4.2 Reasons for Foreign Labour Employment - Total Country Sample

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(1a) *Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)*

Of the six reasons, the majority of respondents showed a greater preference for ‘bringing in’ the foreign skilled to fill the ‘skill gap/shortage’ and ‘specialist positions’ rather than for ‘managerial’ and ‘senior executive’ capacities [app. VI.168].

Results indicated significant differences between

- (i) Australians (mean=3.73) and Singaporeans (mean=4.60) toward 'bringing in the foreign skilled' for 'senior executive positions' ($t = -2.43$, $df=128$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).
- (ii) Australians (mean=3.73) and Malaysians (mean=4.54) toward 'bringing in the foreign skilled' for 'senior executive positions' ($t=-2.15$, $df=118$, $p=.017$, one-tailed).
- (iii) Singaporeans (mean=5.52) and Malaysians (mean=4.69) toward 'bringing in the foreign skilled' for 'competing on global market' ($t=2.31$, $df=82$, $p=.012$, one-tailed).

These findings show that Singaporeans were significantly the most in favour of 'bringing in the foreign skilled' for 'senior executive positions' amongst the three groups of respondents. They were also significantly more approving than the Malaysians in doing so for 'competing on global market'.

(Ib) *Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)*

The majority of respondents from all three countries made the same choice. They were more in favour of 'bringing in' the foreign unskilled for meeting industry short supply rather than for taking on jobs locals were not prepared to do [app. VI.168].

Results showed significant differences (*Levene's $p<.05$ or unequal variance) between respondents from

- (i) Australia (mean=5.11) and Singapore (mean=6.00) toward 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to 'meet short supply in industry' ($t=-2.46$, $df=55.91$, $p=.009$, one-tailed)*.
- (ii) Australia (mean=4.61) and Singapore (mean=5.85) toward 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to 'take on jobs locals were not prepared to do' ($t=-2.86$, $df=57.77$, $p=.00$, one-tailed)*.
- (iii) Australia (mean=4.61) and Malaysia (mean=5.68) toward 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to 'take on jobs locals were not prepared to do' ($t=-2.26$, $df=60.95$, $p=.014$, one-tailed)*.

These findings demonstrate that Singaporeans were significantly more in favour than Australians toward 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to 'meet short supply in industry' and most favourable of the three groups of respondents toward bringing them in to 'take on jobs locals were not prepared to do'.

(II) *Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)*

Appendix VI.168 indicates that the choices of the majority of respondents from all three countries on the most and least preferred reasons *favouring* the 'hire of foreigners already in country' were similar. They placed greater emphasis on the foreign worker's characteristics, for example, 'best person for the job', 'willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do', 'ability to fit in with local environment', than on the value of cultural diversity for the company.

Significant differences (*Levene's $p < .05$ or unequal variance) indicated that

- (i) Australians (mean=5.52) were more favourable than Malaysians (mean=4.93) in considering 'best person for the job' for 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=1.85$, $df=61.18$, $p=.02$, one-tailed)*.
- (ii) Australians (mean=4.86) were more in favour than Singaporeans (mean=4.20) in considering 'legitimate immigration clearance to work in country' for 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.23$, $df=139$, $p=.014$, one-tailed).
- (iii) Australians (mean=4.92) were more approving than Malaysians (mean=4.24) in considering 'a PR is the same as local' for 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.04$, $df=128$, $p=.022$, one-tailed).
- (iv) Australians (mean=4.83) were more favourable than Singaporeans (mean=3.98) in considering 'cultural diversity is good for the company' for 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=3.03$, $df=135$, $p=.00$, one-tailed).
- (v) Australians (mean=4.83) were more willing than Malaysians (mean=4.03) in considering 'cultural diversity is good for the company' for 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.52$, $df=123$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

These results indicate that Australians were significantly more in favour than their other country counterparts to 'hiring foreigners already in country' for the following reasons:

- (i) 'best person for the job'.
- (ii) 'legitimate immigration clearance to work in country'.
- (iii) 'a PR is the same as local' for 'hiring foreigners already in country'.
- (iv) 'cultural diversity is good for the company'.

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries

(III) Work sent (Q12)

Most respondents from all three countries agreed on 'foster international trade relations' as the least of the six reasons for *favouring* 'work sent' [app. VI.169a]. Singaporeans and Malaysians agreed on 'ensure company's sustainability and profitability' most whereas Australians favoured the principle of 'best person/business' first for work to be sent overseas.

(IV) Set-up of branch (Q17)

The greatest numbers of Australians and Malaysians nominated 'maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' as their most favoured reason for 'set-up of branch' [app. VI.169a]. Most Singaporeans considered 'company to be and to remain competitive on world market' as their best reason for setting up a branch in another country.

On the least preferred reason for 'set-up of branch', the majority of Australians and Singaporeans decided on 'foster international relations' whilst most Malaysians opted for 'access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale'.

Significant differences were found between the approval of Australian and Singaporean respondents toward their reasons for 'set-up of branch'. Australians (mean=5.48) were found to be more well-disposed than Singaporeans (mean=4.85) towards 'set-up of branch' for 'access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale' ($t=2.16$, $df=135$, $p=.02$, one-tailed). Australians (mean=4.79) were also shown to be more approving than Singaporeans (mean=4.04) in considering 'set-up of branch' for 'foster international trade relations' ($t=2.37$, $df=133$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

(V) *Company relocation (Q20)*

The Australian and Malaysian respondents shared most preferred reason for ‘company relocation’ was ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ [app. VI.169b]. The Malaysians also regarded ‘company to be competitive on world market’ as their most preferred reason. Respondents from Singapore regarded ‘access to resources not available in country’ as their best reason for *favouring* ‘company relocation’.

Respondents from all three countries were most agreeable with ‘foster international trade relations’ as their least preferred reason for ‘company relocation’.

There was a significant difference between the approval of respondents toward their reasons for ‘company relocation’. Australians (mean=4.47) were noted to be more in favour than Malaysians (mean=2.92) toward ‘company relocation’ for ‘foster international trade relations’ ($t=2.17$, $df=30$, $p=.02$, one-tailed). Australians (mean=5.84) were shown to be more approving than Singaporeans (mean=4.71) in considering ‘company relocation’ for ‘access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale’ ($t=2.43$, $df=48$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

[2a] **Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country**

(I) *NOT FAVOURING Bringing in foreigners (Q3)*

The majority of respondents from the three countries varied in their most preferred reason for *not favouring* ‘bringing in’ foreigners [app. VI.170].

Australians and Singaporeans were able to agree on ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ as the least of the three reasons. Malaysians decided on ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ as their least reason for *not favouring* ‘bringing in’ foreigners into their country.

(II) NOT FAVOURING Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)

By a small margin, ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ was chosen over ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ by the majority of Singaporeans and Malaysians as their most preferred reason for *not favouring* the ‘hire’ of foreigners ‘already in country’ [app. VI.170]. Most Australians preferred the latter reason.

It was significantly found that Australians (mean=4.97) were more willing than Singaporeans (mean=3.76) *not to favour* ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ because ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ ($t=2.27$, $df=46$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries

(III) NOT FAVOURING Work sent (Q13)

From both Singapore and Malaysia, ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’ was the most desired reason for *not favouring* ‘work sent’ [app. VI.171]. Most Australians selected ‘prefer product to be made locally’ as their best reason for *not favouring* ‘work sent’ to other countries.

The majority of Singaporeans were least for ‘prefer product to be made locally’ whereas most Malaysians considered ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’ least for *not favouring* ‘work sent’. The latter reason was also the Australians’ least for not desiring ‘work sent’ to other countries.

Significant differences were found whereby

- (i) Australians (mean=6.02) were more unwilling than Singaporeans (mean=4.88) *to favour* ‘work sent’ ($t=2.68$, $df=57$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) because of ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’.
- (ii) Australians (mean=5.98) were less likely than Singaporeans (mean=4.88) *to favour* ‘work sent’ ($t=2.32$, $df=57$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) because of ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’.
- (iii) Australians (mean=6.04) felt much stronger than Singaporeans (mean=4.63) about *not favouring* ‘work sent’ ($t=3.24$, $df=56$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) for ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’.

- (iv) Australians (mean=6.04) were more reluctant than Malaysians (mean=5.06) *to favour* ‘work sent’ ($t=2.92$, $df=64$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) owing to ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’.
- (v) Australians (mean=5.87) were more unwilling than Singaporeans (mean=4.38) *to favour* ‘work sent’ ($t=2.80$, $df=58$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) because they ‘prefer product to be made locally’.

These findings exhibit significantly the greater unwillingness on the part of Australians to favour ‘work sent’ for the following four reasons:

- (i) ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’.
- (ii) ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’.
- (iii) ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’.
- (iv) ‘prefer product to be made locally’.

(IV) *NOT FAVOURING Set-up of branch (Q18)*

Ranking for the Singapore country group could only be determined for the most but not least preferred reason because of similarities in responses and mean outputs on the three remaining reasons [app. VI.171]. The majority of Australians and Singaporeans most considered ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’ for *not favouring* ‘set-up of branch’. Most Malaysians regarded ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’ instead.

(V) *NOT FAVOURING Company relocation (Q21)*

The majority of Singaporeans and Malaysians considered ‘effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company’ most for *not* desiring ‘company relocation’ [app. VI.171]. Most Australians chose ‘prefer product to be made locally’ instead.

On the least of reasons, most Singaporeans shared the views of the Australians by nominating ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’ whereas the majority of Malaysians selected ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’ for *not favouring* company relocation to another country.

Significant differences (*Levene's $p < .05$ or unequal variance) were found whereby

- (i) Singaporeans (mean=4.37) were less disagreeable than Australians (mean=6.08) in not *favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=4.82$, $df=22.31$, $p=.00$, one-tailed)* because of 'local community missing out on generation of wealth'.
- (ii) Singaporeans (mean=4.37) were less reluctant than Malaysians (mean=5.34) in not *favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=-2.23$, $df=46$, $p=.02$, one-tailed) because of 'local community missing out on generation of wealth'.
- (iii) Malaysians (mean=5.34) were less unwilling than Australians (mean=6.08) in not *favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=2.44$, $df=37.80$, $p=.01$, one-tailed)* because of 'local community missing out on generation of wealth'.
- (iv) Singaporeans (mean=4.26) felt less stronger than Australians (mean=6.10) about *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=4.30$, $df=21.11$, $p=.00$, one-tailed)* because of 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment'.
- (v) Malaysians (mean=5.18) were less disapproving than Australians (mean=6.10) in *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=2.72$, $df=34.87$, $p=.01$, one-tailed)* because of 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment'.
- (vi) Singaporeans (mean=3.68) were less disagreeable than Australians (mean=6.03) in *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=7.69$, $df=97$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) because of 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community'.
- (vii) Singaporeans (mean=3.68) were less unwilling than Malaysians (mean=5.17) in *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=-3.49$, $df=46$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) because of 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community'.
- (viii) Malaysians (mean=5.17) felt less stronger than Australians (mean=6.03) about *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=2.98$, $df=41.44$, $p=.00$, one-tailed)* because of 'possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community'.
- (ix) Singaporeans (mean=3.79) were less disagreeable than Australians (mean=5.48) in *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=4.28$, $df=98$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) because of 'prefer product to be made locally'.

- (x) Singaporeans (mean=3.79) were less disapproving than Malaysians (mean=4.86) in *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ ($t=-2.08$, $df=46$, $p=.02$, one-tailed) because of ‘prefer product to be made locally’.
- (xi) Singaporeans (mean=4.80) were less unwilling than Australians (mean=6.04) in *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ ($t=3.12$, $df=24.06$, $p=.00$, one-tailed)* because of ‘effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company’.

These results indicate that compared to Australians and Malaysians, Singaporeans were the least disagreeable to the following five reasons for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’:

- (i) ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’.
- (ii) ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’.
- (iii) ‘possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community’.
- (iv) ‘prefer product to be made locally’.
- (v) ‘effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company’.

6.11.4.3 Practice of Foreign Labour Employment - Total Country Sample

[1a] Employment of three categories of foreign labour (Q4, Q9, Q14)

The most popular category of foreign labour ever employed by Singaporean (87%) and Malaysian (79%) companies was ‘foreigners brought in’ whilst that of Australian companies (61%) was ‘foreigners already in country’ [app. VI.172]. ‘Work sent overseas’ was the least employed of the three categories by companies in all three countries. This indicated that respondents’ companies were more willing to employ foreigners within the country than sending work to other countries.

To compare for consistency between FLE undertaken by respondents’ companies and respondents’ FLE preferences [app. VI.166], the skilled and unskilled response percentages for ‘bringing in foreign workers’ were combined and averaged. This was done also with the category of ‘hiring foreign workers already in country’.

Together with ‘work sent’, these gave three identical categories for making comparisons.

Consistency was found between the FLE preferences and three categories of company FLE practices of Australians and Malaysians. Whilst Singaporeans were consistent in their attitudes and company employment practices for ‘bringing in’ and ‘hiring’ foreign workers ‘already in the country’, they were not on ‘work sent’. That is, Singaporean companies employed ‘work sent’ least of all but in terms of preferences, it was favoured most of the three FLE categories.

From app. VI.172, it can be seen that the country with the highest number of companies that had ever ‘brought in’ and ‘hired’ foreign workers ‘already in country’ including sending work to other countries was Singapore. The country registering the largest number of companies that had *never* employed any of the three categories of foreign labour was Australia. In all three countries [app. VI.29, VI.69, VI.109], foreign employment of those already in the country on a *few occasions* had been the most frequent.

Pearson’s chi-square conducted for each of the three categories of FLE and country variable found significant relationships between respondents’ country and those who had (i) ‘brought in foreign workers’ ($\chi^2=47.39$, $df=2$, $p<.001$) and (ii) sent work to other countries ($\chi^2=15.83$, $df=2$, $p<.001$).

[1b] Frequency and numbers of foreign workers ever employed within the country - refer to app. VI.30-31, VI.70-71, VI.110-111, VI.173 (*Q4, Q9*)

Once only

Australia had the most number of respondents’ companies ‘bringing in’ (15) as well as ‘hiring’ foreigners ‘already in the country’ (12) on a *once only* basis. The remaining two countries had no more than five respondents’ companies that had done so for both categories of FLE on this frequency. With the exception of the 2001 foreign workers ‘brought in’ by an Australian company, the numbers employed within the country tended to vary between one to four for Australian and Singaporean companies and between three to forty for Malaysian companies.

On a few occasions

Of the three countries, respondents' companies from Singapore had 'brought in' (21) the most foreigners whilst respondents' companies from Australia had 'hired' the highest number of foreigners 'already in the country' (26) on an occasional basis. This frequency registered the largest number of respondents' companies that had ever employed foreign workers within the country. Of the three countries, companies from Singapore and Malaysia had employed numbers as large as 200 whilst 15 foreign workers were the most ever taken on by companies from Australia.

Regularly

Singaporean companies were shown to have 'brought in' (20) and 'hired' foreigners 'already in country' (15) on a regular basis much more than Australian and Malaysian companies. The numbers taken on were also very much larger, varying from the hundreds to over 2500. With a maximum of forty, Australian companies had the smallest numbers ever employed *regularly*.

[1c] Description of work sent to other countries (Q15)

Services were the most employed of the three main types of 'work sent' to other countries. A total of 37 companies (13 from Australia, 15 from Singapore and 9 from Malaysia) employed 'service' work compared with a total of 27 companies (8 from Australia, 13 from Singapore and 6 from Malaysia) requiring 'manufacturing' work from other countries. Four companies, two from Australia and two from Malaysia, were reported to have sent a combination of 'manufacturing and service' type of work to other countries.

[1d] Personnel, salary and work conditions (Q5, Q10)

Of the five major groups of personnel, 'technical' foreign workers were the majority 'brought in' as well as 'hired whilst already in country' by all three countries [app. VI.32-33, VI.72-73, VI.112-113]. Companies from Australia and

Singapore were reported to have given these workers mostly salary and working conditions stipulated by their respective countries. Companies from Malaysia, on the other hand, provided these workers with mainly conditions in accordance with international market standards.

[2] Sources of foreign labour (Q22)

The prime source of foreign labour from all three countries was the ‘local labour agency’ [app. VI.174]. Australians and Malaysians preferred to secondly, ‘recruit personally from overseas’ and thirdly, use the ‘agency in foreign country’. Singaporeans were more interested on using the ‘agency in foreign country’ before ‘recruiting personally from overseas’.

A significant difference in support was indicated between respondents from Australia and Singapore to source from ‘a labour agency in a foreign country’. Singaporeans (mean=3.92) were found to be more agreeable than Australians (mean=3.23) to using ‘a labour agency in a foreign country’ ($t=-2.39$, $df=127$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

6.11.4.4 Other Foreign Labour Employment considerations - Total Country

Sample

[1] Participants’ residence considerations (Q23b)

The mean outputs indicated not only respondents’ support for living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs but also their willingness to consider employment (as foreign labour) in foreign countries [app. VI.34, VI.74, VI.114].

Those from Malaysia were the most willing whilst those from Australia were the least agreeable of all respondents to consider living in a “foreign” country.

Significant differences established through the Independent Groups T-Test support these findings. Singaporeans (mean=4.41) were more favourable than Australians (mean=3.74) to the idea of living in a foreign country ($t=-2.17$, $df=128.06$, $p=.02$, one-tailed) {Levene’s $p<.05$ or unequal variance}). Malaysians

(mean=4.63) were, however, more willing than Australians (mean=3.74) to the idea of living in a foreign country ($t=-2.45$, $df=142$, $p=.01$, one-tailed). Amongst the respondents, Malaysians were the most in favour of living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs and thereby the group considered most willing to take on employment in foreign countries.

[2] Opinions on ten job selection factors (Q24)

‘Work experience’, ‘educational qualification’, ‘years of work experience’ and ‘age’ were the first top four important job selection factors from all three countries [app. VI.175]. There was no agreement amongst the respondents on the least important of the ten job factors.

Significant differences (*Levene’s $p<.05$ or unequal variance) were found whereby

- (i) Singaporeans (mean=4.28) considered ‘age’ ($t=-2.58$, $df=154$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=3.48).
- (ii) Malaysians (mean=4.40) considered ‘age’ ($t=-2.75$, $df=143$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=3.48).
- (iii) Singaporeans (mean=3.04) considered ‘marital status’ ($t=-2.62$, $df=92.85$, $p=.01$, one-tailed)* to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=2.23).
- (iv) Malaysians (mean=3.09) regarded ‘marital status’ ($t=-2.83$, $df=142$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=2.23).
- (v) Singaporeans (mean=3.75) indicated ‘nationality’ ($t=-2.88$, $df=153$, $p=.00$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=2.84).
- (vi) Malaysians (mean=3.67) nominated ‘nationality’ ($t=-2.47$, $df=143$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=2.84).

- (vii) Singaporeans (mean=3.00) considered 'ethnic identity' ($t=-2.38$, $df=154$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) to be of greater importance as a job selection factor than Australians (mean=2.36).

Overall, the results indicate that 'age' and 'marital status' were greatest importance to Malaysians as job selection factors whilst 'nationality' as a job selection factor was most important to Singaporeans.

[3] Opinions on profit and other company priority items (Q25, Q26)

More than 60 percent of respondents from each country agreed with the profit statement [app. VI.35, VI.75, VI.115]. Respondents from these three countries were also compatible on their most and least reasons for doing so. They chose 'reason for being' and 'a waste of time otherwise' as their most and least reason respectively for agreeing with profit as the 'prime motive for business'.

By comparison, Singaporeans and Malaysians seem to place a far greater emphasis on 'profit' than Australians do [app. VI.176].

Australians rated most 'staff' items related to, for example, their competency, work ethic, and loyalty to be of greater importance than their counterparts from Singapore and Malaysia.

Whilst Malaysians considered customer priority items such as 'good quality' product and service first and second top company priorities, Australians regarded 'good quality service' as their principal company priority item. Both these items, however, were not high on the priority list for Singaporeans. 'Good quality product' was ranked the last item on their company priority list. 'Company's public image' was foremost of the 16 items.

The Independent Groups T-Test was conducted for the 16 company priority items. The results indicated significantly that

- (i) Malaysians (mean=6.28) considered 'profit' ($t=-2.09$, $df=142$, $p=.02$, one-tailed) as a company priority item of greater importance than Australians (mean=5.88).
- (ii) Australians (mean=5.80) considered 'environmental responsibility' ($t=2.54$, $df=94.28$, $p=.01$, one-tailed) {Levene's $p<.05$ or unequal variance} as a company priority item of greater importance than Singaporeans (mean=5.25).

6.11.4.5 Ethics - Total Country Sample

[1] Ethical stance on Foreign Labour Employment and View of Profit (*Q2a, Q2b, Q3, Q7, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q26*)

It can be observed that Australians adopted a deontological stance on FLE, Singaporeans were teleological whilst Malaysians took a teleological stance on *FLE within the country* and ‘set-up of branch’ but a deontological stance on ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’ [app. VI.177a].

Significance differences were found on the ethical stance taken by

- (i) Australians (mean=4.91) and Singaporeans (mean=5.93) toward bringing in the foreign unskilled ($t=-2.514$, $df=65$, $p=.007$, one-tailed).
- (ii) Australians (mean=4.91) and Malaysians (mean=5.82) toward bringing in the foreign unskilled ($t=-2.118$, $df=63$, $p=.019$, one-tailed).
- (iii) Australians (mean=5.30) and Singaporeans (mean=4.08) toward *not favouring* foreigners ‘brought in’ ($t=2.511$, $df=49$, $p=.008$, one-tailed).
- (iv) Australians (mean=4.90) and Singaporeans (mean=3.82) toward *not favouring* the ‘hiring of foreigners already in country’ ($t=2.164$, $df=46$, $p=.018$, one-tailed).
- (v) Australians (mean=5.94) and Singaporeans (mean=4.69) toward *not favouring* ‘work sent’ ($t=3.001$, $df=59$, $p=.002$, one-tailed).
- (vi) Singaporeans (mean=4.69) and Malaysians (mean=5.53) toward *not favouring* ‘work sent’ ($t=-1.897$, $df=22$, $p=.036$, one-tailed).
- (vii) Australians (mean=5.94) and Singaporeans (mean=4.39) toward *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ ($t=6.156$, $df=101$, $p=.000$, one-tailed).
- (viii) Australians (mean=5.94) and Malaysians (mean=5.21) toward *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ ($t=3.347$, $df=109$, $p=.001$, one-tailed).
- (ix) Singaporeans (mean=4.39) and Malaysians (mean=5.21) toward *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ ($t=-2.111$, $df=48$, $p=.020$, one-tailed).

These results indicate that Singaporeans were significantly the most favourable toward ‘bringing in the foreign unskilled’ whilst Australians significantly held the strongest ethical opinions on *not favouring* ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’.

Even though Singaporeans were the most teleological in their ethical stances on FLE, Malaysians were observed to consider profit the most important of the three countries [app. VI.177a]. Australians exhibited more consistency. They were the most deontological and also had the lowest profit mean of the three country samples.

Pearson's chi-square conducted for the country variable found significant relationships between

- (i) Australians' view of profit (mean=5.88) and their ethical stance (mean=5.94) on *not favouring* 'work sent' ($\chi^2=75.281$, $df=52$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) Singaporeans' view of profit (mean=6.16) and their ethical stance (mean=5.24) on 'bringing in the foreign skilled' ($\chi^2=108.218$, $df=80$, $p<.05$).
- (iii) Malaysians' view of profit (mean=6.28) and their ethical stance (mean=5.48) on 'set-up of branch' ($\chi^2=49.251$, $df=34$, $p<.05$).

6.11.5 TOTAL RACE/ETHNIC AND RELIGIOUS SAMPLES

A cross-comparative analysis of the total race/ethnic and religious samples, which consist of Anglo-Celtics/Caucasians (CA), Chinese (CH), Christians (CR) and Buddhists (B) from Australia, Singapore and Malaysia and Malay Muslims (MM) from Malaysia will be conducted in this final section. It will take note of the similarities and differences between the six race/ethnic (CA and CH) sub-groups and their seven religious (CR, B and MM) counterparts in the three countries.

6.11.5.1 Attitudes of Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (CA), Chinese (CH), Christian (CR), Buddhist (B) and Malay Muslim (MM) Sub-groups

- [1] **Seven categories of Foreign Labour Employment by rank order (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)**

Like the ACA, ACH and MCH sub-groups, ACR, MCR, AB, SB, MB and MM sub-groups were more supportive of FLE *within the country*. The SCR sub-

group followed in the preferences of the SCA, SCH and MCA sub-groups who were more pro *FLE in other countries* [app.VI.178, VI.189, VI.199, VI.210, VI.150].

With regards to *FLE within the country*, skilled was favoured over unskilled foreign workers by all (race/ethnic and religious) sub-groups except the MM sub-group. This sub-group nominated 'bringing in the unskilled' (86%) as their first preference, followed by 'hiring the unskilled already in country' (83%), 'hiring the skilled already in country' (80%) and 'bringing in the skilled' (67%).

With regards to *FLE in other countries*, the rank preferences of the seven religious sub-groups were in one accord with those of the six race/ethnic sub-groups. 'Set-up of branch' was preferred to 'work sent' and 'company relocation'. ACH had 'set-up of branch' as their chief FLE preference. MCA and SCH agreed with SCR, MB and MM on 'set-up of branch' as one of their principal FLE preferences.

'Set-up of branch' together with 'bringing in the skilled' and 'hiring the skilled already in country' were the three most popular choices of FLE amongst all sub-groups except the MM sub-group, which preferred unskilled to skilled foreign workers.

'Company relocation' was the least preferred FLE choice of SB, MCH, MCR, MB, MM and Australian sub-groups. SCA, SCH and SCR regarded 'hiring the unskilled already in country' least of their FLE preferences whilst MCA nominated both these two categories their least preferred FLE.

Like the ACA sub-group, ACR and SCR sub-groups managed the same rank preferences of their respective main group [app. VI.166]. SB and MM sub-groups indicated the most variations in FLE preferences from their main group.

Pearson's chi-square tests found significance between the following race/ethnic and religious sub-groups and their FLE preferences.

- (i) CA and those who favoured 'work sent' ($\chi^2=10.81$, $df=2$, $p<.01$) and 'company relocation' ($\chi^2=9.93$, $df=2$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) CH and those who favoured 'work sent' ($\chi^2=13.25$, $df=2$, $p<.01$) and 'company relocation' ($\chi^2=17.32$, $df=2$, $p<.001$).
- (iii) CR and those who favoured 'work sent' ($\chi^2=24.22$, $df=2$, $p<.001$) and 'company relocation' ($\chi^2=23.72$, $df=2$, $p<.001$).

[2] Three business scenario options (Q23a)

Consistency was observed among all 13 sub-groups in their ranking of the three business scenario options [app. VI.178-179, VI.189-190, VI.199-200, VI.210-211, VI.150-151]. This consistency was also demonstrated in their preferences for *FLE in other countries*.

6.11.5.2 Reasons for Foreign Labour Employment of Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (CA), Chinese (CH), Christian (CR), Buddhist (B) and Malay Muslim (MM) Sub-groups

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(1a) *Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)*

‘Skill gap/shortage’, ‘specialist positions’ and ‘skill transfer/exchange’ were the most favoured of the six reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ [app. VI.180, VI.191, VI.201, VI.212, VI.152]. ‘Skill gap/shortage’ was the primary reason regarded by ACR and SCR as well as by ACA and SCA sub-groups. MCR and SB had their best reason - ‘specialist positions’ - the same as MCA and SCH. AB, MM and MCH had ‘skill transfer/exchange’ as their most preferred reason for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’. MB considered ‘specialist positions’ and ‘skill transfer/ exchange’ whilst ACH nominated all three reasons as their first reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’.

‘Senior executive positions’ and ‘other managerial positions’ were the least considered of the six reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’. ‘Senior executive positions’ was the last reason nominated by ACR and ACA whereas SB, MCR, MB, MM and MCH placed ‘other managerial positions’ lowest in their preferences. AB and ACH regarded both these categories as least preferred reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’. Other least preferred reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ were ‘skill transfer/exchange’ (SCR and SCH), ‘specialist positions’ (SCA) and ‘competing on global market’ (MCH).

SB was the only sub-group, which did not have its best and least reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’ compatible with those of its main group [app. VI.168].

(Ib) *Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)*

Most respondents nominated ‘meet short supply in industry’ as the better of the two reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign unskilled’ [app. VI.180, VI.191, VI.201, VI.212, VI.152]. ACR, SCR, MCR, MB, MM were in agreement with their ACA, ACH, SCA, MCA and MCH counterparts on ‘meet short supply in industry’ as the better reason. AB and SB sub-groups followed the same preferences of the SCH sub-group and chose ‘take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ instead.

(II) *Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)*

Majority of respondents considered ‘best person for the job’ foremost for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ [app. VI.180, VI.191, VI.201, VI.212, VI.152]. ACR, SCR, MCR, MB as well as their ACA, SCA, SCH, MCA and MCH counterparts felt this was the *best* of the six reasons. AB and ACH preferred ‘PR is the same as a local’ whereas SB and MM chose ‘willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ instead.

‘Cultural diversity is good for the company’ was regarded least of the six reasons for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ by most respondents. ACR, SB, MCR, MM corresponded with ACA and SCH on this reason being the least of the six reasons for ‘hiring foreigners already in country’. Other least considered reasons were ‘legitimate immigration clearance to work in country’ (SCR and SCA), ‘ability to fit in with local environment’ (AB and ACH), ‘PR is the same as a local’ (MB and MCH) and ‘willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do’ (MCA).

ACR, ACA, MCR and SCH were the only sub-groups that had their best and least reasons similar to that of their respective main group [app. VI.168]. Conversely, AB and ACH did not share the best and least reasons of their main group.

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries

(III) Work sent (Q13)

Of the six reasons *favouring* ‘work sent’, ‘in keeping with principle of “best person or business” for the job’ was considered by most respondents [app. VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a, VI.153]. ACR, AB, MCR concurred with ACA and ACH on this reason as first for ‘work sent’. ‘Company to be competitive on world market’ (SB, MB and MCH) and ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ (SCR and SCH) were the next two most favoured reasons for ‘work sent’.

‘Foster international trade relations’ was the least considered of the six reasons for ‘work sent’ by the majority. Only the MM and SCA sub-groups did not agree on this reason as their least for ‘work sent’. MM nominated ‘foster international trade relations’ as the other of their primary reasons for ‘work sent’. SCA chose ‘in keeping with principle of “best person or business” for the job’ least for favouring ‘work sent’.

MCA and all four Australian sub-groups managed the same best and least reasons of their respective main groups [app. VI.169a]. The reasons chosen by MM and SCA were the most different from their respective main group.

(IV) Set-up of branch (Q18)

‘Maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ followed by ‘company to be and to remain competitive on world market’ were the two most popular reasons for *favouring* ‘set-up of branch’ [app. VI.181a, VI.192a, VI.203a, VI.214a, VI.153]. SB, MCR, MB, MM, MCH and all four Australian sub-groups regarded ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ as their first reason for setting up a branch in another country. SCR concurred with the SCA, SCH and MCA sub-groups that ‘company to be and to remain competitive on world market’ was the best of the five reasons for ‘set-up of branch’.

As it was for ‘work sent’, the majority of respondents considered ‘foster international trade relations’ least for favouring ‘set-up of branch’. ACR, AB, SCR, SB, MB conformed to the choice of ‘foster international trade relations’ made by

ACA, SCA, SCH and MCH as the least of the five reasons. ‘Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale’ (MCR, MCA and ACH) and ‘access to resources not available in country’ (MM) were also two other least considered reasons for ‘set-up of branch’.

ACR, AB, ACA, SCR, SCA, SCH and MCR were the only sub-groups that had their best and least reasons the same as their respective main group [app. VI.169a]. ACH, MB, MM and MCH managed the best reason whilst SB and MCA did so on the least of reasons for ‘set-up of branch’.

(V) *Company relocation (Q21)*

With regards to the best reasons *favouring* ‘company relocation’, ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ was the more popular choice to ‘company to be competitive on world market’ and ‘access to resources not available in country’ [app. VI.181b, VI.192b, VI.203b, VI.214b, VI.153]. MCR, AB, ACA concurred with their MCA and ACH counterparts on ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ as their best reason for ‘company relocation’. SCR, SCA and MB nominated ‘company to be competitive on world market’ whereas SB and SCH preferred ‘access to resources not available in country’ instead.

As in the case of ‘work sent’ and ‘set-up of branch’, ‘foster international trade relations’ was also regarded as least of the reasons for ‘company relocation’ by the majority. Only the MM and MCH sub-groups did not choose the same least of reasons for ‘company relocation’. As they did for ‘work sent’, MM selected ‘foster international trade relations’ as one of their primary reasons for ‘company relocation’.

SB, SCH and all four Australian sub-groups were in step with the best and least of reasons by their respective main group [app. VI.169b]. The Malaysian sub-groups were the least congruent with the reasons chosen by their main group.

[2a] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country

(I) NOT FAVOURING Bringing in foreigners (Q3)

‘Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs’ was regarded foremost of the three reasons for *not favouring* ‘bringing in foreigners’ [app. VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215, VI.154]. MCR and all four Australian sub-groups chose this reason over ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ (SB, SCA, SCH and MCA) and ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ (MB and MM).

Of the three reasons, ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ was least regarded for *not favouring* ‘bringing in foreigners’ by the majority. MM and MCH selected ‘burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs’ whilst MB preferred ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ as the least of the three reasons.

The best and least reasons by SB, SCA, SCH, MB and all four Australian sub-groups were the same as those nominated by their respective main groups [app. VI.170]. SCR, MCR and MCA sub-groups did not concur with their main group on their best and least reasons for *not favouring* ‘bringing in foreigners’.

(II) NOT FAVOURING Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)

Responses toward both reasons for *not favouring* ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ were equally strong [app. VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215, VI.154]. All Australian sub-groups favoured ‘unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system’ most of all whilst most Singaporean sub-groups preferred ‘number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced’ for *not favouring* ‘hiring foreigners already in country’. Among the Malaysian sub-groups, MCR and MCA regarded the former whereas MB, MM and MCH were more for the latter reason.

MCR and MCA were the only sub-groups that deviated from the choices made by their main group [app. VI.170].

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries

(III) NOT FAVOURING Work sent (Q13)

Even though all four reasons were chosen as *best* reasons, ‘local community missing out on generation of wealth’ was the most popular choice of the majority for *not favouring* ‘work sent’ [app. VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155]. SCR, SB, MCR, AB were in agreement with their ACA and MCH counterparts that this was their chief reason for *not favouring* ‘work sent’.

‘Prefer product to be made locally’ was regarded least of the four reasons *not favouring* ‘work sent’ by most respondents. MCR, AB, SB were together with ACH, SCH and MCH on ‘prefer product to be made locally’ as the last of the four reasons for *not favouring* ‘work sent’.

SCH and MM were notably the only sub-groups who maintained the best and least reasons of their respective main group [app. VI.171]. ACH, AB, SCR, MCA and MB did not conform to both choices made by their respective main groups.

(IV) NOT FAVOURING Set-up of branch (Q18)

Of the four reasons contested as *best* for *not favouring* ‘set-up of branch’, ‘loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment’ was the most nominated [app. VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155]. SCH and SB ranked this as their first reason whilst ACA, ACH, AB and MB regarded it as one of their chief reasons for *not favouring* ‘set-up of branch’.

As the reason was for *not favouring* ‘work sent’, ‘prefer product to be made locally’ was also regarded least of the four reasons for *not favouring* ‘set-up of branch’ by the majority. ACA, ACR, MCH and MCR considered this reason least of all the four.

No responses were received from SCA and MCA respondents. SCH was the only sub-group that had its best and least reasons the same as its main group [app. VI.171]. ACR was the only sub-group, which did not concur with its main group’s choices.

(V) NOT FAVOURING Company relocation (Q21)

The majority selected ‘effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company’ as tops for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ [app. VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.216, VI.155]. SB, MCR, MB, MM nominated this reason as their first of the five reasons *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ together with ACA, SCH and MCH.

Once again, ‘prefer product to be made locally’ was ranked least of the five reasons for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ by most respondents. SCR and MB agreed with ACH, SCH and MCH that this reason was the last of the five for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’.

MCR was the only sub-group that maintained its main group’s best and least reasons for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’ [app. VI.171]. SCA, SCR and all four Australian sub-groups were not able to agree with their respective main group’s choices.

6.11.5.3 Practice of Foreign Labour Employment - Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian

(CA), Chinese (CH), Christian (CR), Buddhist (B) and Malay Muslim (MM) Sub-groups

[1a] Employment of three categories of foreign labour (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Singaporean (except SB respondent companies) and Malaysian companies shared similar employment of the three categories of foreign labour by having ‘foreigners brought in’ as the most and ‘work sent overseas’ as the least employed [app. VI.184, VI.195, VI.206, VI.217, VI.156]. SCA and MCA respondent companies reported similar employment of ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ after ‘foreigners brought in’.

SB respondent companies ranked ‘foreigners already in country’ as the most employed, followed by ‘foreigners brought in’ and ‘work sent overseas’. This experience was observed to be compatible with all sub-groups from Australia. By employing ‘foreigners already in country’ most of all, SB respondent companies

were the only ones that deviated from the experiences of its main respondent group of companies [app. VI.172].

Comparisons between respondents' FLE preferences and the three categories of FLE experiences of respondent companies show compatibility with two race/ethnic (ACA and MCH) and four religious (ACR, AB, MCR and MB) respondent companies. The most inconsistencies were noted with MCA and all four Singaporean sub-groups. 'Work sent' was the least employed by these five respondent companies even though the preference for it was highest of the three categories of FLE among the respondents.

MCA had the highest percentage of companies to employ all three categories of foreign labour. ACR reported the highest percentage of companies that had *never* employed any of the three categories of foreign labour.

Of the 13 sub-groups, MM had the highest percentage of companies for 'foreigners brought in' (100%). SB had the highest percentage of companies for 'foreigners already in country' (88%) whilst MCA had the highest percentage of companies for 'work sent overseas' (73%).

In terms of frequency, Australian sub-group of companies reported employing 'foreigners already in country' *on a few occasions* most of all [app. VI.185, VI.195, VI.206, VI.217, VI.156]. Malaysian sub-group of companies tended to employ 'foreigners brought in' whilst Singaporean sub-group of companies were inclined to utilise both these categories on this frequency most.

[1b] Frequency and numbers of foreign workers ever employed within the country - refer to app. VI.38-39, VI.46-47, VI.54-55, VI.62-63, VI.78-79, VI.86-87, VI.94-95, VI.102-103, VI.118-119, VI.126-127, VI.134-135, VI.142-143, VI.157-158 (*Q4, Q9*)

Once only

Of the 13 sub-groups of companies, ACR and ACA respondent companies recorded the most number of 'foreigners brought in' (2001) on the frequency *once only*. MM respondent companies had employed the most number of 'foreigners already in country' (40) on this frequency.

On a few occasions

The greatest numbers of foreigners ‘brought in’ (200) were by SCH, SCR and MM respondent companies whilst those ‘already in country’ (120) were employed most by SCH and SCR respondent companies on this frequency.

Regularly

SCH and SB respondent companies had the largest number of foreigners ‘brought in’ (300) and employed whilst ‘already in country’ (2500) on this frequency.

[1c] Description of work sent to other countries (Q15)

As described in sections on respective main country group and total country sample.

[1d] Personnel, salary and work conditions (Q5, Q10)

‘Technical’ personnel were the primary foreign workers employed by most companies [app. VI.40-41, VI.48-49, VI.56-57, VI.64-65, VI.80-81, VI.88-89, VI.96-97, VI.104-105, VI.120-121, VI.128-129, VI.136-137, VI.144-145, VI.159-160].

There were seven exceptions. AB and MCA respondent companies ‘brought in’ ‘managerial’ foreign workers most of all. In the majority, MCR respondent companies ‘brought in’ foreigners for managerial as well as technical positions whilst SCA respondent companies employed those ‘already in country’ for these positions. AB respondent companies had employed mostly foreigners ‘already in country’ for technical and administrative positions. MM respondent companies were the only ones that considered foreigners, ‘brought in’ and employed whilst ‘already in country’, for ‘other’ (eg. production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations) positions most of all.

In the main, salary and work conditions of foreign ‘technical’ personnel in Australia and Singapore were in accordance with their respective country’s labour regulations whilst those in Malaysia were guided by international market standards. The exceptions were foreign ‘technical’ personnel from ACH, ACR, SCA, SCR and MCH respondent companies, which had salary and work conditions of international market rates as well as those stipulated by their respective country’s labour laws.

‘Managerial’ foreign workers engaged by AB, SCA, MCA and MCR respondent companies were given primarily international market standards type of salary and work conditions. MM respondent companies that employed foreigners in ‘other’ positions provided them with salary and work conditions accorded by Malaysia’s labour regulations.

[2] Sources of foreign labour (Q22)

‘Local labour agency’ was ranked tops of the three sources of foreign labour by the majority [app. VI.186, VI.197, VI.208, VI.219, VI.161]. ACR, SCR, SB, MCR, MB together with ACA, ACH, SCH and MCH indicated this source to be their first choice for sourcing foreign workers.

‘Recruit personally from overseas’ was ranked second and ‘agency in foreign country’ was the last considered of the three sources. MCA, AB and MM nominated ‘recruit personally from overseas’ whilst SCA chose ‘agency in foreign country’ foremost for sourcing foreign workers.

ACA, ACH, ACR, SCR and MCR were the only sub-groups that had all three preferences of foreign labour sources the same as their respective main group [app. VI.174]. MCA was the only sub-group that had all three preferences different from those of their main group’s.

6.11.5.4 Other Foreign Labour Employment considerations of Anglo-Celtic/ Caucasian (CA), Chinese (CH), Christian (CR), Buddhist (B) and Malay Muslim (MM) Sub-groups

[1] Participants' residence considerations (Q23b)

Of the 13 sub-groups, SCA (mean=6.20) was the most whilst MM (mean=3.43) was the least supportive of living in a foreign country [app. VI.42, VI.50, VI.58, VI.66, VI.82, VI.90, VI.98, VI.106, VI.122, VI.130, VI.138, VI.146, VI.162].

In their respective race/ethnic sub-groups, SCA (mean=6.20) and ACH (mean=4.78) were the most whereas ACA (mean=3.58) and MCH (mean=4.00) were the least willing to consider living in another country with a foreign culture.

In their respective religious sub-groups, MCR (mean=4.92) and MB (mean=4.56) were the most whilst ACR (mean=3.48) and SB (mean=3.63) were the least for living in a foreign country.

[2] Opinions on ten job selection factors (Q24)

Of the ten, 'work experience' was the prime job selection factor of the majority [app. VI.187, VI.198, VI.209, VI.220, VI.163]. MCR and MM were the only sub-groups that did not consider 'work experience' but instead nominated 'educational qualification' as their chief factor for job selection.

All three main groups had ranked 'work experience' as first, followed by 'educational qualification' and 'years of work experience' [app. VI.175]. ACR, SCR, MCH and the three CA sub-groups were the only ones that maintained these rankings.

[3] Opinions on profit and other company priority items (Q25, Q26)

Of the 13 sub-groups, MM had one hundred percent and the highest percentage of respondents who considered that "profit is the prime motive of business" [app. VI.43, VI.51, VI.59, VI.67, VI.83, VI.91, VI.99, VI.107, VI.123,

VI.131, VI.139, VI.147, VI.164]. AB had the lowest percentage of respondents (47%) that agreed with the profit statement.

All sub-groups except ACH, AB, MCA and MM thought of 'reason for being' as the best of the four reasons for agreeing with the profit statement. SB considered 'reason for being' and cannot keep going otherwise' equally as their primary reasons for agreeing with the profit statement.

In relation to the other company priority items, profit was regarded as most important by MM (100%, mean=6.71) [app. VI.188, VI.199, VI.210, VI.221, VI.165]. This sub-group had nominated profit to be the most important of the 16 company priority items. Of the 13 sub-groups, those from Australia regarded profit least important. AB (100%, mean=5.19) was found to consider profit the least important of the 13 sub-groups.

Of the 16 company priority items, 'good quality service' was the most important for the majority. ACR, AB, SCR, SB agreed with their ACA, ACH and SCA counterparts that 'good quality service' was the chief of the 16 company priority items. 'Good quality product' was considered the second most important of the 16 items. The four main Malaysian (MCA, MCH, MCR and MB) sub-groups nominated this item as their first of the sixteen. Another top company priority item was 'teamwork', which was ranked first by SCH.

Australian and Malaysian (except MM) sub-groups were observed to correspond with their respective main group on the primary company priority item [app. VI.176]. All four sub-groups from Singapore did not agree with their main group's top choice of 'company's public image'.

The following seven company priority items were listed as least important:

- [i] maximising shareholder returns (ACA, ACR, AB);
- [ii] community-mindedness (SCH, MCH, MB);
- [iii] good quality product (SCA, SCR);
- [iv] product development (MCA, MCR);
- [v] company capital's capital investments (ACH);
- [vi] staff well being (SB);
- [vii] staff loyalty (MM).

6.11.5.5 Ethics of Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian (CA), Chinese (CH), Christian (CR), Buddhist (B) and Malay Muslim (MM) Sub-groups

[1] Ethical stance on Foreign Labour Employment and View of Profit (Q2a, Q2b, Q3, Q7, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q26)

Of the 13 sub-groups, one religious (SCR) and three race/ethnic (SCA, SCH, MCA) sub-groups were observed to be teleological on all six categories of FLE [app. VI.177a-177b). No sub-groups were found to be completely deontological.

Sub-groups from Singapore (three) were most in line with the ethical stances taken by their main group whereas those from Australia (four) and Malaysia (four) were most out of line. MCR was the only Malaysian sub-group whose ethical stances were compatible with those of its main group.

The following show the significant differences found on the ethical stances adopted by various race/ethnic (CA and CH) sub-groups.

- (i) ACA (mean=5.09) and SCA (mean=3.50) toward *not favouring* foreigners 'brought in' ($t=1.969$, $df=29$, $p=.03$, one-tailed).
- (ii) ACA (mean=5.99) and SCA (mean=2.87) toward *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=6.843$, $df=58$, $p=.00$, one-tailed).
- (iii) ACA (mean=5.99) and MCA (mean=4.75) toward *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=3.387$, $df=60$, $p=.001$, one-tailed).
- (iv) SCA (mean=2.87) and MCA (mean=4.75) toward *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=-2.755$, $df=6$, $p=.017$, one-tailed).
- (v) ACH (mean=5.37) and SCH (mean=4.59) toward 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.377$, $df=57$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).
- (vi) ACH (mean=5.37) and MCH (mean=4.66) toward 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=1.865$, $df=30$, $p=.04$, one-tailed).
- (vii) ACH (mean=5.91) and SCH (mean=5.39) toward 'set-up of branch' ($t=2.001$, $df=56$, $p=.03$, one-tailed).
- (viii) ACH (mean=5.57) and SCH (mean=4.00) toward *not favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.215$, $df=18$, $p=.02$, one-tailed).
- (ix) ACH (mean=5.57) and MCH (mean=3.90) toward *not favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($t=2.076$, $df=10$, $p=.03$, one-tailed).

- (x) ACH (mean=5.19) and SCH (mean=5.41) toward 'work sent' ($t=2.121$, $df=16$, $p=.03$, one-tailed).
- (xi) SCH (mean=5.41) and MCH (mean=5.44) toward 'work sent' ($t=-2.095$, $df=12$, $p=.03$, one-tailed).
- (xii) ACH (mean=6.33) and SCH (mean=5.30) toward 'company relocation' ($t=2.379$, $df=30$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

These results indicate that

- (i) ACA held the strongest opinion on *not favouring* 'company relocation' among the CA sub-groups.
- (ii) ACH held the strongest opinion on *favouring* as well as *not favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country' among the CH sub-groups.
- (iii) MCH felt the strongest on 'work sent' among the CH sub-groups.

The following are the significant differences found on the ethical stances embraced by various religious (CR and B) sub-groups.

- (i) ACR (mean=5.98) and MCR (mean=4.20) toward 'company relocation' ($t=2.426$, $df=9$, $p=.02$, one-tailed).
- (ii) SCR (mean=5.35) and MCR (mean=4.20) toward 'company relocation' ($t=2.144$, $df=17$, $p=.02$, one-tailed).
- (iii) ACR (mean=5.57) and SCR (mean=3.50) toward *not favouring* the bringing in of foreigners ($t=2.817$, $df=22$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).
- (iv) ACR (mean=5.28) and S CR (mean=3.38) toward *not favouring* the hiring of foreigners already in the country ($t=3.472$, $df=22$, $p=.001$, one-tailed).
- (v) ACR (mean=6.04) and SCR (mean=4.22) toward *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=6.200$, $df=60$, $p=.000$, one-tailed).
- (vi) ACR (mean=6.04) and MCR (mean=4.75) toward *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($t=4.070$, $df=60$, $p=.000$, one-tailed).
- (vii) AB (mean=4.58) and MB (mean=5.46) toward 'work sent' ($t=-2.678$, $df=19$, $p=.01$, one-tailed).

These results indicate that among the Christians, ACR felt the strongest for *favouring* and *not favouring* 'company relocation'.

Of the 13 sub-groups, MM had the highest profit mean (6.71) but it was not the most teleological [app. VI.177a-177b]. While it held the highest profit mean, it was also the most deontological of the five Malaysian sub-groups. In similar vein, AB had the lowest profit mean (5.19) but was not the most deontological of the 13 sub-groups. While it recorded the lowest profit mean, it was also the most teleological of the four Australian sub-groups.

Among the four Australian sub-groups, ACA and ACR reported the highest means for profit (5.92). ACR, followed by ACA, were observed to be the most deontological of Australian respondents on FLE.

Among the four Singaporean sub-groups, SB had the highest profit mean (6.24) but it was the least teleological.

These observances seem to suggest that these views concerning profit did not correspond with the ethical stances. MCR was the exception to this pattern of observances. Although it had the lowest profit mean (6.00) of the five Malaysian sub-groups, it was neither the most teleological nor the most deontological.

Pearson's chi-square found significant relationships between

- (i) ACA's view of profit (mean=5.92) and their ethical stance (mean=5.99) on *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($\chi^2=71.322$, $df=52$, $p<.05$).
- (ii) SCH's view of profit (mean=6.16) and their ethical stance (mean=5.90) on 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' ($\chi^2=32.865$, $df=18$, $p<.05$).
- (iii) ACR's view of profit (mean=5.92) and their ethical stance (mean=4.63) on 'hiring foreigners already in country' ($\chi^2=138.367$, $df=96$, $p<.05$).
- (iv) ACRs' view of profit (mean=5.92) and their ethical stance (mean=5.90) on *not favouring* 'work sent' ($\chi^2=74.308$, $df=52$, $p<.05$).

6.12 SUMMARY

The three different methodologies and empirical findings of the research were discussed in this chapter in three separate parts. Part One was on the exploratory qualitative interview sample made up of Australian managers randomly selected from 36 Australian-owned Melbourne-based companies. Part Two dealt with the case study of two Singaporean-born expatriates residing in Melbourne and Part Three

concentrated on the quantitative survey sample of 203 respondents from three different countries, two different race/ethnic groupings and three different religious denominations.

Summations of the empirical results from the first two samples were presented in this chapter. The summation of the empirical results for the quantitative survey sample will be carried out in the chapter following and will include comparisons of key findings drawn from the qualitative interview and case study samples.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The empirical results of the three samples (interview, case study and survey) will be summed up in this chapter within the framework of the research questions and hypotheses (Sections 5.7-5.8), which had been formulated to meet the three objectives of the thesis (Section 1.4).

Discussions will concentrate mainly on the empirical findings from the quantitative survey sample and relate to the attitudes, reasons, company employment practices and ethics pertaining to FLE as well as its other considerations such as job selection factors and profit. Crosschecks for data consistency will also take place between respondents' attitudes and the practices of their companies and between their attitudes and ethical stances on FLE. Comparisons will be made with the three country, six race/ethnic and seven religious samples.

Viewpoints of the 36 Australian respondents from the (qualitative) interview sample (Part One) and the two Singaporean respondents from the case study sample (Part Two) will be included for cross-data reliability checks on their congruency with viewpoints of the respondents from the respective country survey samples (Part Three).

7.2 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT– ATTITUDES AND PRACTICE

Do respondents' attitudes toward each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

The tables [app. VI.28, VI.68, VI.108, VI.36, VI.44, VI.52, VI.60, VI.76, VI.84, VI.92, VI.100, VI.116 VI.124, VI.132, VI.140, VI.150] indicate that survey respondents' attitudes toward each of the seven categories of FLE do differ by the country, race/ethnic and religious group they represent.

Comparisons by country indicated that survey respondents from Australia and Malaysia were more favourable toward *FLE within the country* than *FLE in other countries*. Singaporeans were, on the other hand, more pro-*FLE in other countries*.

Further cross-comparisons by race/ethnic and by religious sub-groups revealed small differences. The SCA, SCH, SCR and MCA were the only sub-groups that favoured foreign employment *in other countries* more than *within the country*. In other words, whilst Singaporeans might appear to favour *FLE in other countries* more than *FLE within the country*, this was only marginal.

Singapore, unlike Australia and Malaysia, is undoubtedly constrained in the number of foreign workers it can employ within the country by its small land area [app. III.1]. Chew and Chew (1995) had suggested that because of the limits imposed by its land and population size, the industries in Singapore could not depend solely on the domestic market. Hence, with its government's push to expand and move labour-intensive operations to regional countries, *FLE in other countries* has in all likelihood made a significant contribution to Singapore's continued economic prosperity and inadvertently brought on the more favourable attitudes toward employment of foreign workers *in other countries*.

Differences in rank preferences were observed amongst the seven categories of FLE but by and large, similarities tended to prevail with survey respondents' attitudes in the two broad classifications of *FLE within the country* and *FLE in other countries*.

Except for MM who preferred unskilled to skilled foreign workers for *within* their country, survey respondents were generally very favourable toward skilled as compared with unskilled FLE *within the country*. From the Australian respondents in the interview sample, it was learnt that the demand for skilled labour increases with each advance made in technology. Skilled labour refers to the highly skilled as well as to the multi-skilled.

Singaporeans preferred to 'bring in the foreign skilled' whereas Australians and Malaysians favoured 'hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' most of all. It was significantly found that Australian (41-50 years) and Malaysian (31-40 years) survey respondents who favoured 'hiring the foreign skilled already in country' were middle-aged.

Whether ‘brought in’ or ‘hired whilst already in the country’, skilled foreign labour was the number one preference by all survey respondents except ACH and MM.

SCA, SCH, SCR and MCA were most disapproving of the foreign unskilled and nominated ‘hiring the foreign unskilled already in country’ least favoured of the seven categories of FLE.

The preferences for skilled over unskilled foreign labour are consistent with those found among the Australian interview sample of respondents and those of the Singaporean case study of respondents. The preference of the Australian majority for ‘hiring foreigners already in the country’ to ‘bringing’ them in was also similarly reflected in both the interview and survey samples. Likewise, the unfavourable attitudes toward ‘hiring the foreign unskilled already in country’ was observed between the Singaporean case study and survey respondents.

Preferences for the three categories of *FLE in other countries* were first for ‘set-up of branch’, second for ‘work sent’ and third for ‘company relocation’. Together with employment of skilled foreign labour *within the country*, ‘set-up of branch’ was consistently one of the three top preferences whilst ‘company relocation’ or ‘hiring the unskilled already in country’ was the least preferred category of FLE. ACH were the only respondents who considered ‘set-up of branch’ as number one and well ahead of *FLE within the country*.

These findings are congruent with those found on Australian respondents in the interview sample. The majority preferred *FLE within the country* (77% ‘hiring foreigners already in country’ and 71% ‘bringing foreigners in’) to sending work to other countries (38%) and was least in favour of Australian companies relocating to another country (23%).

H1: In regards to the attitudes of respondents toward the different categories of FLE, national differences will be stronger than differences between race/ethnicity and between religions.

Regression analysis was conducted between survey respondents’ attitudes toward the various categories of FLE and their respective country, race/ethnicity and religion. Significant differences were found only between these cultural variables and attitudes toward ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’. Support for H1 was

established for ‘work sent’ but not for ‘company relocation’ whereby it was significantly determined that among those who favoured

- (i) ‘work sent’ ($F_{5,192}=2.49$, $p<.05$, Adjusted $R^2=.04$), country (β .219, $p<.006$) differences were stronger than race/ethnic differences found among CA (β .266, $p<.03$) and CH (β .243, $p<.03$).
- (ii) ‘company relocation’ ($F_{5,191}=4.07$, $p<.01$, Adjusted $R^2=.07$), race/ethnic differences found for CH (β .354, $p<.002$) were the strongest. That is, they were greater than those found for CA (β .294, $p<.02$) and those found by country (β .178, $p<.02$) and religion among CR (β -.233, $p<.01$) and B (β -.216, $p<.02$) sub-groups.

Do respondents’ attitudes toward each business scenario option differ by their cultural sub-grouping? Do respondents’ attitudes on the three business scenarios differ from their attitudes on the equivalent categories of FLE?

Survey responses concerning attitudes toward each business scenario option were the only ones to show homogeneity not only from among the three country groups but also from amongst the 13 cultural sub-groups [app. VI.167, VI.179, VI.190, VI.201, VI.212, VI.151]. These attitudes paralleled survey respondents’ attitudes toward the three categories of *FLE in other countries* whereby ‘set-up of branch’ was the most favoured and ‘company relocation’ was the least favoured option.

Do the company’s FLE practices differ from the respondents’ views toward the equivalent categories of FLE?

Of the three countries, Singapore had the highest employment of the three categories of foreign labour - ‘foreigners brought in’, ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ [app. VI.172]. Australia, on the other hand, indicated the lowest employment of these three categories.

Australians and Malaysians demonstrated more consistency between their attitudes and their companies' employment practices of the three categories of foreign labour than Singaporeans [app. VI.166, VI.172, VI.178, VI.184, VI.189, VI.195, VI.200, VI.206, VI.211, VI.217, VI.150, VI.156].

Amongst the Australian sub-groups, only the attitudes of ACH were not in agreement with their company employment practices. Instead of 'bringing' in more foreign workers, ACH companies had hired more foreign workers 'already in the country'.

Amongst the Malaysian sub-groups, the attitudes of MCA and MM were different to the company employment practices. Whilst the attitudes/company employment practices of MCA did not correspond for the three FLE categories, those of MM differed on the two categories for *FLE within the country*.

In the case of Singapore, consistencies between attitudes and company employment practices were shown mainly for 'bringing in' foreign workers over 'hiring them whilst already in the country' by SCA, SCH and SCR sub-groups. 'Work sent' was the least employed by the company although in terms of respondents' attitudes, it was ranked highest of the three categories of FLE.

This discrepancy could be the result of combining the skilled and unskilled FLE categories and averaging the scores, which in turn has the adverse effect of evening up the response percentages for the categories of 'bringing in foreign workers' and 'hiring those already in the country' against 'work sent'.

Singaporean respondents had indicated that they were most favourable toward skilled foreign labour, 'brought in' as well as 'hired whilst already in the country', but most unfavourable toward unskilled foreign labour, particularly 'hiring of those already in the country'. 'Work sent' was not preferred over skilled but was favoured most certainly to unskilled foreign labour.

Do attitudes of respondents about living in a "foreign" country differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

Of the three country groups of respondents, statistically significant results showed that Malaysians were found to be the most in favour whilst Australians were the least receptive to the idea of living in another country with a culture that was totally different from theirs [app. VI.34, VI.74, VI.114]. In other words, whilst

Malaysians would be the most supportive, Australians would be the least willing of the three country groups of respondents to consider employment (as foreign labour) in “foreign” countries.

The Australians’ residence considerations appear to parallel their companies’ employment practices and their attitudes on FLE (as discussed above). It is important to note that of the three countries, Australia attracted the least number of responses on the seven categories of FLE even though it had the most number of survey respondents [app. VI.166]. Although Singapore and Malaysia approximated half their number of survey respondents, they were able to draw much higher responses on these questions. What do the higher responses say about respondents from Singapore and Malaysia? Conversely, what do the lower responses imply about Australian respondents?

As mentioned above, Singapore and Malaysia had much higher numbers of companies that had employed the three categories of FLE – ‘foreigners brought in’, ‘foreigners already in country’ and ‘work sent overseas’ – than Australia [app. VI.172]. The experiences of respondents from Singapore and Malaysia on these three FLE categories at the least could be said to be much more than their counterparts in Australia. Hence, experiences of a lesser level and thereby exposure of a lower degree to the different categories of FLE listed could explain the relatively low response from Australian respondents.

Based on their responses to the seven FLE categories, Australians were found the least favourable to FLE, both *within the country* and *in other countries* [app. VI.166]. It does seem that of the three country groups of respondents, Australians were least for the idea of themselves and others as foreign labour. This could be a reflection of the individualistic nature of Australians.

Cultural theorists, Hofstede (1984, 1994) among them, had proposed that Australia, like other western nations of North America and Western Europe, leaned towards values such as autonomy and self-sufficiency much more than the collectivistic Asian nations. The greater willingness on the part of Malaysians and Singaporeans to consider not only themselves but others also as foreign labour bespeaks their collectivistic sense of communitarianism and need to maintain solidarity with neighbouring countries. These values have in great measure been responsible for their rising economic success amidst the global giants of the western world (Bond 1986, 1996; Milner & Quiltry 1996; Triandis 1994a, 1994b, 1995).

Amongst the four Australian sub-groups, AB (mean=5.06) were the most favourable whilst ACR (mean=3.48) were the least favourable toward the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture [app. VI.42, VI.50, VI.58, VI.66].

SCA (mean=6.20) were the most likely whereas SB (mean=3.63) were the least likely of the four Singaporean sub-groups to consider the idea of living in a “foreign” country [app. VI.82, VI.90, VI.98, VI.106].

Amongst the five Malaysian sub-groups, MCA (mean=6.17) displayed the most willingness whilst MM (mean=3.43) showed the least willingness to living in another country with a foreign culture [app. VI.122, VI.130, VI.138, VI.146, VI.162].

Of the 13 sub-groups, the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture was most appealing to SCA and most unwelcomed by MM. The appeal for SCA (as with MCA) might be correlated with their status as expatriates in Singapore. In the case of MM, living in a foreign country might be unwelcoming because of the impact it would have on their Islamic lifestyle (Rashid & Ho 2003).

7.3 REASONS FAVOURING FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

Do the reasons favouring each category of FLE differ by country groups?

[1a] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country [app. VI.168, VI.180, VI.191, VI.202, VI.213, VI.152]

Of the six reasons for ‘bringing in the foreign skilled’, survey respondents felt most favourable toward ‘skill gap/shortage’, ‘specialist positions’ and ‘skill transfer/exchange’ and least favourable toward ‘senior executive positions’ and ‘other managerial positions’. These views were in accord with the responses of one Singaporean case study. These views corresponded also with the majority of Australians in the interview sample who indicated that they favoured ‘skilled imported labour’ for shortages/gaps in industry. These Australians, however, had not referred to any specific type of personnel.

Singaporeans were found significantly the most in favour of 'bringing in the foreign skilled' for 'senior executive positions'. Of the country groups, Australia and Singapore shared the same views with 'skill gap/shortage' as their main reason for 'bringing in the foreign skilled'. Australian and Malaysian sub-groups demonstrated the most consistency in their choice of main and least reasons.

Of the two reasons for 'bringing in the foreign unskilled', survey respondents from all three country groups were more in favour of 'meet short supply in industry' than 'take on jobs locals not prepared to do'. These preferences were uniform amongst the five sub-groups from Malaysia, ACA, ACH, ACR, SCA and SCR. It was significantly established that Singaporeans were more in favour of 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' for meeting industry short supply than Australians and were the most supportive of all respondents for bringing them in to take on jobs locals were not prepared to do.

Of the six reasons for 'hiring foreigners already in country', survey respondents from all three country groups were most favourable toward 'best person for the job' and least approving of 'cultural diversity is good for the company'. The majority of Australians in the interview sample also felt that 'best person for the job' was an important criterion, even more so than an applicant's citizenship status.

Compatibility on the most and least reasons for 'hiring foreigners already in country' was observed for ACA, ACR, SCH and MCR. Australians were significantly more approving than Malaysians for 'best person for the job' and the most supportive of all respondents for considering 'cultural diversity is good for the company' as the reasons for 'hiring foreigners already in country'.

[1b] Reasons favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries [app. VI.169a-169b, VI.181a-181b, VI.192a-192b, VI.203a-203b, VI.214a-214b, VI.153]

Of the three countries, the Australian sub-groups were the most consistent in their choices of 'in keeping with principle of "best person or business" for the job' as the most and 'foster international trade relations' as the least of the six reasons for sending work overseas. The views of these Australian survey respondents were compatible with those from the interview sample. Sending work offshore, the latter

had felt, ensured the company's sustainability but more importantly, improved its competitiveness and ability to operate more effectively and to generate more wealth for Australia and its trading partners.

Singapore and Malaysia agreed on 'ensure company's sustainability and profitability' as the main reason for 'work sent'. Of the sub-groups from these two countries, SCA, MCA and MM were the only ones concurring with this as their main reason. Other popular main reasons were 'maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' and 'company to be competitive on world market'.

Like Australia, Singapore and Malaysia were in accord that 'foster international trade relations' was least of the six reasons for 'work sent'. Of the sub-groups from these two countries, only SCA and MM did not nominate this reason as their least. MM had instead favoured 'foster international trade relations' and 'ensure company's sustainability and profitability' as their main reasons for 'work sent'. SCA had chosen 'in keeping with principle of "best person or business"' as their least of the six reasons for sending work to other countries.

With regards to 'set-up of branch', the Australian sub-groups were once again very consistent and congruent with their preferences for 'maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' and 'foster international trade relations' as respective most and least of the five reasons.

In the case of Singapore, all four sub-groups agreed with 'foster international trade relations' as the least of the five reasons for 'set-up of branch'. On the best reason, SCA, SCH and SCR were in line with their main group's choice of 'company to be competitive on world market'. The views of these Singaporeans match those expressed by the two case study respondents, who felt offshore branches were not only necessary but very important given Singapore's limited human and natural resources. SB was the only Singaporean sub-group that had the same main reason as the Australians.

Malaysian sub-groups exhibited the most inconsistencies on their best and least of reasons for 'set-up of branch'. Only MCR was found to agree with its main group on 'maximise opportunities for company's growth and development' as the most and 'access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale' as the least of the five reasons for 'set-up of branch'.

Consistency was observed once again amongst the Australian sub-groups in their selection of the most and least reasons for 'company relocation'. These were

the same ones as those chosen for ‘set-up of branch’. Notably, the Australian interview sample of respondents who stated that they favoured ‘company relocation’ had recognised that with Australia’s small population, businesses might need to venture outside of Australia so that a continual generation of wealth and development (work-wise) can take place for the country.

Singaporeans also considered ‘foster international trade relations’ as least of the five reasons for ‘company relocation’. SCH and SB were shown to concur with their main group on ‘access to resources not available in country’ whereas their SCA and SCR counterparts decided on ‘company to be competitive on world market’ as the best reason for ‘company relocation’.

Amongst the Malaysian sub-groups, only MCA, MCR and MB were in agreement with the main group that ‘foster international trade relations’ was least of the five reasons for ‘company relocation’. As its best reasons, the main Malaysian group had nominated ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’ and ‘company to be competitive on world market’. Either or both these reasons were favoured most for ‘company relocation’ by the five Malaysian sub-groups.

Overall, ‘maximise opportunities for company’s growth and development’, ‘company to be competitive on world market’, ‘ensure company’s sustainability and profitability’ and ‘in keeping with principle of “best person or business” for the job’ were the most favoured whilst ‘foster international trade relations’ was the least approved of the reasons for *FLE in other countries*.

7.4 REASONS NOT FAVOURING FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

Do the reasons not favouring each category of FLE differ by country groups?

[2a] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment within the country [app. VI.170, VI.182, VI.193, VI.204, VI.215, VI.154]

All three countries did not have the same best reason for *not favouring* ‘bringing in foreigners’. Australia and Singapore considered ‘number of favourable

jobs for locals is reduced' as least of the three reasons for *not favouring* foreigners 'brought in'. The sub-groups from Australia and Singapore were most consistent with their respective main group on the most and least reasons for *not favouring* 'bringing in foreigners'. Only MCH and MB had their most and least reasons for *not favouring* 'bringing in foreigners' the same as the main Malaysian group.

Singapore and Malaysia were more concerned with 'number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced' whereas Australians were more focused on 'unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system' for *not favouring* 'hiring foreigners already in country'. It was observed that the primary reason preferred by sub-groups from Australia and Singapore was in keeping with that of their respective main group. Only MCH, MB and MM had their first reason the same as the main Malaysian group.

[2b] Reasons NOT favouring Foreign Labour Employment in other countries
[app. VI.171, VI.183, VI.194, VI.205, VI.215, VI.155]

Australians showed a stronger support for 'prefer product to be made locally' whereas Singaporeans and Malaysians were more concerned with 'local community missing out on generation of wealth' and 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' for *not favouring* 'work sent'. Of the three countries, the Singaporean sub-groups, particularly the SCH and SB, were most in step with their main group's best reasons for *not favouring* 'work sent'.

The views of the survey respondents from Australia were supported by those of their counterparts in the interview sample who did not favour sending work to other countries. The latter had felt that the community could miss out on the generation of wealth when Australian companies sent work to other countries. They, therefore, made a conscious effort to buy "made in Australia" clothing after seeing how the textile and clothing industry had suffered from the export of jobs.

Of the four reasons for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch', Australians and Singaporeans demonstrated most concern for 'loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment' whilst Malaysians focused mainly on 'local community missing out on generation of wealth'. MCH, MCR and MB kept with the most and least reasons of its main group for *not favouring* 'set-up of branch'.

Consistency was observed also between ACH, SCH and SB and their respective main group.

With regards to the five reasons for *not favouring* ‘company relocation’, Australians indicated most support for ‘prefer product to be made locally’. These views were comparable with their counterparts in the interview sample who “wanted jobs kept in Australia”.

Singaporeans and Malaysians, on the other hand, were mainly concerned with ‘effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company’. MCR was the only sub-group that had its most and least reasons corresponding with its main group.

7.5 PRACTICE OF FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT

Do respondent company’s employment of personnel, including salary and working conditions of each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

Of the five major groups of personnel, technical workers were predominantly the foreigners ‘brought in’ and ‘hired whilst already in the country’ [app. VI.32-33, VI.72-73, VI.112-113]. Typically, those employed in Australia and Singapore were furnished with the salary and working conditions in accordance with the country’s labour regulations whereas those employed in Malaysia were given international market standards salary and working conditions [app. VI.40-41, VI.48-49, VI.56-57, VI.64-65, VI.80-81, VI.88-89, VI.96-97, VI.104-105, VI.120-121, VI.128-129, VI.136-137, VI.144-145, VI.159-160]. Australia and Singapore share about the same currency exchange rate whereas Malaysia has a much lower currency exchange rate. This could be the reason for foreign workers in Malaysia receiving salary and working conditions of international market standards instead.

Managerial foreign workers in Australia and Malaysia were considered mostly for international market standards salary and work conditions whilst those in Singapore received salary and work conditions stipulated by the country.

MM was the only sub-group to employ the ‘other’ category of personnel most of all. These foreign workers received Malaysian salary and working conditions.

Do respondents' attitudes toward different sources of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

All three countries did not differ on 'local labour agency' as their primary FLE source [app. VI.174]. However, Singapore did differ with Australia and Malaysia on the next two FLE sources. Instead of 'recruit personally from overseas as second choice, Singaporeans considered this their third FLE source. Using 'agency in foreign country' was their second preference.

Sub-groups from Australia were found the most consistent with their main group on their FLE source rank preferences [app. VI.186, VI.197, VI.208, VI.219, VI.161]. This shows that Australians have similar views concerning their preferred sources of foreign labour. ACA, ACH, ACR were observed to demonstrate this consistency with SCR and MCR sub-groups in having all three foreign labour sources ranked the same as their respective main group.

7.6 OTHER FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Do respondents' attitudes toward different job selection factors differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

All three countries had the same top four job selection factors [app. VI.175]. 'Work experience' was nominated the most important, followed by 'educational qualification', 'years of work experience' and 'age'. ACA, ACR, SCR, MCA and MCH were the only sub-groups that ranked these four job selection factors in the same order [app. VI.187, VI.198, VI.209, VI.220, VI.163]. MCR and MM were the only sub-groups that regarded 'educational qualification' instead of 'work experience' as most important of the ten job selection factors.

Among the three country groups, it was significantly established that 'age' was most important to Malaysians and least important to Australians as a job selection factor. Other job factors such as 'marital status' was significantly most important to Malaysians whilst 'nationality' was deemed significantly most important by Singaporeans.

The findings from these Singaporean survey respondents matched those obtained from the two case study respondents.

7.7 FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT - ETHICS OF RESPONDENTS

Do respondents' ethical stance toward each category of FLE differ by their cultural sub-grouping?

As it was found with attitudes, the ethical stances these survey respondents adopted for each category of FLE differed by country, race/ethnic and religious groups [app. VI.177a-177b].

Differences in ethical stances taken between Australia and Singapore were the most pronounced. Whilst the Australians were completely deontological, the Singaporeans were completely teleological in their ethical stances on the six categories of FLE. Like the Singaporeans, the Malaysians were teleological on *FLE within the country*. But on *FLE in other countries*, they were teleological on 'set-up of branch' and deontological (like the Australians) on 'work sent' and 'company relocation'.

SCR, SCA, SCH and MCA were completely teleological on FLE. Among the 13 sub-groups, none were found completely deontological.

Amongst the sub-groups, those from Singapore demonstrated the most whilst those from Australia exhibited the least consistency with their respective main group on their corresponding ethical stance and FLE category. Uniformity was observed on all six ethical stances taken by SCA, SCH, SCR and MCR with their respective main country group. ACR, AB, SB, MCA, MCH and MB sub-groups were in step with their respective main group on the ethical stances they took for *FLE within the country*. But on the ethical stance for *FLE in other countries*, MM was the only sub-group in complete accord with its main group.

H2: In regards to the ethical stances of respondents toward the different categories of FLE, country differences will be stronger than differences between race/ethnicity and between religions.

Regression analysis was conducted between respondents' ethical stances toward the different categories of FLE and their respective country, race/ethnicity and religion. The only significant differences were those found between these cultural variables and ethical stances *not favouring* 'company relocation' ($F_{5,124}=3.70$, $p<.004$, Adjusted $R^2=.095$). Support for H2 was established whereby country ($\beta-.298$, $p<.003$) differences were the only significant ones. Race/ethnic differences found among the CA ($\beta-.142$, $p=.30$) and the CH ($\beta-.228$, $p=.08$) and religious differences found among the CR ($\beta-.010$, $p=.94$) and the B ($\beta-.053$, $p=.66$) were not significant.

Do respondents' ethical stances correspond with their attitudes on the equivalent categories of FLE?

It is proposed that the higher the orientation towards teleology, the greater the tendency of respondents to favour FLE. Conversely, the higher the orientation towards deontology, the greater the tendency not to favour FLE. Will teleologists be inclined to favour FLE more than deontologists, both in terms of employing foreign nationals within the country and in other countries?

On the whole, teleologists were found to favour FLE more than deontologists [app VI. 177a]. Singapore was teleological on all six categories of FLE. Australia, on the other hand, was deontological on all six categories of FLE. These contradistinctive ethical stances are in keeping with the attitudes of survey respondents on FLE whereby Singaporeans were the most supportive and Australians were the least favourable of FLE [app. VI.166].

Among the three countries, Singapore had the highest orientation toward teleology for bringing in the foreign skilled and unskilled and for 'work sent' [app. VI.177a-177b]. It was significantly established that Singaporeans were the most teleological concerning 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to meet industry labour shortage.

Australia, on the other hand, demonstrated the highest orientation toward deontology for *FLE within the country* and more particularly so for *FLE in other countries*. Significantly, Australians were found the most deontological on *not favouring* ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’. Their greatest concern was the loss of jobs and generation of wealth for Australians.

In the case of Malaysia, respondents were seen to consider teleology when it came to *FLE within the country* and ‘set-up of branch’ but deontology when it was for ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’. These ethical stances were consistent with their attitudes whereby they tended to favour bringing in and hiring foreigners already in the country and ‘set-up of branch’ to ‘work sent’ and ‘company relocation’.

SCA, SCH, SCR and MCA were the most teleological of the sub-groups with all six ethical stances adopted as teleological. ACR was the most deontological of the sub-groups with five of six ethical stances taken as deontological. Consistency between respondents’ ethical stances and their attitudes was also preserved among the sub-groups.

In terms of attitudes toward *FLE within the country*, MCA, MCR, MB and SCH were found to be the most favourable of the sub-groups. In terms of attitudes toward *FLE in other countries*, MCA, SCH, SCR and SB were the most supportive of the sub-groups. MCA and SCH were thus found to favour FLE most of all the sub-groups. The Australian sub-groups were the least favourable toward FLE. ACR was found the least supportive of FLE whilst ACA was the least approving of *FLE within the country*. Significantly, it was found that of the

- (i) CH sub-groups, ACH were most teleological and most deontological on ‘hiring foreigners already in country’.
- (ii) CH sub-groups, MCH were most teleological about ‘work sent’.
- (iii) CA sub-groups, ACA were most deontological on ‘company relocation’.
- (iv) CR sub-groups, ACR were most teleological and most deontological on ‘company relocation’.

Do cultural sub-groups differ in the way they conceptualise profit?

Of the three country groups, Malaysians had the highest regard for profit [app. VI.176]. Singaporeans followed a close second. More than three-fifths of respondents from each country agreed that profit was the prime motive of business [app. VI.29, VI.75, VI.115]. The majority felt ‘reason for being’ was the best of the four reasons given for agreeing with the profit statement.

Both case study respondents concurred that profit had primacy of commercial motive. One felt that a company ‘cannot keep going otherwise’ whilst the other thought ‘measure of success’ was another good reason to ‘reason for being’. However, among the Australians from the interview sample, a greater proportion (60%) felt that profit is important and necessary but it is not “the main reason for being in business”. Profit is, nevertheless, a “sustainability factor” that ensures a company stays in business and is able to make investments for further growth and development.

Amongst the Malaysian sub-groups, profit was most important to MM [app. VI.188, VI.199, VI.210, VI.221, VI.165]. Profit was more important to MCA and MB than MCH and MCR. Amongst the Singaporean sub-groups, SB and SCH ranked profit higher than SCA and SCR. Among the Australians, profit was considered more important by ACR and ACA compared to ACH and AB respondents. Profit had the most emphasis from MM whilst AB gave it the least emphasis of the 13 sub-groups.

Profit was regarded ‘the prime motive of business’ most by MM (100%) and least by AB (47%) respondents. Except for ACH, AB, MCA and MM, most felt that ‘reason for being’ was the best of the four reasons for agreeing with the profit statement.

Do respondents’ view of profit correspond with their ethical stances on FLE?

As a company priority item, profit was highest in importance for Malaysians even though Singaporeans held the most teleological stances on FLE [app. VI.177a].

Of the three countries, Australia had the lowest regard for profit. It also considered company priority items such as ‘good quality service’, staff care in terms of their ‘competency’, ‘work ethic’, ‘well-being’ and ‘loyalty’, ‘company’s growth and development’, ‘company’s public image’ and ‘fostering good relationships’ far more important than profit [app.VI.176]. This corresponds well with its total deontological stance on the six categories of FLE. In addition, the most important company priority items regarded by these Australian survey respondents were congruent with those mentioned by respondents from the interview sample.

By comparison, Singapore considered ‘company’s public image’ and ‘teamwork’ to be of greater importance than profit whilst Malaysia regarded good quality product and service ahead of profit. Like the Malaysians, Australians could be said to be well aware of their financial commitments. But more so than Singaporeans and Malaysians, they were mindful at the same time of their corporate social responsibility toward their various stakeholders. In other words, managers from Australia, followed by those from Singapore, seem to have moved away from the norm of profit-as-the-bottom-line and adopted the triple-bottom-line approach to business (as discussed in Section 4.6.4) much more than managers from Malaysia.

Sub-groups from Australia, ACH and AB most particularly, were also observed to consider profit of least importance compared to their corresponding race/ethnic or religious counterparts in the other two countries [app. VI.177a-177b]. ACA, ACH and ACR including MM and MCH, were also the most deontological of their race/ethnic or religious counterparts. Congruency was exhibited among these Australian sub-groups in terms of their view of profit and deontological stances on FLE. But this was not found with MM, who most notably held the highest regard for profit of all the respondents. In this respect, MM’s view of profit was not compatible with their deontological stances on FLE.

7.8 SUMMATION

This chapter provided a comprehensive discussion on the quantitative results obtained from survey respondents in three countries (Australia, Singapore and Malaysia), two race/ethnic (Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian and Chinese) groupings and three religious (Christian, Buddhist and Malay Muslim) denominations. Findings

from the interview sample of Australians and the case study sample of Singaporeans were included to crosscheck for data consistency and give reliability support to the quantitative survey results. The discussion was guided by the research questions and hypotheses, which had been formulated to fulfil the three objectives of the thesis.

OBJECTIVE 1

The first objective was to investigate what the prevailing perceptions of managers are toward FLE. This would include their reasons and issues related to the company such as FLE practices, personnel etc. Altogether there are seven different categories of FLE, which can be classified as either *FLE within the country* or *FLE in other countries*.

The key differences in survey respondents' FLE preferences were:

- [1] Australia (ACA, ACH, ACR, AB) and Malaysia (MCH, MCR, MB, MM) were more in favour of *FLE within the country* whereas Singapore (SCA, SCH, SCR) was more supportive of *FLE in other countries*.
- [2] Australia and Malaysia were most favourable toward 'hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' whilst Singapore was most in favour of 'bringing in the foreign skilled'.
- [3] All survey respondents except MM showed support for skilled foreign labour.

These key differences were supported by parallel findings from the interview sample of Australians and case study sample of Singaporeans. In particular,

- [1] Australia's preference for *FLE within the country* to *FLE in other countries* ('work sent' and 'company relocation') and for 'hiring foreigners already in the country';
- [2] respondents' preference for skilled over unskilled foreign labour and the unfavourable attitudes of Singaporeans for 'hiring the foreign unskilled already in country'.

It was worth noting that survey respondents' preferences for three categories of *FLE in other countries* – 'work sent', 'set-up of branch' and 'company relocation' – were found to correspond entirely with their rankings on the three business scenarios. These rankings were the only responses that demonstrated complete homogeneity among the three country groups and among the 13 sub-groups.

Congruency was also found with the preferences of the interview sample of Australians.

Results also indicated that for Australia (ACA, ACR, AB) and Malaysia (MCH, MCR, MB), survey respondents' preferences matched their companies' employment practices on three other categories of FLE - 'foreigners brought in', 'foreigners already in country' and 'work sent overseas'. Companies from Singapore (SCH, SCR, SB) recorded the highest whilst companies from Australia (ACA, ACR, AB) had the lowest employment of these categories of foreign labour.

This seems to correlate with the survey findings on Australia (ACA, ACH, ACR, AB) as the least favourable of the three countries towards FLE not only *within the country* but *in other countries* as well. Survey respondents from Australia (ACA, ACR) were also notably the least supportive of the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture. These findings indicate that compared to Singaporeans and Malaysians, Australians are the least favourable to the idea of themselves and others as foreign labour.

When considering the most and least preferred reasons *favouring* the seven categories of FLE, the viewpoints of Australians were more congruent with those of Malaysians than those of Singaporeans.

With regards to *employment of foreign workers within the country*, the preference was more for the 'best person for the job' and meeting company and industry personnel or skill deficiencies and less on fulfilling executive and managerial vacancies, disinterested jobs by locals or issues such as cultural diversity within the organisation.

With regards to *employment of foreign workers in other countries*, the main focus was on sustaining economic growth viability for the organisation that has to operate in the global market. 'Foster international trade relations' as the least preferred reason for 'work sent', 'set-up of branch' and 'company relocation' indicates the less given interest of survey respondents from all three countries to economic relations on the macro level.

By and large, it was found that the most and least preferred reasons for *not favouring* the seven categories of FLE by Singaporeans were closer to those of Malaysians than those of Australians.

With regards to *not favouring the employment of foreign workers within the country*, Singaporean and Malaysian respondents showed more concern for reduced

number of favourable jobs amongst the local population whereas Australian respondents focused more on the increasing burden unemployment would place on the welfare system.

In regards to *not favouring the employment of foreign workers in other countries*, respondents were most concerned with the loss of jobs and generation of wealth to their country.

Of the five major groups of personnel, technical foreign workers were the majority 'brought in' and 'hired whilst already in the country' by companies in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. Managerial personnel were the next largest group of foreign workers that were employed. Technical personnel employed by Australian businesses were accorded the country's salary and work conditions whereas managerial personnel had theirs matched with those of international market standards. Both these kinds of personnel employed by companies in Singapore received the country's salary and work conditions whilst those employed by companies in Malaysia were provided with salary and work conditions of international market standards. MM was the only sub-group to employ personnel of the 'other' category most of all. These foreign personnel were given Malaysian salary and work conditions.

With regards to sourcing for foreign labour, all three countries preferred 'local labour agency' as their primary source. Australians (ACA, ACH, ACR) were observed to be the most consistent in their ranking of the three sources of foreign labour.

Of the ten job selection factors, the three countries regarded 'work experience' as most important. 'Educational qualification', 'years of work experience' and 'age' were respectively the next three most important factors for job selection. MCR and MM were the only sub-groups that felt 'educational qualifications' was the most important job selection factor. As a job selection factor, it was significantly found that 'age' was most important to Malaysians and least important to Australians. Likewise, 'marital status' was significantly most important to Malaysians and 'nationality' was significantly most important to Singaporeans.

OBJECTIVE 2

The second objective was to ascertain the ethical stance managers would take on each of the seven categories of FLE. Would their ethical stance be teleological

(consequential) or deontological (duty)? How would respondents' ethical stances compare with their attitudes on FLE and on profit?

The results do give support to the notion that teleologists would favour FLE more than deontologists. Singaporeans (SCR especially) were completely teleological and shown also to be the most favourable towards FLE of the three country groups of respondents. In addition, they had the highest teleological orientation for bringing in the foreign skilled and unskilled and for 'work sent'. Singaporeans were significantly found the most teleological for 'bringing in the foreign unskilled' to meet industry labour shortage.

By contrast, Australians (ACR especially) were entirely deontological and observed to be also the least supportive of FLE among the three country groups of respondents. Moreover, they had the highest deontological orientation for *FLE within the country* as well as for *FLE in other countries*. Australians were significantly found the most deontological on *not favouring* 'work sent' and 'company relocation'. Among their concerns, the greatest was for the loss of jobs and wealth generation for Australians.

In the case of Malaysia, respondents' ethical stances were also consistent with their attitudes by virtue of them favouring foreigners 'brought in' and 'hired whilst already in the country' and 'set-up of branch' over 'work sent' and 'company relocation'.

Among the sub-groups, SCH and MCA were total teleologists and found the most favourable toward FLE. By comparison, ACR was the most deontological and the least favourable toward FLE of the sub-groups.

Of the three country groups, Australians demonstrated the most consistency in terms of their ethical stances and views of profit. They held the lowest profit mean and gave more importance to company priority items such as 'good quality service' and those related to employee and company welfare. The latter was also noted among Australians from the interview sample. Among the 13 sub-groups, those from Australia demonstrated the best consistency between their ethical stances and views of profit. This goes to show that in comparison with Singaporeans and Malaysians, Australians were more cognisant of their financial obligations as well as their corporate social responsibility to various stakeholders.

By contrast, Malaysians had the highest regard for profit but they were not the most teleological of the three country groups of respondents. Among the 13 sub-

groups, MM recorded the highest profit mean but it was not the most teleological either. In both these instances, ethical stances on FLE were found to be inconsistent with views on profit.

OBJECTIVE 3

The third objective was to determine the impact of culture on the attitudes and ethics of managers toward FLE. In other words, can the eight cultural variables account for variations in the manager's attitudes and ethical stances toward seven different categories of FLE?

Except for age and the main variables of country, race/ethnicity and religion, significant findings on the socio-biographical variables were noticeably scattered.

It was observed that there were country, race/ethnic and religious group differences in the survey respondents' attitudes concerning the seven categories of FLE. H1 was supported only in regards to respondents' attitudes toward 'work sent' by virtue of country differences being significantly stronger than race/ethnic and religious differences.

Similarly, findings on ethical stances showed that country, race/ethnic and religious group differences affected respondents' ethical stances toward the different categories of FLE. Country differences for respondents' ethical stances on *not favouring* 'company relocation' were the only significant ones that established support for H2.

Even though they were derived from different methodologies, the findings show cross-sample consistency [1] between Australian qualitative interview and quantitative survey respondents and [2] between Singaporean qualitative case study and quantitative survey respondents. Findings of the qualitative samples served not only to verify but also to supplement the results obtained from the quantitative sample (Glaser & Strauss 1979; Strauss & Corbin 1998). The use of the two methodologies have certainly contributed to a higher level of knowledge and understanding of FLE from the managers' perspective in terms of their preferences and reasons (Denzin 1978, 1989; Foddy 1993).

Congruency was further shown between

[1] survey respondents' preferences on three categories of *FLE in other countries* and their rankings on three business scenarios.

- [2] survey respondents' preferences and their companies' (Australian and Malaysian only) employment on three categories of *FLE*.
- [3] survey respondents' attitudes and their considerations concerning living in another country with a foreign culture.
- [4] survey respondents' attitudes and ethical stances on *FLE*.
- [5] survey respondents' (Australians only) ethical stances and views on profit.

Whether by support from hypotheses (partial they might be) or by comparisons with other samples or related items (eg. companies' *FLE* practices), the findings attest to the theory in EDM models such as those by Bommer et al. (1987), Ferrell et al. (1989), Hunt and Vitell (1986, 1993) and Wotruba (1990) that culture affects attitudes and ethics and subsequently behaviours. These cultural effects come from namely, the country environment, race/ethnicity and religion.

The Country Environment

In regards to attitudes and behaviour toward *FLE*, those of Australians and Malaysians were more similar compared to those of Singaporeans.

Australia was observed to be the least favourable to *FLE* (foreigners and themselves as foreign labour) and had the lowest *FLE* of the three countries. Australia and Malaysia were most pro-*FLE within the country*, most supportive of 'hiring the foreign skilled already in country' and least in favour of 'company relocation'.

By comparison, Singapore was found the most favourable to *FLE* (foreigners and themselves as foreign labour) and had the highest *FLE* of the three countries. Singapore was also more supportive of *FLE in other countries*, most favourable towards 'bringing in the foreign skilled' and least in favour of 'hiring the foreign unskilled already in country'.

To a large extent, these differing attitudes and behaviours of Singaporeans can be attributed to the smallness of their country as compared with Australia and Malaysia, which are much larger in geographic terms. This was suggested by their counterparts in the case study sample and also by Chew and Chew (1995). Owing to these physical and demographic inadequacies, the government has become very proactive in its 'regionalization' and *FLE* policies (as discussed in Chapter III)

which, in turn, have impacted upon the attitudes and behaviours of Singaporeans toward FLE.

In terms of ethics and views on profit, Australia and Singapore were on opposite ends. Australians were complete deontologists and had the highest deontological orientation for FLE. They significantly were the most deontological on *not favouring* 'work sent' and 'company relocation'. Of the three countries, Australia had the lowest profit mean. By contrast, Singaporeans were total teleologists and had the highest teleological orientation for bringing in the foreign skilled and unskilled and for sending work to other countries. They recorded the second highest profit mean.

Compared to Singapore and Malaysia, Australians demonstrated the most consistency between their ethical stances and views on profit. They also showed more cognisance for their financial obligations as well as corporate social responsibility compared to Singaporeans and Malaysians. This flows in well with Milner and Quiltry's (1996) comments on Asians' high value for utilitarianism and group rights as compared with Australians, who tend to give more emphasis to individual rights and liberties (egalitarianism).

These country (or national) differences observed in the attitudes, ethical stances and behaviours of respondents from three countries lend further support to those empirical studies mentioned in Christie et al. (2003). There might not have been distinct east-west cultural differences by virtue of Malaysia sharing similar attitudes and behaviours with Australia. However, these country differences do suggest confirmation of the previous findings of their relationships to the dimension of individualism-collectivism (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Triandis & Suh 2002; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 2002).

The more favourable attitudes and the higher employment of FLE as well as the greater willingness of most respondents to consider the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture suggest a stronger approval by Singaporeans and Malaysians to consider themselves and others as foreign labour. These findings support the collectivistic values of cohesiveness, interdependence and solidarity strongly upheld by Asian nations as compared to the individualistic values of autonomy and self-sufficiency preferred by many western nations such as Australia (Berger 1994; Hofstede 1984, 1994; Lieber et al. 2000; Milner & Quiltry 1996; Robertson & Fadil 1999).

Overall, the results demonstrate the important roles (Leiris 1958; Whitcomb et al. 1998) both external (physical and demographic) and internal (institutional) environment factors have in shaping attitudes, ethics and behaviours to cause them to differ from one country to another.

Race/Ethnicity and Religion

Group differences in attitudes, ethics and behaviours suggest also the influence of race/ethnicity and religion. Variations in attitudes, ethics and behaviours were noted among the 13 sub-groups but the most conspicuous came from the MM sub-group.

This sub-group was the only one to prefer unskilled foreign labour. Although the literature was not forthcoming in providing any explanation for MM's preference, it did suggest that the demand for unskilled foreign workers to work in plantations, construction and services (restaurants and households) in Malaysia is quite high (as discussed in Chapter III). This demand is escalating because of the growing trend from rural to urban migration, which is leaving serious labour shortages in the agricultural sector (Edward 2002; Turnbull 1980). Kassim (2002) alleged that in 2000, the numbers of foreign nationals employed in Sabah and Sarawak, the two states heavily dependent on unskilled foreign workers, were approximately 60 and 65 percent respectively.

Although MM was the least supportive of all respondents to the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture, it had the highest percentage (100%) of 'foreigners brought in'. With their higher degree of religiousness as compared to the Chinese, MM probably considered the idea of living in another country with a foreign culture as very disruptive to their Islamic lifestyle (Rashid & Ho 2003). Whilst the idea of themselves as foreign labour might not be so appealing, they seemed most favourable of others coming into their country as foreign workers.

Although profit was most important to MM, they were not the most teleological of the respondents but were the most deontological of the Malaysians. MM's high regard for profit was not compatible with their fairly strong deontological stances on FLE.

It is thus concluded that the effects from the country environment, race/ethnicity and religion can vary attitudes, ethics and subsequently behaviours [as

summarised in Figure 4.1]. This corroborates three significant viewpoints of cultural theorists.

- [1] The important role culture has on shaping thought and behaviour patterns (Slonim 1991; Triandis & Suh 2002).
- [2] The cultural environment is of prime importance because it determines not only an individual's cultivation and learning but also his or her responses, which will alter to adapt to changing circumstances in the environment (Barrett et al. 2002; Leiris 1958; Oyama 2000; Slonim 1991).
- [3] Collective 'mental programming' (characterisation of culture by Hofstede 1994), which is an inherent part of culture, helps to distinguish one group from another (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Scarborough 1998; Schein 1985).

Finally, the findings show that FLE preferences and ethical stances are important to learn about because the decisions made by individuals in organisations located in different countries around the world affect not only the most important stakeholder group – employees – but also others, either wittingly or unwittingly, in the cycle of FLE [as discussed in Section 1.3 and Chapter II].

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Deemed appropriately by Stalker (1994) as ‘the work of strangers’, foreign labour is admittedly far better understood as work carried out by non-local individuals who have come or been brought into the country for employment.

With work practices changing by the spread of internationalisation and the global integration of economies in the last five decades, the employment of foreigners as a labour resource has grown phenomenally not only for within a country but also in other countries (for example, out-sourced job contracts and offshore subsidiaries). Without doubt, the employment of foreign labour has been good for the economy, both nationally and internationally. But at the same time, the burgeoning employment of foreign workers have brought about many economic and social problems for labour receiving/hosting nations as well as labour sending countries. In turn, these have invariably led to numerous dissenting voices clamouring for ethics of justice and equity for foreign workers, particularly those in impoverished third world nations.

It seemed such an opportune time for an investigation into the attitudes and ethics concerning foreign workers. With cross-cultural research emerging as an important area, it was befitting to consider the impact of culture on these attitudes and ethical stances. This represented an entirely different approach to research on foreign workers, one that also demanded a new construct to encompass all possible descriptions of foreign labour employment (FLE).

In the first section of this chapter the research objectives will be reviewed. The second section will sum up the empirical investigation with regards to its methodologies and findings. The third section will focus on the limitations of the research and the fourth section will follow on with suggestions for future research. The final section will consider the implications of the research and its findings for managers.

8.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES REVIEWED

The first objective was to investigate the current perceptions of foreigners as a labour resource amongst managers. Managers such as Executive Directors and Human Resource Managers were considered the best respondents because of their position within the organisation and direct professional experience with labour employment.

The second objective was to determine whether managers take on a teleological or deontological (ethical) stance with regards to seven categories of FLE. These are the foreign skilled and unskilled brought in, the hire of skilled and unskilled foreigners already in the country, 'work sent' to other countries, foreign workers employed in branches and with relocated companies in other countries.

The third objective was to study the impact of culture on managerial attitudes and ethical stances concerning FLE in seven different categories. Altogether eight different cultural variables were considered – gender, age, country, race/ethnicity, religion, organisational, industry and professional. Country, race/ethnicity and religion were regarded as the main variables to study the effects of culture on managerial attitudes and ethics toward FLE. This meant that respondents had to be obtained from different countries, race/ethnic and religious groups to enable a cross-evaluation that could determine which of these three main variables would best explain variations in attitudes and ethical stances of managers toward the seven categories of FLE.

8.3 EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION IN SUMMARY - METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

To allow for cross-data reliability checks, two different methodologies were employed. The qualitative methodology was employed for the interview (Part One) and case study (Part Two) samples whereas the quantitative methodology was utilised for the survey (Part Three) sample.

8.3.1 PART ONE

The qualitative methodology was employed first as an exploratory investigation. Face-to-face interviews with 36 managers obtained from a random sample of Australian-owned Melbourne-based companies provided good insights into the challenges in HRM, business priorities and values, respondents' personal values and issues central to FLE. A greater majority of these managers were found to favour foreign skilled labour and foreign employment within Australia to foreign unskilled labour and foreign employment in other countries. Close to two-thirds were not approving of work and businesses leaving Australia and voiced great concern for their economy and the welfare of Australians in terms of loss of jobs and wealth generation.

8.3.2 PART TWO

The views of the two (case studies) Singapore expatriate managers based in Melbourne, were also very supportive of skilled foreign labour as a way of enhancing creativity and diversity in the workplace environment and making possible the global interchange of skills vital for today's industry and commerce. However, these two were much more pro 'work sent' and 'set-up of branch' in other countries as they saw that these avenues would give access to resources limited in Singapore and thereby maximise opportunities for company growth and development.

8.3.3 PART THREE

As the second methodology, the quantitative survey was carried out next to obtain the greater numbers needed in the designated country, race/ethnic and religious categories for statistical analysis. With the use of surveys, respondents were at first obtained by a random sampling of local companies from Australia and Singapore. It was found that responses came mainly from the predominant race/ethnic and religious groups in these two countries. To meet the three research

objectives, the stratified quota sampling method was then initiated. All in all, a sample of 203 respondents was obtained from three countries (105 Australians, 55 Singaporeans and 43 Malaysians), two race/ethnic groups (Anglo-Celtic/Caucasian and Chinese) and three religious denominations (Christian, Buddhist and Malay Muslim).

STATEMENT ON THE HYPOTHESES AND OTHER SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

[1] ATTITUDES

- [a] Country, race/ethnic and religious group differences were found in the attitudes of respondents toward the different categories of FLE. H1 was supported only for respondents' attitudes concerning 'work sent' whereby country differences were found significantly stronger than race/ethnic and religious differences.

- [b] Australia and Malaysia were more favourable toward *FLE within the country*, especially 'hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' whilst Singapore was slightly more supportive of *FLE in other countries*, particularly for 'bringing in the foreign skilled'.

- [c] MCA, MCR, MB, MM and SCH were the most favourable toward *FLE within the country* whereas SCH, SCR, SB and MCA were the most supportive of *FLE in other countries*. Overall, MCA and SCH were the most pro-FLE whilst ACR was the least supportive of FLE.

- [d] Skilled was favoured to unskilled foreign labour by all other respondents except MM. 'Set-up of branch' was the most and 'company relocation' was the least preferred of the three categories of *FLE in other countries*.

- [e] 'Bringing in the foreign skilled', 'hiring the foreign skilled already in the country' and 'set-up of branch' were the top three FLE preferences whilst 'company relocation' and 'hiring the foreign unskilled already in the country' were the least popular.

- [f] Congruency was observed between survey respondents' three preferences for *FLE in other countries* and their rankings on three business scenarios.
- [g] Australian (ACA, ACR, AB) and Malaysian (MCH, MCR, MB) attitudes were most in line with their companies' employment practice of three categories of foreign labour. Singaporean (SCH, SCR, SB) companies recorded the highest whilst Australian (ACA, ACR, AB) companies had the lowest employment of these categories of foreign labour.
- [h] Attitudes concerning FLE among Australians (ACA, ACR) were most consistent in that they were the least supportive of FLE and the idea of themselves as foreign labour (or living in another country with a foreign culture).

[2] ETHICS

- [a] Country, race/ethnic and religious group differences were observed in the ethical stances of respondents toward the different categories of FLE. H2 was established only on country differences for respondents' ethical stances on *not favouring* 'company relocation'.
- [b] There was congruency between respondents' attitudes and their ethical stances on the seven categories of FLE. Australia was completely deontological and the least favourable towards FLE. Conversely, Singapore was outright teleological and the most approving of FLE. ACR was the most deontological and least favourable of the sub-groups toward FLE. SCH and MCA were among the most teleological and the most favourable of respondents toward FLE. H9, which proposed that teleologists would favour FLE more than deontologists was fully supported.
- [c] Of the three country groups, Australians demonstrated the most consistency between their ethical stances and views on profit. Among

the Malaysians and MM sub-group, inconsistencies were noted between their ethical stances and views on profit.

- [3] Significant correlations were found with the socio-biographical variables. Except for age and the main variables of country, race/ethnicity and religion, the remaining five tended to be scattered.
- [4] Cross-sample consistency was achieved between Australian interview and survey respondents and between Singaporean case study and survey respondents.

There was a lack of full support for both the hypotheses. Nonetheless, with the significant correlations and cross-sample consistencies found, it could be stated in good earnest that the attitudes, ethics and subsequently the behaviours of the managers as individuals were affected by culture. Gender, age, country, race/ethnic, religious, organisational, industry and professional cultures were shown to influence attitudes, ethics and even behaviours but the strongest cultural affects came from the country of residence and employment. It goes without saying the need to always view the results of empirical research with special care especially when they are drawn from small and unequal samples (The Limitations in Section 8.4). Despite its shortcomings, the preliminary findings of this research have usefully shown the impact of culture on attitudes and ethical stances (considerations) concerning FLE and the possibilities for future research directions (Section 8.5).

8.4 THE LIMITATIONS

There were two main limitations and these essentially were respondent-related. First, the procurement of definite but “suitably qualified” types of participants was an ambitious one and in itself constituted the major limitation of the research. For a start, the task of getting respondents was extremely difficult. Given their positions as executives and managers, these individuals are regarded as very ‘busy’ people and thereby less keen to participate in a research. The task was made even more formidable by the need to secure respondents with specific attributes. In

order that the effects of culture could be studied in terms of country, race/ethnic and religious differences, this required respondents from a combination of three different countries, two different race/ethnic groups and two different religious denominations.

Added to the poor responses, the samples were short of number balances in certain combinations. For example, less than the targeted number of Caucasian Buddhists responded from Malaysia and none could be found from Singapore. The smaller female numbers in the samples, which was a reflection of the low representation of women in managerial levels, might have encumbered the analysis by gender. Prospective researchers need to be canny about resources such as time and finances as well as be able to work around constraints imposed by small and unequal sample sizes.

Second, the need to respond in a socially desirable manner could be argued as a limitation found among respondents of high occupational standing. Could this be the reason for the high non-responses? Can we say that those not in favour of FLE were less likely to volunteer as research participants? If this were the case, the respondents, who were strictly volunteers in this study, might not be a representative sample of the population. It is most noteworthy that consistency was observed in the results on the attitudes and reasons concerning FLE even among respondents obtained from another sample using a different methodology.

8.5 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In the words of Berger (1994, p. 98), ‘cultural attitudes and habits affect economic behaviour and are in turn affected by it in ways that must be studied empirically’. There is still a lot more that is not known about attitudes and ethics concerning FLE and the similarities and differences among cultural sub-groups.

This investigation involved respondents from one western and two eastern countries, two race/ethnic groups and three religious denominations. Future investigations should consider cultural sub-groups from other countries, races/ethnicities and religions. Even sub-entities within a major ethnic group or religious institution or various entities of a multinational corporate could be investigated and with larger samples, these possibilities would make interesting

cross-comparisons and extend the knowledge that has been gained from this investigation.

At the same time, methodological improvements with longitudinal studies could help monitor changes and their impact on attitudes, ethics and behaviours overtime. In-depth inquiries made with strategic and specific focus either on a particular industry or profession could also prove invaluable.

The scope of future research could be enhanced by the address of the other factors that could contribute to cultural differences. A review of the range of contingency factors can be found in Chapter IV. For example, it would be useful to learn whether cognitive reasoning and moral orientations are different between male and female managers or among male and female employees or among the skilled and unskilled, both local and foreign from within the country and in other countries. These findings would be useful for policy directions, personality tests and the like.

8.6 THE IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS AND POLICY DIRECTIONS

Although the research interest is on the attitudes and ethics of managers toward FLE, the focus bears mainly upon the cultural similarities and differences existing among various sub-groups from three different countries, two races/ethnicities and three religions.

Country differences were observed whereby Australia and Malaysia tended to favour FLE *within the country* whereas Singapore leaned slightly more towards FLE *in other countries*. Race/ethnic differences were most pronounced amongst MM who represented the only sub-group of respondents to favour unskilled foreign labour within their country most of all. SCH was the most significant race/ethnic sub-group for having the most favourable attitude towards FLE, both *within the country* and *in other countries*, and for taking a complete teleological stance on FLE. ACR was the most striking of all religious sub-groups for its least pro stance on FLE.

These differing attitudes and ethical stances concerning FLE among managers ought to concern ALL managers, and not only those involved with the recruitment, selection and management of human resources, either locally or internationally. This is because they illustrate clearly how various cultural elements

such as country, race/ethnicity and religion can bring about differences in the attitudes, ethics and subsequently the behaviours of individuals. At the same time, they are also important issues for business and government policy makers.

According to Bryan (1999), it is not only societies but organisations also that are getting to be pluralistic as corporations move to take on competition on a global scale. As globalisation continues to push different cultures to interact with each other, managers might need to become more aware of or better still, understand the intrinsic differences that can take place amongst people from different cultures (Triandis & Suh 2002). This can assist negotiations and policy decisions made in business as well as in politics, both in national and international arenas, that promote mutual cooperation and harmony (Kluckhohn 1961; Robertson & Fadil 1999). This knowledge skill thereby becomes especially important for the recruitment of personnel and the selection of expatriates for overseas assignments.

In Aviel's (1990) view, insensitivity to cultural and religious norms can bring about more detrimental consequences than lost sales. Loe et al. (2000) concurred that when a manager adopts a position that differences are probable, the need to "study" the culture of the individual(s) s(he) comes into contact with will arise and this directs the first move towards conflict avoidance. Cultural and ethical sensitivities are important as they invariably lead to a more conducive atmosphere for achieving mutual goals. This was discussed in Practical Implications (Introduction, p. 11) and in Ethical Decision Making Issues (p. 71-72).

Knowledge of the various cultural elements and how they might impinge upon attitudes and ethics also improves ethical decision-making (EDM) and behavioural outcomes in the organisational context and delivers in short, a professional savoir-faire (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005). An individual's behaviour, whether that of a superior or peer, has been pointed out (Section 4.6.3) as one of the organisational factors impacting the culture and climate of the organisation and industry.

Generally speaking, even though the managers in the research samples embrace FLE, especially of the foreign skilled, they are still mindful of job and wealth loss when FLE takes place *in other countries*, particularly through local companies' relocation to another country. This finding highlights the significant role (discussed in The Cycle of Foreign Labour Employment - Section 1.3) managers, in business as well as in government, play either directly or indirectly in decision and

policy making toward preventing such losses from escalating even if they cannot altogether stop, for example, local companies from leaving the country.

As discussed in Section 4.6.1-4.6.4, management policies and philosophies are, in turn, influential in shaping the organisation's leadership and conduct. This applies to the leadership of the country as well. As the findings on Singapore had indicated, respondents were slightly more favourable toward *FLE in other countries* and this possibly stemmed from the proactive stance of the government on 'regionalization' as a way of improving the economic and political well-being of the country.

In short, this investigation into the attitudes and ethics of managers on FLE recognises the significance of culture and the part it plays in producing differences among individuals from various groups. At the same time, it indicates the importance of ethical sensitivity regarded by Yetmar and Eastman (2000) as the linchpin of the EDM process and for effective corporate leadership.

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GLOSSARY

<i>Anglo</i>	A person of British origins.
<i>Anglo-Celt/Celtic</i>	Refers to people from a descendant mix of English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh and Cornish ancestry. Preferred descriptive term for the 'white' race of Australia.
<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	Implies English-speaking native/descendant of England.
<i>Attitudes</i>	Regarded as 'psychological predispositions' or 'learned response tendencies' because they can affect how objects/situations are perceived and thereby the ethical (or otherwise) judgement that go to form the decision on the course of action.
<i>Caucasian</i>	A term more commonly employed in Asian countries to refer to the 'white' race or people from Europe, North Africa and Western Asia.
<i>Culture</i>	With an anthropological perspective, it refers to the way in which a group of people thinks about and sees the world. Tyler (1924) considered culture as 'that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society'.
<i>Deontological</i>	Concepts of duty and of moral obligation are considered. Further discussions in Section 4.8.
<i>Ethics</i>	A domain of inquiry or discipline in which matters pertaining to right and wrong, good and evil, virtue and vice is systematically examined. Ethics, in this context, also contains clear implications for morals (as discussed in Section 4.2.2). However, the use of the term <i>ethics</i> has a specific application to an industry or a profession. That is, there is formal codification in ethics whereas morals is general and social and hence has different connotations.
<i>Ethnic</i>	Derived from the Greek word <i>ethnos</i> meaning 'nation'; a group that has a sense of peoplehood, of belonging to each other, of being different from other people groups, whether they be in their ancestral homeland or in a new land they have migrated to. These days, however, it is not uncommon for people to belong to more than one ethnic group; in mixed ethnic origin where parents come from different ethnic groups, or in thinking of themselves as belonging to their 'newly migrated' country as well as to their ancestral land, for example, being Greek Australian, Chinese Singaporean etc. This term has been used in Australia since the 1960s to refer to immigrants who are of a non-Anglo-Saxon or non-Anglo-Celtic background or who belong to minority groups. The concept of ethnicity, including its direct and surrogate measures, is well discussed in ABS (1984), Price (1996) and Khoo & Price (1996). Differences between the concepts of ethnicity and race are presented in Section 5.4.4.

<i>Foreign Labour</i>	Refers to either work conducted by a ‘non-national’ - a person who has not become a citizen of the country in which s(he) is residing and working in or a worker who is employed by a company that is located away from its home base. By way of example in the latter instance, ABC, an Australian owned company, might decide to set up an offshore branch in Indonesia. The local workers (Indonesians) that will be employed by ABC will be regarded as ‘foreign labour’. Similarly, if ABC were to outsource to a company in Indonesia, the work will be considered as ‘foreign labour’ employment. More comprehensively defined in Section 1.2.
<i>Individualism/Collectivism</i>	One of several cultural dimensions employed by cultural theorists, namely, Hofstede, Triandis and Suh, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, to describe differences between countries. <i>Individualism</i> refers to concern for self whereas <i>collectivism</i> relates to interest for welfare of the group.
<i>Migrant Labour</i>	A term that is more closely associated with the idea that the foreign worker intends to work and settle on a more permanent basis in the country of employment. This might include taking up citizenship of the country.
<i>Nationality</i>	The passport being held ascertains the individual’s nationality. An individual’s nationality cannot automatically be taken as the country of origin (as discussed in Section 5.4.3). Nationality merely represents a society of people united under one government in a sovereign State.
<i>Race</i>	Refers to a group of persons having a common genetic ancestry. The physical characteristics of individuals are easily distinguishable, for example, hair and skin colour. Differences between the concepts of race and ethnicity are presented in Section 5.4.4.
<i>Religion</i>	Is a system of belief, faith and worship. Further discussions in Section 5.4.5.
<i>Teleological</i>	Essentially goal-directed, as the consequences as opposed to the motives of the act are the main considerations. Further discussions can be found in Section 4.8.

MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES, ETHICS AND FOREIGN LABOUR

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APPENDIX I.1

QUOTA SAMPLE FRAME DESIGN

		<i>CHRISTIAN</i>	<i>BUDDHIST</i>	<i>MUSLIM</i>
<i>AUSTRALIA</i>	CAUCASIAN	6 respondents	6 respondents	
	<i>CHINESE</i>	6 respondents	6 respondents	

SINGAPORE	CAUCASIAN	6 respondents	6 respondents
	<i>CHINESE</i>	6 respondents	6 respondents
MALAYSIA	CAUCASIAN	6 respondents	6 respondents
	<i>CHINESE</i>	6 respondents	6 respondents
	MALAY		6 respondents

APPENDIX II.1

WORKERS' REMITTANCES IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1980-89

REGION/COUNTRY	\$ millions			% of	
	1980	1985	1989	GDP 1989	EXPORTS 1989
Europe					
Cyprus	94	72	93	2.1	13.0
Greece	1119	807	1397	2.6	23.1
Italy	3387	2843	3926	0.5	2.8
Portugal	2969	2163	3706	8.3	29.1
Spain	2188	1235	1861	0.5	4.3
Turkey	2071	1714	3040	3.9	26.1
Yugoslavia	4102	3106	6290	8.0	46.4
North Africa / Middle East					
Algeria	406	314	306	0.6	4.0
Egypt	2696	3496	3532	10.6	94.1
Jordan	794	1023	623	14.0	56.2
Morocco	1307	6337	1454	6.5	43.9
Sudan	216	430	297	2.5	54.7
Syrian Arab Republic	774	350	355	3.1	12.6
Tunisia	319	271	488	4.8	16.6
Yemen, People's Dem. Rep.	498	429	174	14.6	152.6
Yemen Arab Republic	1256	809	410	5.4	67.6
Asia					
Bangladesh	197	363	771	3.8	59.1
India	2787	2222	2750	1.0	23.1
Korea, Rep. of	105	281	624	0.3	1.0
Pakistan	1746	2456	1897	4.8	38.7
Africa					
Benin	107	57	66	1.8	2.5
Botswana	77	31	46	0.2	1.2
Burkina Faso	150	126	147	5.7	68.7

Lesotho	263	224	765	169.6	1159
Malawi	0	0	4	4.5	33.7
Mali	59	67	90	3.9	17.4

Central and South America

Bolivia	1	6	9	0.2	1.2
Colombia	106	110	467	1.2	7.7
El Salvador	48	154	0	0.0	0.0
Jamaica	100	152	214	5.5	21.1
Mexico	333	471	2277	1.1	10.0
Paraguay	52	11	35	0.8	3.2

Source: Stanton & Teitelbaum (1992)

APPENDIX II.2

DIRECT AND INDIRECT EMPLOYMENT-GENERATING EFFECTS OF MULTINATIONALS¹

	DEFINITION OR ILLUSTRATION
Direct employment effects	Total number of people employed within the multinational subsidiary
Indirect employment effects	All types of employment indirectly generated throughout the local economy by the multinational subsidiary
1 Macroeconomic effects	Employment indirectly generated through-out the local economy as a result of spending by the multinational subsidiary's workers or shareholders
2 Horizontal effects	Employment indirectly generated among other local enterprises as a result of competition with the multinational subsidiary
a) Narrow	Employment indirectly generated among local enterprises competing in the same industry as the multinational subsidiary
b) Broad	Employment indirectly generated among local enterprises active in other industries than the multinational subsidiary
3 Vertical effects	Employment indirectly generated by the multinational subsidiary among its local suppliers and customers
a) Backward effects (or linkages)	Employment indirectly generated by multinational subsidiary among its local suppliers (of raw materials, parts, components, services, etc.)
b) Forward effects (or linkages)	Employment indirectly generated by the multinational subsidiary among its local customers(eg. distributors, service agents)

¹ The above employment effects, if they can be measured, should be calculated in net terms (i.e. gross employment directly or indirectly generated, minus total employment displacement).

Source: ILO (1984, p 39) , Technology choice and employment generation by multinational enterprises in developing countries

APPENDIX III.1

GENERAL FACTS OF COUNTRY

	AUSTRALIA	SINGAPORE	MALAYSIA
Population Size	20.2 million ^a	4.3 million ^a	25.3 million ^a
Land Area (sq km)	7,692,030 ^{**}	697.1 ^d	329,733 ^c Peninsula (131,573) Sabah (73,711) Sarawak (124,449)
Density (per sq km)	2.5 (1999) ^c	6,004 ^d	68.9(1999) ^c
Ethnic Composition	Anglo-Celtic (69.9%) W/European (6.9%) E/European (4.4%) S/European (7%) Middle East (2.5%) Jewish (0.7%) S/Asian (1.2%) SE/Asian (2.5%) E/Asian (2.7%) African (0.1%) Latin American (0.1%) Pacific Islander (0.5%) Aborigines (1.5%) ^f	Chinese (77%) Malays (14%) Indians (8%) Others (1%) ^b	Malays (65%) Chinese (26%) Indians (7.7%) Others (1.3%) ^e
Official Language(s)	English^b	English, Mandarin, Malay & Tamil ^b	Malay (English is the language of the legal system) ^b
Literacy (definition – those aged 15 years & over who can read and write) ^b	100% ^b (82% of total population have proficiency in spoken English ^a) **ABS Yearb	93.2% ^b	89% ^b

Source: (a) United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) Social Indicators (pdf) last updated 22 April 2005

(b) The World Factbook 2003

(c) The Far East & Australasia 2002

(d) Singapore Yearbook of Statistics (pdf) last updated 7 June 2004

(e) 'Malaysia' Population Distribution & Basic Demographic Characteristics Report:
Population &

Housing Census 2000 last updated 6 Nov 2001

(f) Price 1989 (projected ethnic strength for 1999–derived by adding fractions of ancestry for generations)

APPENDIX III.2

WORKFORCE OF COUNTRY

	AUSTRALIA	SINGAPORE	MALAYSIA
Labour Force	10.15 million ^a	2.1 million ^c	10.5 million ^g
By Industry -	Annual average ('000) ^b		(2002) ^h
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	374.500	-	15%
Mining	96.6	-	0.3%
Manufacturing	1070.2	19.5% ^d	22%
Construction	776.7	6.1%	9%
Wholesale/Retail	1884.7	17.8%	-
Services	545.3	56.5%	53%
By Occupation -	(2003-2004) ^a		n/a
Professionals & Managers	38.6%	41.9% ^e	
Clerical, service & sales workers	29.3%	24.7%	
Tradespersons, labourers & related workers	32.1%	33.4%	
Unemployment Rate	5.8% ^a	4.6% ^f	3.3% ^g

Source: (a) Year Book Australia 2005

(b) Australian Economic Indicators 31 March 2005

(c) Singapore in Brief 2005 (SDS 2005c)

(d) Key Indicators of the Resident Population (SDS 2005b)

(e) Singapore Department of Statistics last updated 6 August 2002

(f) Year Book of Statistics, Singapore 2004 (pdf last updated 7 June 2004)

(g) Key Statistics – Malaysia last updated 4 May 2005

(h) Far East & Australasia 2005

APPENDIX III.3

CHRONOLOGY OF AUSTRALIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES

(p.1)

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1901	The Immigration Restriction Act White Australia Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> English Dictation Test 	
1914-18	Amendment to the Commonwealth Naturalisation Act 1903	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applicants had to renounce their own nationality before being granted naturalisation Needed to read and write English 	
1921		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Empire Settlement Scheme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assisted passages for immigrants
1945	Establishment of Federal Department of Immigration & first Migration Program		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual population growth rate of 2 % target
1947	Relaxation of restrictions to The Immigration Restriction Act 1901		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-European business people who had lived for 15 years continuously were

	The Aliens Act		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> allowed to stay and need not apply for periodical extensions of permits All aliens 16 years and above had to register and notify change of name, address or occupation
1949	The Nationality & Citizenship Act		
1952-53	Recession Migration Program revision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intake of worker reduced Increase in family groups Termination of Displaced Persons Scheme 	
	Became member of The Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Signed Assisted Migration Agreement with West Germany 	
1954		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> General Assisted Passages for people from USA, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden & Finland 	
1956	Operation Reunion Relaxation of restrictions for easier entry and stay of non-Europeans		
1957		'Bring out a Briton' campaign	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-Europeans of 15 years residence permitted to become citizens
1958	Revised Migration Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dictation Test abolished Introduction of system of entry points Assisted Migration Agreement with West Germany renewed Negotiation with Spain via ICEM 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> British migrants given equal rights with Australian-born citizens for social service benefits
1959	'Nest Egg' scheme		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sponsorship of non-European spouses and unmarried minor children
1963			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Un-sponsored unassisted migration open to all nationalities and determined by individual merits of applicants

APPENDIX III.3

CHRONOLOGY OF AUSTRALIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES

(p.2)

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1965		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New migration agreements signed with West Germany and Netherlands New ICEM negotiation with Malta 	
1966	Comprehensive review of non-European migration policy		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applications considered on basis of suitability as settler, ability to integrate readily and possession of useful qualifications Temporary residents permitted to become

	Special Passage Assistance Program (SPAP)		citizens after 5 years
1967		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Signed migration settlement agreement with Italy Negotiation for assisted passage for Turkish workers and dependents 	
1971	Economic boom Immigration (Education) Act		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planned intake lowered from 170,000 to 140,000
1972	White Australia Policy dismantled		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planned intake reduced from 140,000 to 110,000
1973			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All migrants eligible for citizenship after 3 years residence
1974-75			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intake reduced to 50,000
1976		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amnesty for overstayers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intake increased to 70,000
1977	New policy for refugees		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1976-77 refugees arrived from 40 countries
1979		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Numerical Multifactor Assessment System (NUMAS) was introduced 	
1981	A Review of Commonwealth Functions recommended termination of assisted passages for all migrants except refugees Launch of Special Humanitarian Program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Passport required for all travellers 	
1982		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Australia-Vietnam agreement for 'Orderly Departure Program' NUMAS replaced by new selection system 	
1984	Changes to Business Migration Program		
1986		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New Independent and Concessional categories introduced for migration of extended family members 	
1987	Skills Transfer Scheme		

APPENDIX III.3

CHRONOLOGY OF AUSTRALIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES

(p.3)

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1988	Reforms of The Committee to Advise on Australia's Immigration Policies (CAAIP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition established 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Division of Migration Program into 3 streams – Family, Skill and Humanitarian
1991	New arrangements for student entry Migration (Health Services) Charge Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of Priority Occupations 	

		List in selection of points tested migrants
1992		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 4,000 Special Assistance visas granted under Humanitarian Program ▪ 2 new visa classes introduced to sponsor Business Skills migrants
	Migration Reform Act	
1995	Migration Legislation Amendment Act	
1997	Migration (Visa Application) Charge Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Creation of new 'Skilled-Australian Linked' category
1999		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ New points test for skilled migrants
2000		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Amendment to 'Employer Nomination Scheme' and Business Skills categories
	Policy changes to enable overseas students to apply onshore for permanent migration	
2001	New Zealand citizens required to obtain PR visa for access to social security payments or Australian citizenship	

Sources: DIMA (2001c), Immigration – Federation to Century's End, 1901-2001, p 1-15
DIMA (2001d), Australian Migration Legislation, Regulations, 22 November 2001

APPENDIX III.4

CHRONOLOGY OF SINGAPORE'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1965	Regulation of Employment Act		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introduction of 1-year work permits
1975	Amendment to Employment Act		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Provision for introduction of levy ▪ Extension of 1-year work permit
1978		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Extension of source countries to non-traditional source (NTS) countries ▪ Introduction of Foreign Domestic Workers Scheme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Domestic workers can be employed from NTS countries
1980		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Implementation of Foreign Worker Levy Scheme for NTS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ S\$230 for NTS labour in construction
1981	Policy announcement that all unskilled foreign workers (except those in domestic services, shipbuilding & construction) were to be phased out; NTSs by 1986 and traditional source by 1991		
1982			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Levy raised to 30% of salary or minimum of S\$150 and extended to NTS labour in all sectors except domestic sector ▪ CPF waived for unskilled labour
1984			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Levy raised to flat rate of S\$200 ▪ New Asian sources (NAS) made available
1985/86	Recession	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Repatriation of 60,000 foreign workers 	

1987		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Implementation of comprehensive levy system Introduction of dependency ceiling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1:2 dependency ratio, except for domestic and marine sectors
1988	Immigration Amendment Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amnesty for and repatriation of illegal workers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Caning for overstayers Levy raised to S\$220
1989		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Levy extended to Malaysians 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Levy raised twice Dependency ceiling lowered to 40%
1990	Employment of Foreign Workers Act (EFWA)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Work permit holders no longer covered by provisions of Employment Act Liberalisation of dependency ceiling for Malaysian workers in service sector from 10 to 20%
1991		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introduction of 2-tier levy scheme for construction sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dependency ceiling for construction sector doubled from 1:1 to 2:1
1992		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Substantial liberalisation of dependency ceilings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5:1 dependency ratio in construction 2:1 dependency ratio in marine sector
1994		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Further liberalisation of dependency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1:1 dependency ratio in manufacturing sector 3:1 dependency ratio in marine sector 1:4 dependency ratio in service sector
1995	Amendments to EFWA		

Source: Wong 1997, p 143-144

APPENDIX III.5

CHRONOLOGY OF MALAYSIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES (p.

1)

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1984		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medan Agreement - Bilateral agreement signed initially with Indonesia and later with Philippines, Thailand and Bangladesh 	
1989		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foreign Worker (F/W) Regularisation Program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Registration of irregular workers in plantation Plantation workers on a 3-year contract to receive similar wages & benefits
1991	Comprehensive Policy on F/W (valid for 5 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compulsory registration of illegal workers by Jun 1992 New recruitment procedures Issue of work permits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Automatic issuance to plantation & construction Documentary evidence of recruitment difficulties needed for manufacturing & services Mandatory contribution to Social Security Organisation (SOCSO)
1992		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Imposition of annual levy – varying by sector and skill 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agriculture RM360; RM54; RM720 Construction RM420; RM600; RM900

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Services RM360; RM540; RM720 ▪ Manufacturing RM420; RM600; RM900 ▪ Expatriates – Technical RM1,200; Professional Middle Management RM1,800; Professional Upper Management RM2,400
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ F/W Regularisation Program (Jan 1992 – Aug 1994) to legalise migrant workers ▪ Registration of irregular workers ▪ Security operation Ops Nyah I
1993 Apr		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ban on further recruitment of all low-skilled F/W ▪ Employers to recruit from detention centres
1993 Jun		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ban lifted for skilled and semi-skilled workers
1994 Jan		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ban on new recruits of skilled and semi-skilled workers
1994 Jun		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ban lifted for skilled workers in manufacturing sector

APPENDIX III.5

CHRONOLOGY OF MALAYSIA'S FOREIGN LABOUR POLICY MEASURES (p. 2)

Year	Legislative/Policy Framework	Administrative Measures	Provisions
1994 Oct		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Establishment of One-stop Task Force in Home Affairs Ministry 	
1995 Aug		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All recruitment (except shop assistants and maids) conducted by Task Force 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Employers to apply directly to Task Force
1995 Oct		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Issue of eleven new guidelines on F/W recruitment 	
1996		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ F/W Regularisation Program (Jun 1996 – Dec 1996) to legalise irregular workers ▪ 3-month Amnesty (Oct-Dec '96) ▪ Security operation Ops Nyah II 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Registration of irregular workers ▪ Formation of 16 enforcement teams and allocation of RM10 million to build detention centres ▪ Recruitment only from detention centres
1997 Jan		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Task Force to become a separate unit within 	

		Immigration Department	
	Amendments to Immigration Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Heavier fines/penalties 	
1997 Mar		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Task Force disbanded Functions taken over by F/W Division of Immigration Department 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> F/W Regularisation Program in Sabah (Mar – Aug) 	
1997 Aug		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Total ban on F/W following Jul '97 financial crisis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-renewals of all expired work permits Length of stay raised – Plantation 7-years; Manufacturing 6-years
1998		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> F/W Regularisation Program in Sarawak (Feb – Mar) Annual levy increase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual levy raised to RM1,500 for all sectors, except agriculture and domestic helpers Tighter conditions for employment of domestic helpers – RM10,000 monthly income ceiling for Filipino & Sri Lankan maids
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contribution to Employees Provident Fund (EPF) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compulsory for all F/W except domestic helpers Contribution – Employer's 12%; Employee's 11% of monthly wages
2001 Oct		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maximum limit of Temporary Work Pass reduced 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Issue limited from 7 to 3 years

Source: Kanapathy (2001), p 456-461
Pillai & Yusof (1998), p 140-141

APPENDIX IV.1

KOHLBERG'S SIX STAGES OF COGNITIVE MORAL DEVELOPMENT

	WHAT IS RIGHT	REASONS FOR DOING RIGHT	SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE OF STAGE
1. Preconventional			
STAGE 1: Heteronomous Morality	Obedient to the rules of those in authority	To avoid punishment	Egocentric point of view
STAGE 2: Individualism, Instrumental Purpose & Exchange	Reciprocal fairness in exchange	To serve self-interests but recognising that other people have their needs too	Concrete individualistic perspective
2. Conventional			
STAGE 3: Mutual Interpersonal Expectations, Relationships & Interpersonal	Conforming to the rules, expectations & conventions of society	Need to look 'good' in own eyes and those of others. Concern about interpersonal	<u>Perspective of the individual in shared relationships with other</u>

Conformity or some significant reference group (eg family, peer). Includes keeping mutual relationships such as trust, loyalty, respect and gratitude

trust and loyalty, social approval and welfare of others

individuals (rather than from
APPENDIX VI.1
FIVE INDUSTRY
GROUPINGS
ACCORDING TO US
1987 SIC CODES

GROUP	SIC NUMBER
1	0111-179
2	2011-399
3	4011-499 7011-999
4	5012-599
5	6011-679

Source: Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000

viewpoint of institutional wholes). Individual is able to subordinate his/her needs to the viewpoint and interests of the group or shared relationship

STAGE 4: Social System & Conscience	Fulfilling duties and contributing to group, institution or society. Upholding laws except where they conflict with other fixed social duties	Need to maintain system	Differentiates societal point of view from interpersonal agreement or motives
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3. Postconventional or Principled

STAGE 5: Social Contract or Utility & Individual Rights	Being aware that rules and values are relative and people hold	Obligated to make and abide by laws for the welfare and protection of society	Prior-to-society perspective – redefines the member-of-society view (in conventional level) in
--	--	---	--

STAGE 6: Universal Ethical Principles	different standards. Laws are upheld because they are a social contract and bring about a social benefit	Rational belief in the validity of universal moral principles. Possess a sense of personal commitment to them	terms of an individual moral perspective so that social obligations are defined in ways that can be justified to any moral individual
	Following self-chosen ethical principles of justice, reciprocity, equality, human life and human rights. In instances where the laws violate these principles, the individual will act in accordance with the principle, even at personal risk		Perspective of a moral point of view – commitment to basic morality is seen as preceding acceptance of society’s laws and values

SOURCE: Kohlberg (1976)

Bachelor of Arts (Multidisciplinary), Victoria University of Technology

*A thesis submitted in total fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy*

VOLUME II

**Centre for International Corporate Governance Research (CICGR)
Faculty of Business and Law
Victoria University
2005**

APPENDIX VI.1

FIVE INDUSTRY GROUPINGS ACCORDING TO US 1987 SIC CODES

GROUP	SIC NUMBER	CATEGORY
--------------	-----------------------	-----------------

1	0111-1799	MINING (consisting of Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing Mining and Construction)
2	2011-3999	MANUFACTURING
3	4011-4971 7011-9999	SERVICE (consisting of Transportation & Communications Services & Public Administration)
4	5012-5999	WHOLESALE (consisting of Wholesale & Retail)
5	6011-6799	FINANCE (consisting of Finance, Insurance & Real Estate)

Source: Dun & Bradstreet Who Owns Whom 1999/2000

APPENDIX VI.2
LETTER [EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE
INTERVIEW]

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
«JobTitle»
«Company»
«Address1»
«City»
«State» «PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»,

Re: Request for an Interview

As a PhD research student in the area of business ethics at Victoria University of Technology in Melbourne, I am most interested in meeting with managers involved with human resource decision and policy making. With the spread of internationalisation and the global integration of economies, many organisations have gained access to the human resource pools of other countries. I am very interested to know your particular views and opinions toward issues in the use and management of human resource from other countries.

I will like to thank you for graciously consenting to help me with my research and look forward to our appointment on [Day/Date/Time] in your office. The interview will take about half an hour or so. Any answers that you provide will be both voluntary and confidential. You will be free to ignore any questions any questions that you prefer not to

answer. Your answers will be pooled with answers from other respondents so there will be no way any of those who took part in the study will be identified.

Should you have any queries, please feel free to contact my supervisor, Associate Professor Anona Armstrong (Ph: 03-9688 5350; email: anona.armstrong@vu.edu.au). She will be most happy to speak to you.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

APPENDIX VI.3 Consent Form for Participants

I,(Name)(Designation) at
.....(Name of Organisation)
certify that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in this research entitled "Attitudes to Ethical Management Issues: A Cross-Cultural Approach" being conducted by Ms Aster Yong, a PhD Researcher with Victoria University.

I certify that the nature and objectives of this research have been fully explained to me and that I have the opportunity to raise any questions relevant to the use and availability of the information I provide. I understand that I may withdraw from either answering any of the questions posed to me or from the entire research at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept strictly confidential.

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation may be directed to the Supervisors (Assoc. Prof. Anona Armstrong tel: 9248 1037 or Prof. Ronald Francis tel: 9248 1322). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, P O Box 14428, MCMC, Melbourne, 8001 (tel: 9688 4710).

**APPENDIX VI.4
THANK-YOU LETTER**

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
«Address»
«Company»
«Address1»
«City»
«State» «PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»,

RE: INTERVIEW ON [DATE]

Thank you for most graciously granting me the time to interview you today. I have found your views and opinions most helpful. Please be assured that the information you have provided is strictly confidential. Attached is an abstract of my research for your interest. A copy of the research paper will be made available on request.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

Thank you for your interest in my presentation. I would be grateful if you would like to offer any suggestions on this proposed research.

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**Presentation at BERU 2000
Conference -
Ethical Governance and
Management: Costs and
Benefits**

Friday, 31 March 2000

Ms Aster Yong

Department of Management
Faculty of Business
Victoria University
Footscray Campus
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Australia

***A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES
TOWARDS ETHICAL ISSUES IN THE USE OF FOREIGN
LABOUR***

The global integration of economies and the spread of internationalisation have given many organisations new avenues of tapping into the human resource pool of countries other than their own. Considered *foreign labour*, this can refer to

- (a) non-nationals who are working and residing in the country of employment, or
- (b) workers employed by companies in facilities that are established in other countries.

Foreign workers are often viewed as the “buffer stock of reserve labour”(Stalker 1994, p 102). They are readily taken on during times of shortage but are the first to be shed when the employment situation turns bad. Besides the high risks in unemployment, foreign workers also tend to face discrimination in the work they do, in the wages they earn and in their chances of promotion. Key consideration has to be given to the rights of foreign workers not only as human beings but also as economic agents, who when badly or unfairly treated will become less productive and satisfied workers. The socio-economic problems such dissatisfied workers will cause can also give the host country a bad reputation.

Many researchers, for example, Bohning (1996), Abella (1991) and Rodrik (1997), have found that businesses these days are increasingly turning to foreign sources of labour (both within and outside of their country) and that the numbers of workers migrating across national and international borders are also growing. Countries are becoming multicultural as a result and this makes the call for greater cultural awareness and sensitivity amongst human resource managers even more imperative. With this in place, more equitable policies can thus be assured for foreign workers.

It is the aim of this research to investigate the current perception with regard to the use of foreigners as a labour resource by looking at the different attitudes of managers from dissimilar nationalities, races and religions toward ethical issues in the use of foreign labour. To investigate the relationship between nationality, race and religion and their effects on attitudes, this research will be conducted in two multi-cultural countries – Australia and Singapore. Thus, the variable ‘Nationality’ will be composed of the Australians and the Singaporeans. There will be three groups of participants for the category of ‘Race’ and ‘Religion’. The Caucasians, the Chinese and the Malays will make up the variable ‘Race’. The Christians, the Buddhists and the Muslims will constitute the variable ‘Religion’.

This research will utilise both the qualitative and quantitative methods. From preliminary informal discussions with managers involved in making human resource management decisions, a set of questions will be devised and about thirty survey interviews will be conducted. This will be the qualitative phase of the study. The next phase, the quantitative phase, will involve a mail-out survey to about 210 businesses throughout Australia and Singapore. To provide for every possible cross-comparison between the eight combination variables, this study will employ the use of factorial design that will lend itself to the analysis of variance methods of data analysis.

This research would be of particular interest to managers who are faced with the ever-increasing complexities involved in the management of their human resource as their corporations continue to move and take on competition on a global level.

APPENDIX VI.5

EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Name of Organisation:
 2. Name of Interviewee:
 3. Designation:
-
- 4 - Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. What are your views on this?
 - Are there any other priorities for business?
 - 5 - Do businesses have a social responsibility? If so, to whom?
 - Do businesses have a social responsibility for the local community?
 - local companies?
 - the economy?
 - How would you describe the underlying *cultural* values that drive your company?
 - 6 What are some of the challenges you've encountered in managing human resource in this country today?
 - 7 (a) Tell me what you understand by the term **foreign labour (foreign workers)**
 - (b) What are your views on the import of labour from other countries? (positive/negative aspects)
 - (c) What are your views on businesses here that employ foreign workers?
 - (d) What are your views on Australian companies sending work off to other countries? Eg outsourcing, subcontracting
 - (e) What are your views regarding Australian companies that relocate their business to another country?
 - 8 (a) What is your religion? OR Do you have any religious affiliation?
 - (b) Which particular (religious) values are most important to you in your business dealings?
 - (c) How have these values affected the way you carry out your business?
 - (d) Which particular religious values are most important to you in your dealings with your staff?
 - (e) How have these values affected the way you deal with your staff? In terms of staff management, recruitment and promotion
 - 9 - Can you describe to me some of the ethical dilemmas you've encountered in your business?
 - How did you go about resolving it?
 - 10 Can you tell me how old you are?
 - how long you've worked for this organisation?
 - how long you've been in this position?
 - whether you are married? With children?
 - your nationality?
 - your ethnic group?

APPENDIX VI.6

VIGNETTES

- 1 The senior executives of a major Australian manufacturing company are thinking of relocating its operations to a neighbouring country which would save 50% of its product costs and trigger off substantial growth in the business.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?
How would these concerns influence your decision-making?

- 2 Faced with a shortage of building construction workers, Skyscrapers Ltd has obtained bureaucratic approval to “import” 300 contract workers from a neighbouring country.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?
How would these concerns influence you if you were placed in a similar position?

- 3 Whilst visiting a friend’s fruit plantation, you were informed that none of the fruit pickers were Australians. Some were students and some were working to pay for their holiday here.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?
How would these concerns influence you if you were placed in a similar position?

- 4 At a cocktail party, you overheard a rich industrialist saying to his companion, “It’s cheaper for us to send our iron ore to any third world country for processing into mild steel than for us to do it here in Australia.”

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?
How would these concerns influence you if you were placed in a similar position?

APPENDIX VI.7

EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SAMPLE –
COMPANY PROFILE

		NUMBER (n=36)	PERCENTAGE
INDUSTRY GROUPING	Mining	6	17
	Manufacturing	8	22
	Service	11	30
	Wholesale	6	17
	Finance	5	14
TYPE OF COMPANY	Sole P/Partnership	3	8
	P/L	22	61
	Public	11	31
	Offshore Operation	16	44
	No Offshore Operation	20	56
	Family Owned	7	19
	Not Family Owned	29	81

APPENDIX VI.7

EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SAMPLE –
COMPANY PROFILE

		NUMBER (n=36)	PERCENTAGE
INDUSTRY GROUPING	Mining	6	17
	Manufacturing	8	22
	Service	11	30
	Wholesale	6	17
	Finance	5	14
TYPE OF COMPANY	Sole P/Partnership	3	8
	P/L	22	61
	Public	11	31
	Offshore Operation	16	44

No Offshore Operation	20	56
Family Owned	7	19
Not Family Owned	29	81

APPENDIX VI.8

EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SAMPLE – RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

		NUMBER (n = 36)	PERCENTAGE
GENDER	Male	29	81
	Female	7	19
AGE GROUP	31-40	14	39
	41-50	11	30
	51-60	9	25
	61-63	2	6
STATUS IN COMPANY	Owner/Partner	10	28
	Employee	26	72
	MD/Dir	15 (10 + 5)	42
	HR Manager	9	25
	Other types of Manager	12	33
NATIONALITY	Australian	31	86
	Non-Australian	5	14
PLACE OF BIRTH	Australia	26	72
	Other	10	28
ETHNIC GROUP	North-European	32	89
	South-European	4	11
RELIGION	Christian	28	78
	Buddhist	2	5
	Muslim	1	3
	No Religion	5	14

APPENDIX VI.9

Categorise the responses to the following questions accordingly:-

1(2a) Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. What are your views on this?

Completely	4	AGREE
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Totally	0	DISAGREE

2(6b) What are your views on the import of labour from other countries?

			SKILLED	UNSKILLED
Completely	4	IN FAVOUR		
To a large extent	3			
To some extent	2			
To a little extent	1			
Not at all	0			

3(6c) What are your views on businesses here that employ foreign workers?

			SKILLED	UNSKILLED
Completely	4	IN FAVOUR		
To a large extent	3			
To some extent	2			
To a little extent	1			
Not at all	0			

4(6d) What are your views on Australian companies sending work off to other countries?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Not at all	0	

5(6e) What are your views regarding Australian companies that relocate their business to another country?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	

Not at all	0	
------------	---	--

6(8a) The senior executives of a major Australian manufacturing company are thinking of relocating its operations to a neighbouring country which would save 50% of its product costs and trigger off substantial growth in the business.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?

How would these concerns influence your decision-making?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Not at all	0	

7(8b) Faced with a shortage of building construction workers, Skyscrapers Ltd has obtained bureaucratic approval to “import” 300 contract workers from a neighbouring country.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?

How would these concerns influence your decision-making?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Not at all	0	

8(8c) Whilst visiting a friend’s fruit plantation, you were informed that none of the fruit pickers were Australians. Some were students and some were working to pay for their holiday here.

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?

How would these concerns influence your decision-making?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Not at all	0	

9(8d) *At a cocktail party, you overheard a rich industrialist saying to his companion, “It’s cheaper for us to send our iron ore to any third world country for processing into mild steel than for us to do it here in Australia.”*

What are some of the concerns that you may have in this scenario?

How would these concerns influence your decision-making?

Completely	4	IN FAVOUR
To a large extent	3	
To some extent	2	
To a little extent	1	
Not at all	0	

APPENDIX VI.10

Categorise the responses to the following questions accordingly:-

1(2a) Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. What are your views on this?

AGREE	2
DISAGREE/CAN'T SAY	1
NEUTRAL/UNDECIDED	0

2(6b) What are your views on the import of labour from other countries?

		SKILLED	UNSKILLED
IN FAVOUR	2		
NOT IN FAVOUR/CAN'T SAY	1		
NEUTRAL/UNDECIDED	0		

3(6c) What are your views on businesses here that employ foreign workers?

		SKILLED	UNSKILLED
IN FAVOUR	2		
NOT IN FAVOUR/CAN'T SAY	1		
NEUTRAL/UNDECIDED	0		

4(6d) What are your views on Australian companies sending work off to other countries?

IN FAVOUR	2
NOT IN FAVOUR/CAN'T SAY	1
NEUTRAL/UNDECIDED	0

5(6e) What are your views regarding Australian companies that relocate their business to another country?

IN FAVOUR	2
NOT IN FAVOUR/CAN'T SAY	1
NEUTRAL/UNDECIDED	0

APPENDIX VI.11

**LETTER [CASE STUDY
INTERVIEW]**

Re: Request for an Interview

As a PhD research student with Victoria University in Melbourne, I am investigating the attitudes and experiences of managers, primarily those involved with human resource management and policy decision-making, toward the employment of foreign labour in their country. The thesis itself will focus on managers from two countries – Singapore and Australia. It aims to make a comparison between the attitudes of managers from these two countries with regard to the employment of foreign labour and contribute to the business understanding of cultural differences.

I am most interested in talking with a manager, a Singaporean who is either visiting or working here in Melbourne. I shall be asking for his/her personal views towards issues in the employment and management of human resource from other countries. The interview would take about half an hour or so. Any answers he/she provides will be voluntary and kept confidential. I will be most happy to answer any queries on this research. Please feel free to contact me or any of my colleagues.

Aster Yong

Phone No: 03-9376 3278

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Professor Ronald Francis

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Associate Professor Anona Armstrong

Phone No: 03-9688 5350

Email: anona.armstrong@vu.edu.au

I look forward to hearing from you. Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely,

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
FACULTY OF BUSINESS
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

**SURVEY
ON
THE EMPLOYMENT OF
FOREIGN LABOUR**



Thank you for agreeing to take part in my PhD research which will involve two countries – Australia and Singapore. I would like to tell you a little bit about what I am researching. The use of *foreign* workers to serve either as an alternative or a back-up source of labour is by no means new. However, in the last twenty years or so, there has been a noticeable increase in businesses tapping into the human resource pool of countries other than their own. Avenues of *foreign labour* can come from either

- (a) directly *importing* these workers from outside this country or
- (b) employing temporary residents already in this country or
- (c) *exporting* the work to companies overseas or
- (d) relocating the business to an overseas country and utilising the workers in that country.

Does your company employ *foreign labour*? If it does, how have you found them? I am very interested to hear of your experiences. Even if your company has not employed *foreign labour*, I am still interested to know your views. This is because this research also aims to provide useful resource material for decision and policy makers on *foreign labour*. Your cooperation with this survey will certainly assist in meeting this objective. Thanking you in anticipation.

--	--	--

Please read and complete the following questionnaire as directed.

1. The phrase *importation of labour* implies bringing in workers from other countries into Australia. Some people say this is good for the country but there are others who say otherwise. What is your opinion? Please CIRCLE the option that best expresses your view.

	Does not bother me	Cannot decide	Not in favour at all	Favour to a little extent	Favour to some extent	Favour to a large extent	Favour completely
Skilled (ie trade/ tertiary/ specialist) labour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unskilled labour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Would you state the reason(s) for your view on skilled labour

Would you state the reason(s) for your view on unskilled labour

2. Have workers ever been 'imported' by this company? (please TICK a box)

1 Never**GO TO Q. 8**

2 Yes

3. How many approximately?

4. What kind of work were they 'imported' for?

5. What kind of wage and working conditions were they employed under? (please TICK a box)

1 Those determined by the Australian Industrial Relations Commission (AIRC)

2 Other (please specify)

6. From your experience, what have been some of the **advantages** of 'imported' labour?

7. From your experience, what have been some of the **disadvantages** of 'imported' labour?

8. *Foreign workers* are workers who are *non-nationals* residing in this country, for example, permanent residents, overseas students, holiday-makers etc. What are your views concerning businesses in Australia that employ *foreign workers*? Please **CIRCLE** the option that best expresses your view.

	Does not bother me	Cannot decide	Not in favour at all	Favour to a little extent	Favour to some extent	Favour to a large extent	Favour completely
Skilled (ie trade/ tertiary/ specialist) Workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unskilled Workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Would you state the reason(s) for your view on skilled workers

Would you state the reason(s) for your view on unskilled workers

9. Has this company employed *foreign workers*? (please TICK a box)

1 Never**GO TO Q.15**

2 Yes

10. How many approximately?

11. What kind of work were they employed for?

12. What kind of wage and working conditions were they employed under?

1 Those determined by the Australian Industrial Relations Commission (AIRC)

2 Other (please specify)

13. From your experience, what have been some of the **advantages** of *foreign workers*?

14. From your experience, what have been some of the **disadvantages** of *foreign workers*?

15. You might have heard of companies here in Australia sending the work, either by way of subcontracting or outsourcing, to companies in other countries. How do you feel about this? Please **CIRCLE** the option that best expresses your view.

Does not bother me	Cannot decide	Not in favour at all	Favour to a little extent	Favour to some extent	Favour to a large extent	Favour completely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Would you state the reason(s) for your view

16. Has any sort of work ever been sent to other countries by this company? (please **TICK** a box)

- 1 Never**GO TO Q. 20**
- 2 Yes

17. What sort of work was that?

18. From your experience, what have been some of the **advantages** of sending work off to other countries?

19. From your experience, what have been some of the **disadvantages** of sending work off to other countries?

20. There have been instances of Australian companies relocating their entire business operations to another country. How do you feel about this? Please **CIRCLE** the option that best expresses your view.

Does not bother me	Cannot decide	Not in favour at all	Favour to a little extent	Favour to some extent	Favour to a large extent	Favour completely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Would you state the reason(s) for your view

Now I would like to present three short scenarios and ask you to give your opinions about them.

21. Skyscrapers Ltd will in the months to come experience great difficulty in getting workers for its building projects. The government has just announced its plans to build a high tech convention centre as part of the launch of a major international event scheduled in one and a half-year's time. It is offering attractive salary packages to ensure that this building will be completed on time. Skyscrapers Ltd can look to source workers from other countries to complete its building projects. If you were in the position of making decisions for this company, how likely would you vote to bring in workers from other countries? Please **CIRCLE** the number that will indicate the action you would take.

Not likely at all							Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Would you state the reason(s) for the action you would take

22. As a senior executive of a furniture company you are contending with the ever-increasing costs of production. You discovered, whilst on a visit to a neighbouring country, that you have two options to consider. In the first instance, you could save quite substantially on the high costs of running the business by having your furniture manufactured by a company in this country and releasing most of your workers. You would, of course, keep a few to handle the technical design and administrative jobs. In the second instance, if you were to move your entire business operations to this neighbouring country, it could enable you to make quite good cost savings. Which option are you more likely to consider? Please CIRCLE that option.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Send the work to the company in the other country |
| 2 | Move your business operations to the other country |

Would you state the reason(s) for your chosen option

23. Your company develops educational software for school children. You are to select an appropriate candidate for a new specialist position. The following lists some of the important selection factors you will be considering. Please **CIRCLE** the number that best indicates the level of importance each factor would be to you in making this selection.

		Of no importance					Of great importance	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a)	Gender	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b)	Age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c)	Marital status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d)	Nationality (ie citizen of the country)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e)	Place of birth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f)	Ethnic identity (eg Anglo-Celt, Italian, Greek, Chinese etc)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g)	Religion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h)	Educational qualification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i)	Experience/publications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j)	Years of work experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. Please TICK the option that best expresses your opinion.

Profit is the prime motive of business. Agree-GO TO A

Disagree GO TO E

	Strongly disagree	(Please CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion)					Strongly agree
A It is the reason for being in business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B Cannot keep going otherwise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C Measure of success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D A waste of time otherwise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E Profit is important and necessary but it is not the main reason for being in business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Any other comments you would like to add

25. The following is a list of items that people consider important to business. How would you describe your company's priority for each of the following items? Please **CIRCLE** the option that best expresses your view.

		Of no importance						Of great importance
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a)	Profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b)	Good quality service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c)	Good quality product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d)	Staff well being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e)	Staff competency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f)	Staff work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g)	Staff loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h)	Teamwork	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i)	Product development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j)	Company's public image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k)	Company's growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l)	Company's capital (\$) investments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m)	Fostering good relationships with associates in business eg partners, suppliers, government bodies etc	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

n)	Community-mindedness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o)	Maximising shareholder returns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p)	Environmental responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q)	Others (please specify)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	-----	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	-----	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time with these questions. I just need you to tell me a little bit about yourself. The information you provide is for statistical classification only. (Please TICK an appropriate box where applicable)

YOUR STATUS IN THIS COMPANY: **Sole Owner** **Part**

Owner

Other (please specify title of position)

.....

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN IN THIS POSITION?

.....

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THIS ORGANISATION?

.....

CITIZEN OF (which country):

.....

BORN IN (which country):

.....

AGE: **25-30** **30-40** **41-50** **51 & above**

ETHNIC IDENTITY: Anglo-Celt Italian Greek Chinese

Malay Indian Other (please specify)

.....

RELIGION: Christian Buddhist Muslim Other (please specify)

.....

Would you also tell me a little bit about this company? (Please TICK an appropriate box where applicable)

MAIN BUSINESS INTEREST:

.....

.....

TYPE OF COMPANY: Sole Proprietor Partnership

Proprietary Limited Public-listed

IS THIS A Family-owned *Not* Family-owned BUSINESS?

WHERE DOES THIS COMPANY OPERATE BESIDES MELBOURNE?

.....

.....

.

.....

.

Thank you for your interest in this survey. If you would like an abstract of the study, I will be happy to send one to you.

I would like an abstract of the study to be sent to

Dr Mr Mrs Ms(name)

Name of Company

Address

APPENDIX VI.13

AUSTRALIAN RESPONDENTS' VIEWS ON BRINGING FOREIGN WORKERS INTO AUSTRALIA (Q1)

	In Favour	Not in Favour	Total
Skilled	6	0	6
Unskilled	3	3	6

Total	9	3	12
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In the table above, A = 6, B = 0, C = 3 and D = 3. The total number of response (N) is 12.

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= \frac{(A + B)! (C + D)! (A + C)! (B + D)}{N! A! B! C! D!} \\
 &= \frac{(6 + 0)! (3 + 3)! (6 + 3)! (0 + 3)}{12! 6! 0! 3! 3!} \\
 &= \frac{6! 6! 9! 3!}{12! 6! 0! 3! 3!} \\
 &= \frac{720 \times 720 \times 362880 \times 6}{479001600 \times 720 \times 1 \times 6 \times 6} \\
 &= 0.0909
 \end{aligned}$$

APPENDIX VI.14

AUSTRALIAN RESPONDENTS' VIEWS ON EMPLOYING FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN AUSTRALIA (Q8)

	In Favour	Not in Favour	Total
Skilled	2	4	6
Unskilled	1	5	6

Total	3	9	12
-------	---	---	----

In the table above, A = 2, B = 4, C = 1 and D = 5. The total number of response (N) is 12.

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= \frac{(A+B)!(C+D)!(A+C)!(B+D)}{N!A!B!C!D!} \\
 &= \frac{(2+4)!(1+5)!(2+1)!(4+5)}{12!2!4!1!5!} \\
 &= \frac{6!6!3!9!}{12!2!4!1!5!} \\
 &= \frac{720 \times 720 \times 6 \times 362880}{479001600 \times 2 \times 24 \times 1 \times 120} \\
 &= 0.4090
 \end{aligned}$$

APPENDIX VI.15

AUSTRALIAN RESPONDENTS' VIEWS ON SENDING WORK TO OTHER COUNTRIES AND RELOCATION OF BUSINESS (Q15 & Q20)

	In Favour	Not in Favour	Total
Sending Work Overseas	3	3	6
Relocation of Business	1	5	6
Total	4	8	12

In the table above, A = 3, B = 3, C = 1 and D = 5. The total number of response (N) is 12.

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= \frac{(A+B)!(C+D)!(A+C)!(B+D)}{N!A!B!C!D!} \\
 &= \frac{(3+3)!(1+5)!(3+1)!(3+5)}{12!3!3!1!5!}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{6!6!4!8!}{12!3!3!1!5!}$$

$$= \frac{720 \times 720 \times 24 \times 40320}{479001600 \times 6 \times 6 \times 1 \times 120}$$

$$= 0.2424$$

APPENDIX VI.16 SURVEY RANDOM SAMPLE

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
 FACULTY OF BUSINESS
 DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

**SURVEY
 ON
 THE EMPLOYMENT OF
 FOREIGN LABOUR**



Thank you for taking part in this survey which will be conducted in two countries – Australia and Singapore. The employment of foreign workers to serve either as an alternative or a back-up source of labour is by no means new. However, in the last twenty years or so, there has been a noticeable increase in businesses tapping into the human resource pool of countries other than their own.

Before you proceed to answer the questions I will like to clarify some terms. The term *foreign labour* has generally been perceived also as *migrant labour*. *Foreign labour* is simply looked upon as work that is carried out by foreigners. These include those who have not become citizens of the country they are presently working and residing in. *Migrant labour*, on the other hand, is more closely associated with the idea that the foreigner has intentions not only of working but also of taking up a more permanent residency (and even citizenship) in the foreign country. Since this research is interested in the attitudes of managers primarily towards the work-related aspects of foreign labour, it will therefore advise all participants to disregard the migration-related aspects of foreign labour as these will involve very different considerations.

Thus, the term *foreign labour* will refer to :-

- (e) the foreign nationals who are brought over to work in Australia
- (f) the foreign nationals residing and working in Australia
- (g) the workers (nationals and non-nationals included) of a company in another country who are employed to do the work sent over by companies located here in Australia
- (h) the workers (nationals and non-nationals included) employed by an Australian company established in that (foreign) country*.

Has your company employed *foreign labour* in any of the categories mentioned above? If it has, how have you found them? I am very interested to learn of your experiences. I will also like to know of your opinions regarding the other classifications of *foreign labour*. Even if your company has never employed any *foreign workers*, I am still interested to be informed

of your views. This is because this research also aims to provide useful resource material for decision and policy makers on *foreign labour*. Your cooperation with this survey will certainly assist in meeting this objective. Thanking you in anticipation.

* By way of either setting a branch or entire relocation of their business operations

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Please read and complete the following questionnaire as directed.

I Foreign nationals to work in Australia

Q1 Some people say bringing workers in from other countries into Australia is good for this country. There are others who might say otherwise. What is your opinion? There are two kinds of workers to consider – skilled and unskilled workers. A *skilled worker* refers to one who possesses a tertiary or trade qualification and/or is equipped with the trained ability for a specific job. An *unskilled worker* refers to one who has no specialised training or qualification.

(Tick [3] the appropriate boxes)

Favour bringing in	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled foreign workers <input type="checkbox"/> Unskilled foreign workers	* Proceed to answer Q2a * Proceed to answer Q2b
Not in favour of bringing in	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled foreign workers <input type="checkbox"/> Unskilled foreign workers	* Proceed to answer Q3 * Proceed to answer Q3

Q2a Some people have given the following reasons for bringing skilled foreign workers in from other countries into Australia.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

		Least in favour						Most in favour
- for senior executive positions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- for other managerial positions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- for specialist positions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- for skill gap/shortage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- for skill transfer/exchange	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- for competing on global market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

(Other reasons you may like to include)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

IF you Favour bringing in Unskilled foreign workers * Q2b OTHERWISE Proceed to answer Q4

over

Please turn

Q2b Some people have given the following reasons for bringing unskilled foreign workers in from other countries into Australia.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Least in favour							Most in favour
- to meet short supply in industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- to take on jobs Australians are not prepared to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Proceed to answer Q4

Q3 Some people have given the following reasons for *not favouring* the bringing in of workers from other countries into Australia.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
- the number of favourable jobs for Australians is reduced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- unemployment amongst Australians is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- the burden on the welfare system when these 'foreign' workers are unable to secure jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q4 Has this company ever brought workers in from other countries?

CIRCLE **one** number that best expresses your opinion

- 1 Never * Proceed to answer Q6
- 2 Once only (Indicate the number brought in _____)
- 3 On a few occasions (Indicate the _____ and _____ number ever brought in)
[smallest] [largest]
- 4 Regularly (Indicate the _____ and _____ number ever brought in)
[smallest] [largest]

Q5 What kind of work were they brought in for? Please TICK [3] the option that best describes the salary and working conditions they were employed under.

Salary and working conditions determined by

- | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---|--|---|
| 1 | Managerial | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |
| 2 | Technical | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |
| 3 | Sales | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |
| 4 | Administrative | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |
| 5 | Other (please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |
| | | <input type="checkbox"/> International market standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations | <input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin |

II Foreign nationals residing and working in Australia

Q6 The term *foreign workers* can also refer to foreign nationals who are presently working and residing in this country. They may be permanent, semi-permanent or temporary residents who have not yet become citizens of this country. What are your views regarding employing foreign nationals here in this country? Again, there are two kinds of workers to consider – skilled and unskilled workers. A *skilled worker* is one who possesses a tertiary or trade qualification and/or is equipped with the trained ability for a specific job. An *unskilled worker* is one who has no specialised training or qualification.

(Tick [3] the appropriate boxes)

Favour employing

Skilled foreign nationals

* Proceed to answer Q7

	<input type="checkbox"/> Unskilled foreign nationals	* Proceed to answer Q7
Not in favour of employing	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled foreign nationals	* Proceed to answer Q8
	<input type="checkbox"/> Unskilled foreign nationals	* Proceed to answer Q8

Please turn

over

Q7 Some people have given the following reasons for employing foreign nationals already in this country.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- 'the best person for the job'	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- their willingness to work and take on jobs Australians are not prepared to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- their ability to fit in with 'local' environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- legitimate immigration clearance to work in this country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- a PR is the same as an 'Australian' (meaning a non-Australian status is not an issue)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- cultural diversity is good for the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

↳ IF you were **Not in Favour** of employing skilled/unskilled foreign nationals * **Q8** OTHERWISE Proceed to answer **Q9**

Q8 Some people have given the following reasons for *not favouring* the employment of foreign nationals already in this country.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- the number of favourable jobs for Australians is reduced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- unemployment amongst Australians is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q9 Has this company ever employed foreign nationals?

CIRCLE **one** number that best expresses your opinion

1 Never * Proceed to answer Q11

2 Once only (Indicate the number employed _____)

3 On a few occasions (Indicate the _____ and _____ number ever employed)
[smallest] [largest]

4 Regularly (Indicate the _____ and _____ number ever employed)
[smallest] [largest]

Q10 What kind of work were they employed for? Please TICK [3] the option that best describes the salary and working conditions they were employed under.

Salary and working conditions determined by

1	Managerial	<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin
2	Technical	<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin
3	Sales	<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin
4	Administrative	<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin
5	Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin
		<input type="checkbox"/> International market standards	<input type="checkbox"/> Australian labour regulations	<input type="checkbox"/> Labour regulations in worker's country of origin

III 'Foreign' workers of a company in another country

Q11 You might have heard of companies here in Australia sending work, either by way of subcontracting or outsourcing, to companies in other countries. What is your view on this? Please TICK [3] the appropriate box.

<input type="checkbox"/>	In favour of sending the work to companies in other countries	* Proceed to answer Q12
<input type="checkbox"/>	Not in favour of sending the work to companies in other countries	* Proceed to answer Q13

Please turn over

Q12 Some people have given the following reasons for sending the work to companies in other countries.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- in keeping with principle of 'best person (or business)' for the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- to ensure company's sustainability and profitability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- for company to be competitive on the world market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- to foster international trade relations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- for a competitive product, both in price and quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➔ Proceed to answer **Q14**

Q13 Some people have given the following reasons for *not favouring* the sending of work to companies in other countries.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- Australian community missing out on the generation of wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- loss of jobs to Australian community leading to increase in unemployment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- possible disappearance of particular jobs for Australian community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- prefer product to be made in Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q14 Has any sort of work ever been sent to other countries by this company?

CIRCLE **one** number that best expresses your opinion

1 Never	* Proceed to answer Q16
2 Once only	* Proceed to answer Q15
3 On a few occasions	* Proceed to answer Q15
4 Regularly	* Proceed to answer Q15

Q15 What sort of work was that?

IV 'Foreign' workers of an Australian company located in another country

Q16 There have been instances of Australian companies setting up a branch of their business operations in another country. What is your view on this? Please TICK [3] the appropriate box.

In favour

* Proceed to answer **Q17**

Not in favour

* Proceed to answer **Q18**

over

Please turn

Q17 Some people have given the following reasons for setting up a branch of their business operations in another country.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
- maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- for company to be and to remain competitive on the world market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- access to resources not available in this country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- foster international trade relations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➔ Proceed to answer **Q19**

Q18 Some people have given the following reasons for *not favouring* the setting up of an Australian branch operation in another country.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
- Australian community missing out on the generation of wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- loss of jobs to Australian community leading to increase in unemployment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- possible disappearance of particular jobs for Australian community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- prefer product to be made in Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q19 There also have been instances of Australian companies relocating their entire business operations to another country. What is your view on this? Please TICK [3] the appropriate box.

In favour

* Proceed to answer **Q20**

Not in favour

* Proceed to answer **Q21**

Q20 Some people have given the following reasons for relocating their entire business operations to another country.							
[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]							
	Disagree						Agree completely
- maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- for company to be competitive on the world market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- to foster international trade relations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- access to resources not available in this country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(Other reasons you may like to include)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

→ Proceed to answer Q22

over

Please turn

Q21 Some people have given the following reasons for *not favouring* the relocation of Australian businesses to another country.

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]

	Disagree						Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- Australian community missing out on the generation of wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- loss of jobs to Australian community leading to increase in unemployment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- possible disappearance of particular jobs for Australian community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- prefer product to be made in Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- effect on small businesses that are dependent on the business from this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Other reasons you may like to include)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

V Presenting three short scenarios

Q22 Say, for instance, your company was to experience great difficulty in getting workers here in this country. How would you obtain the workers you need for your company projects?

[CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion on each of the reasons listed]								
	Least in favour							Most in favour
Through a local labour agency that can provide 'foreign workers'	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Through a labour agency located in a foreign country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Recruit personally from foreign country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(Any other comments you may like to include)								

Q23a As a senior executive of a furniture company you are contending with the ever-increasing costs of production. Whilst on a visit to a neighbouring country, you discovered that it has a good natural resource of timber and the labour costs are not as high as those found in your country. With this in mind, you begin to consider three options. In the first two instances, you could save quite substantially by releasing most of your workers except for a few to handle the technical design and administrative jobs. Your furniture then can be manufactured either by a company in this neighbouring country or you could choose to set up a branch office in this country yourself. In the third instance, you could move your entire business operations to this neighbouring country and make even greater cost savings. Please CIRCLE the number that best indicates the extent you are likely to consider each option.

	Least in favour							Most in favour
Send the work to a company located in the neighbouring country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Set up a branch of your company in this neighbouring country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Move your entire business operations to this neighbouring country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(Any other comments you may like to include)								

Q23b *Some people find living in a 'foreign' country very appealing. How likely are you to consider living in another country*

with a culture that is totally different from yours? Please CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion.

Not likely at all							Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

over

Q24

Your company develops educational software for school children. You are required to select a few appropriate candidates to design and develop a training program for science students. The following lists some of the important selection factors you will be considering. Please CIRCLE the number that best indicates the level of importance each factor would be to you in making this selection.

Please turn

	Of no importance							Of great importance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Gender	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Marital status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Nationality (ie being a citizen of this country)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Place of birth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Ethnic identity (eg Anglo-Celt, Italian, Greek, Chinese etc)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Religion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Educational qualification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Experience/publications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Years of work experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

VI Your business views

Q25 Often we hear people in business say they are in business to make money, that profit is the prime motive of business. Please TICK [3] the option that best expresses your opinion.

Profit is the prime motive of business. Agree

A, B, C, D

* Proceed to answer

Disagree

* Proceed to answer E

	Disagree	(Please CIRCLE the number that best expresses your opinion)						Agree Completely
A It is the reason for being in business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
B Cannot keep going otherwise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
C Measure of success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
D A waste of time otherwise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
E Profit is important and necessary but it is NOT the main reason for being in business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Any other comments you may like to include

Please turn

over
Q26

The following is a list of items that people consider important to business. How would you describe your company's priority for each of the following items? Please **CIRCLE** the number that best expresses your own view.

	Of no importance							Of great importance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Good quality service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Good quality product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Staff well being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Staff competency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Staff work ethic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Staff loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Teamwork	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Product development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Company's public image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
- Company's growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

-	Company's capital (\$) investments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-	Fostering good relationships with associates in business eg partners, suppliers, government bodies etc	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-	Community-mindedness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-	Maximising shareholder returns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-	Environmental responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-	Others (please specify)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	-----	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Can you tell me a little bit about yourself? No identification to be entered on this sheet. The data is only used for statistical purposes. Please TICK [3] where applicable.

YOUR STATUS IN THIS COMPANY

- Sole owner
- Part owner
- Other (please specify title of position)

GENDER

- Male
- Female

AGE (in years)

- 25 -30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61 and above

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN IN THIS POSITION?

- less than 1 year
- between 1-2 years
- between 2-5 years
- between 5-10 years
- 10 years and above

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THIS ORGANISATION?

- less than 1 year
- between 1-2 years
- between 2-5 years
- between 5-10 years
- 10 years and above

Will you also tell me a little bit about this company? Please TICK [3] where applicable.

MAIN BUSINESS INTEREST

TYPE OF COMPANY

- Sole proprietor
- Partnership
- Proprietary limited
- Public-listed
- Other (please specify)

CITIZEN OF (which country?)

- Australia
- Other (please specify the country)

BORN IN (which country?)

- Australia
- Other (please specify the country)

ETHNIC IDENTITY

- Anglo-Celt
- Italian
- Greek
- Chinese
- Malay
- Indian
- Other (please specify)

RELIGION

- Christian
- Buddhist
- Muslim
- Hindu
- Other (please specify)

THIS COMPANY IS

- family-owned
- not family-owned

BESIDES THIS LOCATION, WHERE ELSE DOES THIS COMPANY OPERATE?

- Other states in Australia
- New Zealand
- Pacific Islands
- Asia
- Middle East
- North America
- South America
- Africa

Europe

Thank you for your interest in this survey. If you would like an abstract of the study, I will be happy to send one to you.

<p>I would like an abstract of the study to be sent to</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Dr <input type="checkbox"/> Mr <input type="checkbox"/> Mrs <input type="checkbox"/> Ms(name)</p> <p>Name of Company</p> <p>Address</p>
--

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO

**Ms Aster Yong
School of Management (F037)
Victoria University
P O Box 14428
Melbourne City MC
Vic 8001
AUSTRALIA.**

Fax 03 – 9688 4272

Victoria University of Technology
PO Box 14428
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Australia

Telephone:
(03) 9688 4535
Facsimile:
(03) 9688 4272
Email:
Business.Management@vu.edu.au

APPENDIX VI.17
SURVEY COVER LETTER
FOR RANDOM SAMPLE



Footscray Park Campus
School of Management
Ballarat Road
Footscray

Mr
Managing Director
Company's Name
Address

VIC

Dear Mr

PHD SURVEY ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN LABOUR

With the spread of internationalisation and the global integration of economies, many organisations have gained access to the human resource pools of other countries. As a PhD research student in the area of business ethics at Victoria University of Technology in Melbourne, I am most interested in the experiences of managers involved with human resource management and policy decision-making and their views toward the employment of foreign labour.

Your company is one in a sample drawn randomly from an international business database and to be truly representative it is really important both to this project and the wider business community that you (or another suitable colleague) complete this questionnaire and return it to me.

The questionnaire is made up of mainly multiple choice questions that should take you about fifteen minutes to answer. It will be best to give your first impression to each question. Your responses will be kept confidential. Please be assured that neither you nor your organisation will be identified in any way.

Please fill out the questionnaire and return it to me by (date). A postage paid envelope is included. Should you have any queries or want clarification on any aspect of this study, please feel free to contact me or any of my colleagues: we would be most happy to speak to you.

Aster Yong

Ph: 03 – 9688 5383

Email: aster.yong@research.vu.edu.au

Professor Ronald Francis

Ph: 03-9688 5349

Email: ronald.francis@vu.edu.au

Associate Professor Anona Armstrong

Ph: 03-9688 5350

Email: anona.armstrong@vu.edu.au

Thank you for your time and cooperation. I look forward to receiving your views on this important issue and will be pleased to make available a copy of the report upon your request.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

APPENDIX VI.18 FOLLOW-UP LETTER

Dear

THE SURVEY ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN LABOUR

We are conducting a survey on the employment of foreign labour and recently sent a questionnaire to you requesting your participation. As we have not obtained a response we are checking with you that it was received.

Your co-operation in this important piece of research is requested and would be very much appreciated. This study aims to make a contribution to business understanding of the cultural differences that exist between the attitudes of managers from Singapore and Australia with regard to the employment of foreign labour. May we seriously request that you (or another suitable colleague) consider your participation in this survey as important not only for this study but also for the wider business communities of Singapore and Australia. Your viewpoints will be of interest to decision and policy makers concerned with the employment of foreign labour. You will be interested to know that your company was randomly drawn from an international business database, and thus important to the study as being a representative in the sample.

The survey is made up of mainly multiple choice questions that should take you about fifteen minutes to answer. Your responses will be kept confidential. Please feel free to ignore any questions you prefer not to answer, and be assured that neither you nor your organisation will be identified in any way.

In case the copy of the questionnaire did not reach you, we are enclosing another and would greatly welcome your completing this concise document as soon as possible. If you have any queries or need clarification on any aspect of this study, please feel free to contact me or any of my colleagues: we would be most happy to speak to you.

Aster Yong
Ph: 03-9688 5383

Email: aster.yong@research.vu.edu.au

Professor Ronald Francis

Ph: 03-9688 5349

Email: ronald.francis@vu.edu.au

Associate Professor Anona Armstrong

Ph: 03-9688 5350

Email: anona.armstrong@vu.edu.au

Thank you for your time and cooperation and we look forward to receiving your views on this important and relevant issue. When the study is complete we would be pleased to send you a summary of the conclusions, and to answer any other questions that you might have that would be of interest to you and your organisation.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

**APPENDIX VI.19
THANK-YOU LETTER**

Date

Title
Job Title
Company
Address

Dear Mr

PhD Survey on the employment of foreign labour

Thank you for responding to the above-mentioned survey. I truly appreciate your contribution. When the study is complete I will be happy to send your company a summary of the findings.

Once again, thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

APPENDIX VI.20

**Frequency Tables for Random Sample (N=120)
COMPANY PROFILE**

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	80	39.4	66.7	66.7
	Singapore	40	19.7	33.3	100.0
	Total	120	59.1	100.0	
Missing	System	83	40.9		
Total		203	100.0		

Receive from

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	NSW	32	40.0	40.0	40.0
		Queensland	7	8.8	8.8	48.8
		Victoria	19	23.8	23.8	72.5
		WA	12	15.0	15.0	87.5
		Tasmania	3	3.8	3.8	91.3
		ACT	2	2.5	2.5	93.8
		SA	5	6.3	6.3	100.0
		Total	80	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	40	100.0	100.0	100.0

Main business interest

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Mining etc	9	11.3	11.3	11.3
		Manufacturing	24	30.0	30.0	41.3
		Services	25	31.3	31.3	72.5
		Wholesale	15	18.8	18.8	91.3
		Finance, Investment	7	8.8	8.8	100.0
		Total	80	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Mining etc	5	12.5	12.5	12.5
		Manufacturing	9	22.5	22.5	35.0
		Services	11	27.5	27.5	62.5
		Wholesale	5	12.5	12.5	75.0
		Finance, Investment	10	25.0	25.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Type of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Sole Proprietor	5	6.3	6.3	6.3
		Proprietary Ltd	57	71.3	71.3	77.5
		Public-listed	16	20.0	20.0	97.5
		Other	2	2.5	2.5	100.0
		Total	80	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Sole Proprietor	1	2.5	2.5	2.5
		Partnership	3	7.5	7.5	10.0
		Proprietary Ltd	20	50.0	50.0	60.0
		Public-listed	16	40.0	40.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Family-owned or not

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Family-owned	41	51.3	51.3	51.3
		Not Family-owned	39	48.8	48.8	100.0
		Total	80	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Family-owned	9	22.5	22.5	22.5
		Not Family-owned	31	77.5	77.5	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Locations of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	44	55.0	55.7	55.7
		AUSTRALIA offshore	35	43.8	44.3	100.0
		Total	79	98.8	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	1.3		
	Total		80	100.0		
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	4	10.0	10.0	10.0
		SINGAPORE offshore	36	90.0	90.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX VI.21

**Frequency Tables for Random Sample (N=120)
RESPONDENTS' PROFILE**

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	80	39.4	66.7	66.7
	Singapore	40	19.7	33.3	100.0
	Total	120	59.1	100.0	
Missing	System	83	40.9		
Total		203	100.0		

Gender

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Male	68	85.0	87.2	87.2
		Female	10	12.5	12.8	100.0
		Total	78	97.5	100.0	
	Missing	System	2	2.5		
	Total		80	100.0		
Singapore	Valid	Male	32	80.0	80.0	80.0
		Female	8	20.0	20.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Age

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	25-30	4	5.0	5.1	5.1
		31-40	12	15.0	15.4	20.5
		41-50	30	37.5	38.5	59.0
		51-60	25	31.3	32.1	91.0
		61 & above	7	8.8	9.0	100.0
		Total	78	97.5	100.0	
	Missing	System	2	2.5		
Total		80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	25-30	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
		31-40	4	10.0	10.0	15.0
		41-50	17	42.5	42.5	57.5
		51-60	15	37.5	37.5	95.0
		61 & above	2	5.0	5.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Status in company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Sole owner	8	10.0	10.4	10.4
		Part owner	22	27.5	28.6	39.0
		Employee	47	58.8	61.0	100.0
		Total	77	96.3	100.0	
	Missing	System	3	3.8		
Total		80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	Sole owner	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
		Part owner	8	20.0	20.0	25.0
		Employee	30	75.0	75.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Position in company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	MD/Dir	41	51.3	53.2	53.2
		Other Mgr	26	32.5	33.8	87.0
		HR Mgr	6	7.5	7.8	94.8
		Other	4	5.0	5.2	100.0
		Total	77	96.3	100.0	
	Missing	System	3	3.8		
	Total	80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	MD/Dir	20	50.0	50.0	50.0
		Other Mgr	8	20.0	20.0	70.0
		HR Mgr	7	17.5	17.5	87.5
		Other	5	12.5	12.5	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Citizenship

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	76	95.0	97.4	97.4
		AUSTRALIA - Other	2	2.5	2.6	100.0
		Total	78	97.5	100.0	
	Missing	System	2	2.5		
	Total	80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	37	92.5	92.5	92.5
		SINGAPORE - Other	3	7.5	7.5	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Born in

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	53	66.3	67.9	67.9
		AUSTRALIA - Other	25	31.3	32.1	100.0
		Total	78	97.5	100.0	
	Missing	System	2	2.5		
	Total	80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	31	77.5	77.5	77.5
		SINGAPORE - Other	9	22.5	22.5	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Recode identity

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Anglo-Celt/Caucasian	66	82.5	85.7	85.7
		Chinese	4	5.0	5.2	90.9
		Malay/Indian	1	1.3	1.3	92.2
		Other	6	7.5	7.8	100.0
		Total	77	96.3	100.0	
	Missing	System	3	3.8		
	Total	80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	Anglo-Celt/Caucasian	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
		Chinese	37	92.5	92.5	97.5
		Malay/Indian	1	2.5	2.5	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Religion1

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	83	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Christian	57	71.3	76.0	76.0
		Buddhist	1	1.3	1.3	77.3
		Other	4	5.0	5.3	82.7
		None	13	16.3	17.3	100.0
		Total	75	93.8	100.0	
	Missing	System	5	6.3		
	Total	80	100.0			
Singapore	Valid	Christian	17	42.5	42.5	42.5
		Buddhist	12	30.0	30.0	72.5
		Muslim	1	2.5	2.5	75.0
		Hindu	1	2.5	2.5	77.5
		Other	3	7.5	7.5	85.0
		None	6	15.0	15.0	100.0
		Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Crosstabs

Position in company * Length of time in position Crosstabulation

Count			Length of time in position					Total
Country	Position in company	MD/Dir Other Mgr HR Mgr Other	<1 year	bet 1-2 years	bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	> 10 years	
Australia	Position in company	MD/Dir	2	5	3	7	24	41
		Other Mgr	1	1	11	2	11	26
		HR Mgr	2	2	1	1		6
		Other	1	1		2		4
	Total		6	9	15	12	35	77
Singapore	Position in company	MD/Dir			3	5	12	20
		Other Mgr			2	3	3	8
		HR Mgr		4	2	1		7
		Other				3	2	5
	Total			4	7	12	17	40

Status in company - Owner/Employee * Length of time in organisation Crosstabulation

Count			Length of time in organisation					Total
Country	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner Employee	< 1 year	bet 1-2 years	bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	>10 years	
Australia	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner		1	1	4	24	30
		Employee	4	4	9	9	21	47
	Total		4	5	10	13	45	77
Singapore	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner				3	7	10
		Employee	1	3	5	7	14	30
	Total		1	3	5	10	21	40

**APPENDIX VI.22
LIST**

QUOTA SAMPLING CONTACT

BUDDHIST ORGANISATIONS

Australia - New South Wales

- List obtained from internet search - Buddhists in NSW –
<http://www.zip.com.au/~lyallg/nsw.htm>
- <http://www.zip.com.au/~lyallg/vic.htm>

Australian-Chinese Buddhist Society

Contact: President, Peter Pham
Anita, William

654 Cabramatta Road, Bonnyrigg, NSW
2171
Tel: (02) 9823 3603
Fax: (02) 9823 3803

Bellingen Zen Group

Contact: Sexton Burke

“Chrysalis”, 377 Kalang Road via
Bellingen, NSW 2245
Tel: (02) 6655 2092

Buddhist Council of NSW (umbrella
organisation for NSW Buddhist

P O Box 224, Burwood, NSW 2134
Tel: (02) 9669 3053

organisations)

Contact: Chairperson, Mr Graeme Lyall

Email: lyallg@zip.com.au

Buddhist Federation of Australia

Contact: Mr Henry Dang

365-367 Victoria Street, Wetherill Park,
NSW 2164

Tel: (02) 9793 1885

Email: bfa@pobox.com

**Federation of Australian Buddhist
Councils** (National Umbrella Body)

Contact: Chairman of Buddhist Council
of Victoria, Mr Brian Ashen

P O Box 141 Woodend VIC 3442

Tel: (03) 5427 3300/9248 8681

Email: senge@iaccess.com.au

Sydney Zen Centre

Contact: Teacher, Subhana Barzaghi
Roshi

<http://www.szc.org.au/szc-nav.htm>

251 Young Street, Annandale, NSW
2038

Tel: (02) 9660 2993

Australia - Victoria

- List obtained from BuddhaNet's Buddhist Australia Directory –
http://www.buddhanet.net/aus_dir/bavicorg.htm

**Amitabha Buddhist Association of
Melbourne** (open on Tues/Thurs/Sat
from 10-3 pm)

Shop 4, 111 Hardware Street, Melbourne,
VIC 3000

Tel: (03) 9670 0888

Bao Vuong Temple

Contact: Ven. Thich Huyen Ton

1/60 McPherson Street, Essendon, VIC
3040

Tel: (03) 9310 8191

**The Bau Sen Buddha Ru Yi
Temple**

Contact: Resident teacher, Master K S
Lin

Floors 1 & 2, 322 Little Lonsdale Street,
Melbourne, VIC 3000

Tel/Fax: (03) 9842 5972

Bright Moon Buddhist Society

Contact: Ellen

536-540 Springvale Road, Springvale
South, VIC 3172

Tel: (03) 9558 5487

Buddha Vihara Temple

Contact: Vice-President, Mr Soo Peng
Khong (04 1734 3331)

939 Canterbury Road, Box Hill, VIC 3128
Tel: (03) 9899 0638

Buddhist Compassion Relief Tzu'Chi
Foundation
Contact: Ms Katherine Lee

30 Albury Road, North Balwyn, VIC 3104
Tel: (03) 9859 5498

The Buddhist Foundation

Contact: Secretary, Julie

130 Station Street, Fairfield, VIC 3078
Tel: (03) 9465 8236

Buddhist Society of Victoria

Contact: Resident Monk, Jinalangkar &
Mr Alfred Chi (03- 9512 5675)

71-73 Darling Road, East Malvern, VIC
3145
Tel: (03) 9571 6409

Buddhist Tara Institute

Contact: Marilyn

3 Mavis Avenue. Bentleigh East, VIC 3204
Tel: (03) 9596 8900/9596 6197
Email: tarainst@netspace.net.au

Chogye Jamchen Choe Dzong (Jamchen
Buddhist Centre)

Contact: Ms Moira Brown

P O Box 356 Deepdene (Balwyn) VIC
3103
Tel/Fax: (03) 9898 1199

**Ch'ung Shan Buddhist
Association**

Contact: Mr Tieu Wai Ng

49-53 Buncle Street, North Melbourne,
VIC 3051
Tel: (03) 9367 4589

Chuan Hui

Contact: Campbell Simpson

2 Menzies Street, Box Hill, VIC 3128
Tel: (03) 9849 1162
Email: : campbell_simpson@yahoo.com.au

Diamond Way

Contact: Ms Annik Foreman
Mr Peter Mimmil (03-9510
4098)

20 Alexander Avenue, Oakleigh East,
VIC 3168
Tel: (03) 9544 3345

The Melbourne Buddhist Centre 1 Pitt Street, Brunswick, VIC 3056
Contact: John Tel: (03) 9380 4303

Tibetan Buddhist Society 1425 Mickleham Road, Yuroke, VIC
3063
Contact: Ms Jean D’Cruz Tel: (03) 9333 1770

Yun Yang Temple 6 Reservoir Road, Narre Warren North,
VIC 3805
Contact: Ms Cathy Tai (03-9816 3138) Tel: (03) 9796 8079

Australia - Victoria

Buddhist Community Association Inc. Henry Street Abbotsford VIC 3067
Tel: 0418 383 348

Buddhist Society of Victoria
Contact: President, Mr Michael Wells

c/o Office of Public Etiquette, Level 5, 436
Lonsdale Street, Melbourne, VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9603 9556
Email: michael.wells@justice.vic.gov.au

International Buddhist Association

237A Lonsdale Street Melbourne VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9663 1733

International Buddhist College of Victoria
(connected to IBCV Buddhist Centre), Fo
Kuang Shan
Contact: Rev Ms Man Wang
Foguang Yuan Art Gallery

89 Somerville Road Yarraville VIC 3013
Tel: (03) 9314 5147

141 Queens Street Melbourne VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9642 2388

Kuang Minh Temple
Contact: Phuoc Than

14 Bourke Street Footscray VIC 3011
Tel: (03) 9312 5629

**Melbourne Buddhist Centre/
Friends of the Western Buddhist Order (FWBO)**

Contact: Chairman, Siladasa
Mr John Trebilcock
<http://www.melbourne.fwbo.org.au>

1 Pitt Street Brunswick VIC 3056
Tel: (03) 9380 4303
Email: melbourne@fwbo.org.au

Tibetan Buddhist Teaching Centre

Contact: Ven Traleg Rinpoche
Gary O'Toole

Tel: (03) 9387 0422/ 9536 5254

Malaysia

- List obtained from internet search of "Buddhist Associations + Malaysia"
<http://www.founder.net.my/~ybam/dir/ba.htm>

Bandar Utama Buddhist Society
Contact: Danny Lim

52 Jin BU 11/15 47800 Bandar Utama
SELANGOR
Tel: 012 224 1968

Buddhist Gem Fellowship
Contact: Dolly Teoh (017-878 8879)

60A Jalan 19/3 Petaling Jaya
SELANGOR
Email: buddhistgemfellowship-owner@egroups.com

Buddhist Wisdom Centre
Contact: Ven Sujiva Liew

5 Jalan 16/3 46350 PETALING JAYA
Tel: (603) 7956 8019
Email: bwc@quantum.com.my

Compassion Buddhist Meditation Society
Contact: Teacher, Togme

14b Jalan Suria 19, Taman Putera, 8100 JOHOR
Tel: (607) 334 1106
Email: cbcb@pd.jaring.my

Drukpa Maha Yoga Ling Buddhist Centre

196 Jalan Midah Besar
Taman Midah
56000 KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 9131 6333
Email: dmyl@maxis.net.my

The Karma Kagyu Dharma Society

2382C Klebang Kecil 75200 MELAKA
Tel: (606) 335 4763
Email: gladysloh@watercolours.com

Malaysia-Singapore Engaged Buddhist (MASEB) Network
<http://www.geocities.com>

c/o Vidya K V Soon
43 Jalan USJ 11/2C UEP Subang Jaya
47620 PJ SELANGOR
Tel/Fax: (603) 736 6133
Email: maseb@geocities.com

Manjushri Kadampa Centre

11A –A Jalan SS 22/23
Damansara Jaya
Petaling Jaya SELANGOR 47400
Tel: (603) 7729 2807
Email: mbc2002my@yahoo.com

Ratnashri Dharma Centre
Contact: President, Mr Chooi See Hong

Tel: (603) 2142 3812
Email: shchooi@tm.net.my

129C Jalan SS 25/2 Petaling Jaya
47301 SELANGOR
Tel: (603) 78801548
Email: ratnashri@bigfoot.com

Samnak Sambodhi Buddhist Temple

19 Jalan 38 Desa Jaya, Kepong
52100 KUALA LUMPUR

Te: (603) 633 1952
Email: sambodhi@temple.com.my

Sandakan Buddhists Fellowship Society
<http://www.geocities.com/~buddhistnews/page7.htm>
Contact: President, Fong Kin Voon

P O Box 1818, 90720 Sandakan SABAH
Tel: (089) 617 150
Email: sbfs@po.jaring.my

World Fellowship of Buddhist Youth

**No 12 Lorong Padang Tembak 11400
PENANG**

Tel: (604) 829 0306
Email: powercth@tm.net.my

- **List obtained from BuddhaNet's Buddhist Asia Directory –**
- http://www.buddhanet.net/1_info.htm
- http://www.buddha.net/asia_dir/abc_m.htm

Amitabha Buddhist Society

16A Jalan Pahang, Kuala Lumpur WP
53000 SELANGOR
Tel: (603) 4041 4101
Email: amtbmy@pd.jaring.my

Buddha Dhamma Centre (also known
as Buddha Dhamma Fellowship
Association)

82, 2nd Floor Jalan Pending, PJ
SELANGOR
Tel: (608) 233 3232
Email: buddhadhamma@hotmail.com

Malaysian Buddhist Association

<http://www.geocities.com/~buddhistnews/page7.htm>

Contact: Mr Lim

182 Burmah Road, 10050 PENANG
Tel: (604) 226 2690
Email: mbapg@po.jaring.my

Contact: Mr Lai

Lot 27336 off Jalan Awan Pintai Taman
Tan Yew Lai 58200 KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 7781 3343
Email: pbmckp@mybuddhist.com

Malaysian Buddhist Meditation

355 Jalan Mesjid Negeri, PENANG

Centre

Contact: Secretary, Mr Tan Ah Huat
(012 423 9699)
huatyuet@hotmail.com

11600
Tel: (604) 282 2534/ 226 2690
Email: mbmc@tm.net.my

Peace House

Contact: Resident Monk, Ven
Visuddhacara

356V Lengkok Pemancar, 11700
Gelugor, PENANG
Tel: (604) 659 6696
Email: peacee@maxis.net.my

Than Hsiang Temple

132 Jalan Sultan Azlan Shah, 11900
Bayan Lepas, PENANG
Tel: (604) 641 4822
Email: infocentre@thanhsiang.org

**Young Buddhist Association of
Malaysia (YBAM)**

<http://www.ybam.org.my/dir/temple.htm>

Email: ybam@yahogroups.com

**Contact: YBAM HQ
Secretariat
Sim Chia Pao**

10 Jalan SS2/75, 47300 Petaling Jaya
SELANGOR
Tel: (603) 7876 4591
Email: ybamhq@po.jaring.my

YBAM Penang Administration
Center

7 Changkat Minden Lorong 6, 11700
Gelugor, PENANG
Tel: (604) 659 1598
Email: ybampgc@po.jaring.my

Tan Choo Choo

- List obtained from internet search of "Dharma Centers + Malaysia"
http://www.dharmanet.org/Dir/World/ctr_my.htm

**Brickfields Buddhist Maha
Vihara**

Contact: Francis

123 Jalan Berhala 50470 KUALA
LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 274 1141

Email: bmvihara@mvihara.po.my

Ven Dr Sri Dhammananda,
Chief Reverend

Email: sws1@tm.net.my

Sarath W Surende, President

Email: yanna@mvihara.po.my

Yanna Perera, Secretary

**The Friends of the Western
Buddhist Order (FWBO)
Malaysia**

Contact: Jarkko Lavinien
<http://www.fwbo.com/centres/web/asp>

c/o Dharmacharini Jayapushpa, Lot 7
Taman Ria Jalan Salleh 84800 Muar
JOHOR
Email: jlavi@cs.joensuu.fi

Manjugosa Buddhist Centre
Contact: Michael Crew

75 Jalan 6/109B Taman Bukit Desa
58100 KUALA LUMPUR
Email: m.crew@bbenc.org.uk

Singapore

- **List obtained from BuddhaNet's Buddhist Asia Directory –**

http://www.buddhanet.net/asia_dir/abc_sg.htm
<http://www.singapore-dharmanet.per.sg>
<http://www.4ui.com/links/elocal.asp>

Amitabha Buddhist Centre
Contact: Centre Manager, Dennis

494D Geylang Road Singapore 389452
Tel: 6745 8547
Email: fpmtsing@singnet.com.sg

Amitabha Buddhist Society
Contact: Teacher, Ven Master Chin Kung
Mr Lee
<http://www.amtb1.org.sg>

No 2 Lorong 35 Geylang Singapore
387934
Tel: 6744 7444
Email: abss@amt.org.sg

The Buddhist Library

No 2 & 4 Lorong 24A Geylang
Singapore 398526
Tel: 6746 8435
Email: buddhlib@singnet.com.sg

Buddhist Fellowship
Contact: Ms Angie Monksfield
<http://www.buddhistfellowship.org>

3 Hume Avenue #08-05 Hume Park 1
Singapore 598719
Tel: 9681 1196
Email: buddhistfellowship@netscape.net

Buddhist Union	28 Jalan Senyum Singapore 418152 Tel: 6241 9419 Fax: 6444 3280
Bodhi-Web Contact: James Tan	Email: norbu3@cyberway.com.sg
Bodhiraja Buddhist Society	30A Haig Road Singapore 438737 Tel: 6747 8066 Email: bodhiraj@singnet.com.sg
Karma Kagyud Buddhist Centre	38 Lorong 22 Geylang Singapore 398695 Tel: 6749 1103 Email: kkbcs@pacific.net.sg
Kwan Im Thong Hood Cho Temple Contact: Chairman, Dr Tan Choon Kim	178 Waterloo Street Singapore 187964 Tel: 6337 9227 (Admin Off) Email: kwanim@singnet.com.sg
The Mahaprajna Buddhist Society Contact: Ven Kwan Ping	11 Lorong 35 Geylang Road Singapore 387943 Tel: 6748 6625
Ngee Ann Polytechnic Buddhist Society	535 Clementi Road Singapore 599489 Email: npbs@hotmail.com
Odiyana Buddhist Meditation Society	Email: thubten@meditateinsingapore.org
Palyul Buddhist Association	17H Lorong 15 Geylang Singapore 387934 Email: palyulsg@palyulsg.org
Sagaramudra Buddhist Society	12 Lorong 24A Geylang Singapore 398536 Tel: 6741 7303
Singapore Buddhist Federation	12 Ubi Avenue Singapore 408932

Tel: 6744 4635

The Singapore Buddhist Lodge

Contact: Mr Phang

17-19 Kim Yam Road Singapore 239329

Tel: 6737 2630

Singapore Buddhist Meditation Centre

Contact: Director, Ven W Sarada Maha Thero

1 Jalan Mas Puteh Singapore 128607

Tel: 6778 3330

Email: wsarada@pacific.net.sg

Tai Pei Yuen Temple

Contact: Chairman, Rev Sek Fatt Kuan

19-21 Jalan Kemaman off Balestier Road Singapore 329335

Tel: 6254 4742

Tibetan Buddhist Studies Society

146A Sims Avenue Lorong 19 Singapore 387468

Tel: 6742 4438

Young Men's Buddhist Association (YMBA)

Block 535 Hougang Street 52 #10-18 Singapore 530535

Email: iymba@pacific.net.sg

Vipassana International Centre

1 Philip Street #15-00 Singapore 048692

Tel: 6435 4224 or 6734 7993 (after 7 pm)

Email: jaya@pacific.net.sg

Vipassana Meditation Centre

Contact: Steven Yip (9743 6109)

1 Paya Lebar Walk Singapore 535926

Tel 6445 3984

Email: jaya@pacific.net.sg

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

- List obtained from internet search “Chamber of commerce + Australia”
<http://www.acci.asn.au/members.htm> and check with

White Pages OnLine <http://www.whitepage.../results.jhtml>

AUSTRALIA

Agribusiness Employers’
Federation (SA)

GPO Box 2883 Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: (08) 8212 0585
Email: aef@aef.com.au

Australian Business Limited (NSW)

140 Arthur Street North Sydney NSW
2060
Tel: (02) 9927 7500
Email: chamber@abol.net

**Australian Chamber of Commerce &
Industry (NSW)**

**Contact: Chief Exec, Mark
Paterson**

Tel: (02) 6273 2311

**Australian Chamber of Commerce &
Industry (VIC)**

Level 4, 55 Exhibition Street, Melbourne,
VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9289 5289

Business (SA)

Enterprise House 136 Greenhill Road
Unley SA 5061
Tel: (08) 8300 0000
Email: enquiries@business-sa.com

**Chamber of Commerce & Industry of
Western Australia Inc**

P O Box 6209 East Perth WA 6892
Tel: (08) 9365 7555
Email: info@cciwa.com

Commerce Queensland
Contact: Marketing Officer,

Industry House 374 Wickham Terrace
Brisbane QLD 4000

Claire Gault

Tel: (07) 3842 2244

Email: info@commerceqld.com.au
Cgault@commerceqld.com.au

International Christian Chamber of
Commerce (VIC)

35 Winterton Road Clayton VIC 3168
Tel: 0417 371 791

Maribyrnong Chamber of
Commerce (VIC)

P O Box 285, Footscray, VIC 3011
Level 1/93a Paisley Street, Footscray,
VIC 3011
Tel: (03) 9362 7588
Email: mcci@vicnet.com.au

Master Builders Australia Inc (ACT)

3rd Floor Construction House 217
Northbourne Avenue Turner ACT 2601
Tel: (02) 6249 1433
Email: enquiries@masterbuilders.com.au

**Restaurant & Catering Australia
(NSW)**

**P O Box 121 Surrey Hills NSW
2010**
Tel: (02) 9280 0833
Email: restncat@restaurantcater.asn.au

State Chamber of Commerce (NSW)
Contact: Angela Foley, Senior Group
Manager Trade &
Commercial Services

Level 12, 83 Clarence Street Sydney
NSW 2000
Tel: (02) 9350 8111
Email: enquiries@thechamber.com.au
angela.foley@thechamber.com.au

Tasmanian Chamber of Commerce &
Industry Ltd

GPO Box 793 Hobart TAS 7001
Tel: (03) 6234 5933
Email: admin@tcci.com.au

Victorian Automobile Chamber of
Commerce VACC

7th Floor 464 St Kilda Road Melbourne
VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9829 1111
Email: vacc@vacc.asn.au

Victorian Employers' Chamber of
Commerce & Industry VECCI

GPO Box 4352QQ Melbourne VIC 3001
Tel: (03) 8662 5333

Email: vecci@vecci.org.au

SINGAPORE

- List obtained from internet search of “Singapore + Chamber of Commerce”
<http://www.stdb.com/whysingapore/chambers.shtml>

American Chamber of Commerce
(Singapore)
<http://www.amcham.org.sg>

1 Scotts Road #16-07 Shaw Center
Singapore 228208
Tel: 6235 0077
Email: info@amcham.org.sg

British Chamber of Commerce
(Singapore)
Contact: Mr Shanker Iyer

Email: siyer@singnet.com.sg
Shanker@iyerpractice.com

The Singapore Malay Chamber of Commerce

10 Anson Road #24-07 International
Plaza Singapore 079903
Tel: 6222 4198
Email: smcci@singnet.com.sg

The Singapore Chinese Chamber of Commerce & Industry (Singapore Chinese Chamber Institute of Business)

47 Hill Street #09-00 Singapore 179365
Tel: 6337 8381
Email: cl@sccioib.edu.sg

Singapore International Chamber of Commerce
Contact: Exec Director, Graham Hayward
Mrs Lee Ju Song

6 Raffles Quay #10-01 John Hancock
Tower Singapore 048580
Tel: 6220 6740
Tel: 6224 1255

MALAYSIA

- List obtained from Business-in-Malaysia website
<http://www.business-in-asia.com/malaysia2.htm>

American Chamber of Commerce
(Malaysia)

**11.03 Level 11 Amoda 22 Jalan
Imbi 55100 KUALA LUMPUR**

<http://www.jaring.my/amcham>

Tel: (603) 2482 407

Email: info@amcham.com.my

**The Malaysian International Chamber
of Commerce & Industry**

C-8-8 Block C Plaza Mont Kiara 2 Jalan
1/70C Mont Kiara 50480 KUALA
LUMPUR

Tel: (603) 6201 7708

Email: mcci@mcci.com

CHRISTIAN ORGANISATIONS

Australia - Victoria

Chinese Christian Association of
Australia

1027 Whitehorse Road Box Hill VIC
3128
Tel: (03) 9899 3207/9898 8749

Christian Radio Missionary
Fellowship

5 Court Street Box Hill VIC 3128
Tel: (03) 9890 2388

Christian Research Association
Contact: Sharon

39 Sackville Street Kew VIC 3101
Tel: (03) 9816 9468

Monash Christian Fellowship

118 Wellington Road Clayton VIC 3168
Tel: (03) 9548 9447

**Overseas Chinese Christian Church of
Melbourne**

194 Little Lonsdale Street Melbourne
VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9650 1119

Malaysia

Prayer House
Contact: Mrs Kwan Kwai Heng

28 Persiaran Duta
Taman Duta
50480 KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: 012 2233 399

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Australia

**Australian Institute for University
Studies (AIUS)**

School of Economics & Finance
Contact: Bruce Budd

Curtin University of Technology,
Joondalup Campus

Australian Islamic College (Perth)
Contact: Director, Haji Abdallah
Magar

1/504 Marmion Street Booragoon WA
6154 [P O Box 1133 Booragoon WA
6954]
Tel: (08) 9330 6422
Email: aicnet@aic.wa.edu.au

**Australian National University
National Graduate School of
Management**
Contact: Exec Dir, Prof Mark Dodgson

Sir Roland Wilson Building ANU
Canberra ACT 0200
Tel: (02) 6125 9844
Email: mark.dodgson@anu.edu.au

Bond University
School of Business
Contact: Dean, Prof David Goodwin

Gold Coast QLD 4229
Tel: (07) 5595 2009

Central Queensland University
Faculty of Business & Law
Contact: Dean, Prof Kevin Fagg

108 Margaret Street Brisbane QLD 4000

Charles Sturt University
School of Business
Contact: Head, Dr Michael O'Mullane

Level 4, Administration Building
Thurgoona NSW 2640

Curtin University of Technology

Curtin Business School

GPO Box U1987 Perth WA 6845

Contact: Exec Dean, Prof Mike Wood

Tel: (08) 9266 7553

School of Economics & Finance
Contact: Gary Madden

Deakin University

Faculty of Business & Law
Graduate School

Contact: Dean, Prof Philip Clarke

Pigdons Road Geelong VIC 3217

Edith Cowan University

School of Management

Contact: Head, Dr Peter Standen

Robertson Drive Bunbury WA 6230

Flinders University of South Australia

National Institute of Labour Studies
Incorporated

**Contact: Director, Prof Sue
Richardson
Ms Lesley Johnson**

GPO Box 2100 Adelaide SA 5001
Tel: (08) 8201 2265 (general enquiries)
(08) 8201 2642 (publications)

Email: lesley.johnson@flinders.edu.au

Griffith University

Graduate School of Management

Contact: Director, Prof Greg Bamber

Kessels Road QLD 4111

James Cook University

School of Business

Contact: Head, Prof Donald Gardener

Townsville QLD 4811

Tel: (07) 4781 5133

LaTrobe University

Graduate School of Management

**Contact: Head, Prof Raymond
Harbridge**

Plenty Road Bundoora VIC 3086

Macquarie University

Department of Business
Division of Economic & Financial
Studies

Contact: Head, Prof David Walters

Building C5C Balaclava Road North
Ryde NSW 2109

Tel: (02) 9850 8583

Tel: (02) 9850 8461

Melbourne University
Melbourne Business School
Contact: Assoc Dir, Prof Philip Williams

200 Leicester Street Carlton VIC 3053

Monash University

Faculty of Business & Economics
Department of Management (Clayton)
Contact: Dean, Prof Jill Palmer

P O Box 11E VIC 3800

Email: margaret.niere@BusEco.monash.edu.au

Dr Margaret Lindorff

Tel: (03) 9905 2314

Email:

margaret.lindorff@BusEco.monash.edu.au

Michelle Greenwood

Tel: (03) 9905 2362

Email:

mitchell.greenwood@BusEco.monash.edu.au

Faculty School of Business & Economics, Peninsula
Contact: Head, Prof William Schroder

P O Box 527 Frankston VIC 3199

Tel: (03) 9904 4314

Mount Eliza Business School

Kunyang Road Mt Eliza VIC 3930

Tel: (03) 9215 1100

Executive Business Dept
Contact: Roger Black

Tel: (03) 9215 1191

Info Resource Centre
Contact: Head, Judy Mitchell

Tel: (03) 9215 1138

Murdoch University

The Asia Research Centre
Contact: Director, Prof Ian Scott

90 South Street Murdoch WA 6150

Tel: (08) 9360 6064

The Centre for Labour Market Research
Contact: Pat Madden

Email: pmadden@central.murdoch.edu.au

Northern Territory University
School of Business, Tourism &

Darwin NT 0909

Hospitality

Contact: Assoc Dean, Dr Lee Skertchly

Notre Dame

College of Business

Contact: Dean, Dr Peter Dallimore

19 Mouat Street P O Box 1225 Fremantle
WA 6959

**Queensland University of Technology
Brisbane Graduate School of Business**

Contact: Head, Prof Evan Douglas

2 George Street Gardens Point Brisbane
QLD 4000

RMIT University

RMIT Business School

Research Development Unit

Contact: Assoc Dean (Research) Prof
Robert Brooks

239 Bourke Street Melbourne VIC 3000

GPO Box 2476V Level 3, 255 Bourke
Street Melbourne VIC 3001

Tel: (03) 9925 5594

Email: rdu@bf.rmit.edu.au

Southern Cross University

Graduate College & Research

Contact: Dean, Prof Peter Baverstock

P O Box 157 Lismore NSW 2480

**Swinburne University of Technology
Australian Graduate School of
Entrepreneurship**

**Contact: Research Coordinator, Dr
Sheikh Rahman**

John Street P O Box 218 Hawthorn VIC
3122

University of Ballarat

School of Business

Contact: Head, Prof Julian Lowe

University Drive Mt Helen P O Box 663
Ballarat VIC 3353

Tel: (03)5327 9431

Email: business_enquiries@ballarat.edu.au

University of Newcastle

Graduate School of Business

**Contact: Director, Prof Tony
Travaglione**

**P O Box 127 Ourimbah NSW
2258**

University of New England

UNE Armidale NSW 2351

Graduate School of Business
Contact: Director, A/P Vic Wright

University of New South Wales
Australian Graduate School of
Management
Contact: Exec Asst to the Dean &
Director, Shana Bresgi

Anzac Parade, Kensington
NSW 2052
Tel: (02) 9931 9355
Email: shanab@agsm.edu.au

University of Queensland
Business School
Faculty of Business, Economics & Law
Contact: Exec Dean, Prof Ian Zimmer

11 Salisbury Road, Building 12
Ipswich QLD 4305

University of South Australia
Division of Business & Enterprise
Contact: Dean-Research, Prof Malcolm
Smith

GPO Box 2471 Adelaide SA 5001

Professor Chris Provis

Email: chris.provis@unisa.edu.au

Howard Harris

Email: howard.harris@unisa.edu.au

University of the Sunshine Coast
Faculty of Business
Contact: Prof of Finance & Dean, Prof
Deborah Ralston

Cnr Stringybark Road & Sippy Downs
Drive QLD 4556

University of Technology, Sydney
Graduate School of Business
Contact: Head, A/P Ben Hunt

P O Box 123 NSW 2007

University of Western Australia

Nedlands WA 6907

The Dept of Organisational & Labour
Studies

Contact: Director (CLMR), Prof
Charles

Mulvey

35 Stirling Highway Crawley WA 6009

Faculties of Economics & Commerce,
Education & Law (ECEL)

Contact: Exec Dean, Dr Paul McLeod

University of Western Sydney
College of Law & Business
Contact: Dean, Prof Rob Woellner

Locked Bag 1797 Penrith South DC
NSW 1797

University of Wollongong
Business School
Contact: Director, Prof John Glynn

Wollongong NSW 2522

Victoria University

Australia Asia-Pacific Institute
Centre for Asia-Pacific Studies (CAP)
Contact: Manager, Doris

Tel: (03) 9248 1200

Department of Asian & International
Studies (DAIS)

Tel: (03) 9688 4992

School of Management
Contact: Professor David Worland

Tel: (03) 9688 4325

Workplace Studies Centre
Contact: Exec Dir, Santina Bertone

12 Geelong Road Footscray VIC 3011
Tel: (03) 9688 4144

Malaysia

University of Malaya

Department of Chinese Studies
Contact: Head, Tan Ooi Chee

Tel: (603) 7967 5648
Email: tanoc@umcsd.um.edu.my

Chia Oai Peng

Tel: (603) 7967 5649
Email: f9chia@umcsd.um.edu.my

Soo Khin Wah

Tel: (603) 7967 5661
Email: f9soo@umcsd.um.edu.my

Singapore

**Institute of Southeast Asian Studies
(ISEAS)**
<http://www.iseas.edu.sg>
Contact: Director, Prof Chia Siow Yue

30 Heng Mui Keng Terrace Pasir Panjang
Singapore 119614
Tel: 6778 0955

ISEAS Publications
Contact: Masiah Joony, Sales &
Marketing Publications Unit

30 Heng Mui Keng Terrace Singapore
119614
Tel: 6870 2447
Email: pubsunit@iseas.edu.sg

**Nanyang Technological University
Nanyang Business School**
Contact: Dean, Prof Neo Boon Siong

Nanyang Avenue Singapore 639798
Tel: 6790 4865

Professor Kee Poo Kong

Email: pkkee@ntu.edu.sg

**National University of Singapore
(NUS)**

10 Kent Ridge Singapore 117591

Asia Research Institute

Email: arisec@nus.edu.sg

Dept of Sociology
Contact: Mr Tong Chee Kiong

Email: soctck@nus.edu.sg

NUS Business School
Faculty of Business, Administration
Contact: Dean, Prof Leong Siew Meng

Tel: 6874 3075

NUS Library
Contact: Librarian, Jill Quah
<http://www.nus.sg/library/home.html>

Email: clbsec@nus.edu.sg

Singapore Society of Asian Studies
Contact: President, Mr Lim Guan Hock

Kent Ridge P O Box 1076 Singapore
117591

Singapore Studies
Contact: A/P Ernest C T Chew

Email: hischewe@nus.edu.sg

Ngee Ann Polytechnic
School of Business

535 Clementi Road Singapore 599489

Contact: Director, Mrs Fung Ong Long

Email: onf@np.edu.sg

Singapore Management University

School of Business

Contact: Dean, A/P Tsui Kai Chong

11 Evans Road Singapore 259268

Tel: 6822 0158

Email: kctsui@smu.edu.sg

Singapore Polytechnic

School of Business

Contact: Director, Mr V Maheantharan

500 Dover Road Singapore 139651

Southeast Asian Studies Program

Contact: Prof Chua Beng Huat

The Shaw Foundation Building

AS7 Level 4, 5 Arts Link Singapore

117570

Email: seacord@nus.edu.sg

Sumbershire Business School

Contact: Mr Nageb

291 New Bridge Road #03-05 The

Oriental Plaza Singapore 088756

Tel: 6225 5262

Email: nageb@sumbershire.edu.sg

Temasek Polytechnic

Temasek Business School

Contact: Director, Wong Loke Jack

21 Tampines Avenue 1 Singapore

529757

Tel: 6780 5121

Others

Commonwealth Institute

Contact: Chief Exec, David French

Kensington High Street London W8 6NQ

UK

Email: information@commonwealth.org.uk

University of London

Institute of Commonwealth Studies

School of Advanced Study

28 Russell Square London WC1B 5 DS

UK

Email: ics@sas.ac.uk

Franco P Preparata

(was Visiting Professor to NUS, School of Computing in Dec 2001 – Mar 2002)

Department of Computer Science

115 Waterman Street Providence RI

02912-1910 USA

Tel: 1-401-863-7649
Email: franco@cs.brown.edu

MUSLIM ORGANISATIONS

- List obtained from search “Muslim” in White Pages OnLine
<http://www.whitepage.../results.jhtml>

Australia

Islamic Cooperative Finance Australia
Limited (NSW)

Unit 2/130 Railway Parade Lakemba
NSW 2195
Tel: (02) 9750 6044

Contact: Mohammed Khan

Tel: (02) 9832 2921

Khalid

Tel: (02) 9799 6212

Islamic Council of Victoria
Contact: Mr Bilal Cleland (0421 497511)

66-68 Jeffcott Street West Melbourne
VIC 3003
Tel: (03) 9328 2067
Email: icv@ozemail.com.au
ilal@vicnet.net.au

Islamic Information & Support Centre of
Australia IISCA (VIC)

19 Michael Street Brunswick VIC 3056
Tel: (03) 9387 7100

**Islamic Services & Resources of
Australasia (VIC)**
Contact: Firhana

18 Haig Street Regent VIC 3073
Tel: (03) 9478 8853
Email: isra@ozemail.com.au

**Muslim Community Credit Union Ltd
(VIC)**

Level 11/530 Ste 9/10 Little Collins
Street Melbourne VIC 3000
Tel: 1300 724 734

Malaysian Hall (VIC)

4K High Street Windsor VIC 3181
Tel: (03) 9529 4507

Singapore

- **List obtained from search “Muslim” in Singapore Yellow Pages**
<http://www.yellowpages.com.sg>

Association of Muslim
Professionals
Contact: Mohammed

25 Jalan Tembusu Singapore 438234
Tel: 6416 3966
Email: corporate@amp.org.sg

Muslim Trust Fund Association
Contact: Suhaimi Hassan

23 Wan Tho Avenue Singapore 347552
Tel: 6746 5729
Email: ihsan1@singnet.com.sg
Bobats@hotmail.com

SSA Management Consultants Pte
Ltd
Contact: Chief Executive, Suhaimi Salleh

5 Jalan Masjid #01-04 Kembangan Court
Singapore 418924
Tel: 6842 2282
Email: ssalleh@singnet.com.sg

OTHER CLUBS/ASSOCIATIONS

- List obtained from telephone directory

AUSTRALIA (Victoria)

Huntingdale Golf Club
Contact: Manager, Peter Scofield

Windsor Avenue Oakleigh South VIC
3167
Tel: (03) 9579 4622

Lions Club (Springvale)
Contact: Marion

Tel: (03) 9574 2214

Lions Club (Waverley)
Contact: Graham Angus

Tel: (03) 9389 3646

Masonic Temple -

Blackburn

Tel: (03) 9894 2347

Ferntree Gully

Tel: (03) 9758 1352

Kew East

Tel: (03) 9859 6148

Mt Waverley
Contact: Asst Manager, Peter Omar

318 Stephensons Road Mount Waverley
VIC 3149

Riversdale Golf Club
Contact: General Manager, Robert Taylor

Cnr Huntingdale & High Street Roads
Mount Waverley VIC 3149
Tel: (03) 9807 1411
Email: riversdalegolf@bigpond.com

Riverside Golf Club (Essendon) Inc.

Tel: (03) 9372 0188

Rotary Club of Melbourne

4 Collins Street Melbourne VIC 3000
Tel: (03) 9654 7242

Balwyn
Contact: Ms Ann Kerr

12 Dow Street South Melbourne VIC
3205
Tel: (03) 9851 6445
Tel: (03) 9899 0943

Box Hill

Waverley Golf Club Ltd
Contact: Manager, Clyde

Bergins Road Rowville VIC 3178
Tel: 9764 5144

MALAYSIA

- List obtained from website <http://www.expat.com.my>

American Association of Malaysia

8 Jalan Murni off Jalan Damai 55000
KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 2142 0611/2142 0612
Email: aam1776@po.jaring.my

B-03-08 Level 3 Block B Plaza Mont
Kiara 2 Jalan 1/70C Mont Kiara 50480
KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 6203 5951/ 6203 5952
Email: Mkaam@po.jaring.my

Association of British Women in Malaysia (ABWM)

<http://www.geocities.com/abwm99>

P O Box 11583, 50750 KUALA
LUMPUR
Email: ABWMKL@hotmail.com

Malaysian Australian New Zealand Association (MANZA)

Contact: President, Jenny Savage

<http://www.manza.org>

No 49 Jalan SS20/10 Damansara Kim
47400 Petaling Jaya SELANGOR
Tel: (603) 7726 7145
Email: contact@manza.org

Malaysian Culture Group Contact: Gabriela Cabral

P O Box 10050, 50704 KUALA
LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 2161 4139
Email: kon1@pd.jaring.my

Pathfinder Relocation Services (PRS)

Email: pathfinders@pd.jaring.my

The West Meets East Club of KL Contact: President, Melanie Denby

Tel: (603) 5636 3063
Email: wmeclub25@yahoo.com

SINGAPORE

American Association of Singapore

website and links

http://www.aasingapore.com/links_relocating.htm

American Women's Association

21 Scotts Road Singapore 228219

Tel: 6733 6170

Email: inquiries@awasingapore.org

Merlion Club (Melbourne)

Contact: Ms Winnie Low

Tel: (03) 9618 8234

Email: wlow@intersuisse.com.au

OTHER SOURCES

AUSTRALIA

**Australian Association of Social
Workers**

191 Drummond Street Carlton VIC 3053

Tel: (03) 9663 3889

Australian Council of Professions

Level 2, 700 High Street East Kew VIC
3102

Tel: (03) 9859 0299

**Australian Human Resources Institute
(AHRI)**

Level 2, 153 Park Street South
Melbourne VIC 3205

Tel: (03) 9699 3733

Contact: Exec GM, Jo Mithen

Email: jo.mithen@ahri.com.au

Australian Institute of Company Directors

Level 2, 411 Collins Street Melbourne
VIC 3000

Tel: (03) 9211 9255

Contact: Exec Officer, Mr Cary
Cox

Email: ccox@companydirectors.com.au

Australian Malaysian Business Council

Contact: Exec Dir, Paul Gallagher

Tel: 00612 6273 2311

Email: gallagherp@acci.asn.au

Business Association Victoria Inc.

<http://www.busvic.asn.au>

450 Graham Street Port Melbourne VIC
3207

Tel: (03) 9645 3300

Email: buses@busvic.asn.au

Chinese Association of Victoria Inc.

320 Wantirna Road Wantirna VIC 3152

Tel: (03) 9800 3388

Chinese Business Guide (Victoria)

Contact: John

Suite 405, 1 Princess Street, Kew, VIC
3101

Tel: (03) 9852 8388

**Singapore Trade Development Board
(Sydney)**

Level 9/1 Chiefly Square Sydney NSW
2000

Tel: (02) 9223 5357

Victorian Business Centre

Suite 3/687 Mount Alexander Road
Moonee Ponds VIC 3039

Tel: (03) 9326 1233

MALAYSIA

Malaysia Australian Business Council
(MABC)
Contact: Chairman, Y M Tunku
Shahabuddin bin Tunku Besar
Burhanuddin, DK

Quest Business Centre
3rd Floor Wisma RKT
No 2 Jalan Raja Abdullah
50300 KUALA LUMPUR
Tel: (603) 2695 3121
Email: mabc@mabc.org.my

SINGAPORE

**National Archives of Singapore
(Ministry of Information
Communications & the Arts)**

140 Hill Street #02-00 MITA Bldg
Singapore 179369
Tel: 6837 9643

National Library Board

1 Temasek Avenue #06-00 Singapore
039192
Tel: 6332 3133
Email: ref@nlb.gov.sg

Ministry of Manpower
<http://www.mom.gov.sg>

Contact: Felix Ong

Email: Felix_ONG@mom.gov.sg

Tan Yew Bee

Email: TAN_Yew_Bee@mom.gov.sg

Singapore Institute of Labour Studies
Contact: Director, Mr Padmanabha
Gopinath

A2 Shenton Way #01-00 Trade Union
House Singapore 068810
Tel: 6227 8271

Singapore Human Resources Institute
Contact: Director, Mr David Ang
<http://www.shri.org.sg>

60A Collyer Quay #05-00 Change Alley
Aerial Plaza Tower Singapore 049322
Tel: 6438 0012
Email: SHR198@singnet.com.sg

Singapore Tourist Promotion Board
<http://www.tourismsingapore.com>

Email: stb_trc@stb.gov.sg

OTHERS

Expatriate Essentials Ltd

Contact: Managing Director, Tracey
Rosell
International & HR
Director, Alison Birkett

Anglo St James House Southgate Street
Winchester S023 9EH UK
Tel: +44 (0) 1962 850 888
Email: post@expat-essentials.com

<http://www.expatexchange.com>

Contact: President & CEO, Betsy
Burlingame

Email: betsy@expatexchange.com

<http://www.expatnetwork.co.uk/index.asp>

Contact: Cathy Fox, Membership
Services

Email: expats@expatnetwork.com

HR International

Contact: Jeff Freeburg

3715 Stearns Hill Road Waltham MA
02451 USA
Tel: +1-781-891-0878
Email: hrintl@expatforum.com

APPENDIX VI.23

LETTER REQUESTING FOR
ASSISTANCE WITH REFERRALS

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»

«JobTitle»

«School»

«Address»

«Company»

«Address 1»

«City»

«State» «PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»,

THE EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN LABOUR

As a PhD research student with Victoria University in Melbourne, I am investigating the attitudes and experiences of directors/managers from Australia, Singapore and Malaysia toward the employment of foreign labour in their country. The thesis aims to make a contribution to the business understanding of the cultural differences that exist between the attitudes of directors/managers from these 3 countries with regard to the employment of foreign labour.

I am requesting for your assistance with referrals possessing the following:-

- 1] Caucasian (American, Canadian, European, Australian or New Zealander background)
- 2] Buddhist
- 3] Working in executive or managerial positions in companies located in Singapore and/or Malaysia

The survey is made up of mainly multiple-choice questions that should take about 15 minutes to answer. All responses will be kept confidential and neither the respondent nor his/her organisation will be personally identified in the findings.

I am happy to answer any queries you may have. I can be contacted by phone on 9688 5383 (O) or 9376 3278 (H) or via email (aster.yong@research.vu.edu.au).

Appreciate any assistance you are able to provide. Looking forward to hearing from you.

With sincere thanks,

Aster Yong

APPENDIX VI.23 LETTER REQUESTING FOR ASSISTANCE WITH REFERRALS

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
«JobTitle»
«School»
«Address»
«Company»
«Address1»
«City»
«State» «PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»,

THE EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN LABOUR

As a PhD research student with Victoria University in Melbourne, I am investigating the attitudes and experiences of directors/managers from Australia, Singapore and Malaysia toward the employment of foreign labour in their country. The thesis aims to make a contribution to the business understanding of the cultural differences that exist between the attitudes of directors/managers from these 3 countries with regard to the employment of foreign labour.

I am requesting for your assistance with referrals possessing the following:-

- 1] Caucasian (American, Canadian, European, Australian or New Zealander background)
- 2] Buddhist
- 3] Working in executive or managerial positions in companies located in Singapore and/or Malaysia

The survey is made up of mainly multiple-choice questions that should take about 15 minutes to answer. All responses will be kept confidential and neither the respondent nor his/her organisation will be personally identified in the findings.

I am happy to answer any queries you may have. I can be contacted by phone on 9688 5383 (O) or 9376 3278 (H) or via email (aster.yong@research.vu.edu.au).

Appreciate any assistance you are able to provide. Looking forward to hearing from you.

With sincere thanks,

Aster Yong

**APPENDIX VI.24
LETTER OF SUPPORT
FROM SUPERVISOR**

Date

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
«JobTitle»
«Company»
«Address1»
«City»
«State» «PostalCode»
«Country»

Dear «Title» «FirstName»,

Ms Aster Yong

This letter is to support Ms Aster Yong in her doctoral research candidature and to solicit your help. Ms Yong is investigating aspects of foreign labour in relation to religion and race, and is conducting a confidential survey which has been approved by the University Human Research Ethics Committee. I am one of her supervisors.

The categories of people she would like to have responses from could benefit greatly from your input. In principle it consists of answering an anonymous questionnaire which would take about 15 minutes.

The research is more than just an academic exercise, but is one that has practical implications for which this general information is necessary.

If you have any queries about this project please phone me on 9248-121 or 0402 526 310. I would be happy to answer any questions you might have.

Your co-operation in helping complete this study would be greatly appreciated. I understand that Ms Yong will phone you shortly to see if you are able to help – something that we would really appreciate.

Yours sincerely,

Professor Ronald Francis

**APPENDIX VI.25
SURVEY COVER
LETTER
FOR QUOTA SAMPLE**

Date

Title

Job Title

Company

Address

Dear Mr

THE SURVEY ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN LABOUR

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. As a PhD research student with Victoria University in Melbourne, I am investigating the attitudes and experiences of directors/managers from Australia and Singapore toward the employment of foreign labour in their country. The thesis aims to make a contribution to the business understanding of the cultural differences that exist between the attitudes of directors/managers from these two countries with regard to the employment of foreign labour. Your participation in this important piece of research is very much appreciated. Your viewpoints will also be of interest to decision and policy makers concerned with the employment of foreign labour.

The survey is made up of mainly multiple choice questions that should take you about fifteen minutes to answer. Your responses will be kept confidential. Please be assured that neither you nor your organisation will be identified in any way. If you have any queries or need clarification on any aspect of this study, please feel free to contact me or any of my colleagues: we would be most happy to speak to you.

Aster Yong
Ph: 03-9688 5383
Email: aster.yong@research.vu.edu.au

Professor Ronald Francis
Ph: 03-9688 5349
Email: ronald.francis@vu.edu.au

Associate Professor Anona Armstrong
Ph: 03-9688 5350
Email: anona.armstrong@vu.edu.au

Thank you for your time and cooperation and we look forward to receiving your views on this important and relevant issue. When the study is complete we would be pleased to send you a summary of the conclusions, and to answer any other questions that you might have that would be of interest to you and your organisation.

Yours sincerely,

Aster Yong

APPENDIX VI.26

Frequency Tables for Quota Sample (N=83) COMPANY PROFILE

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	25	12.3	30.1	30.1
	Singapore	15	7.4	18.1	48.2
	Malaysia	43	21.2	51.8	100.0
	Total	83	40.9	100.0	
Missing	System	120	59.1		
Total		203	100.0		

Main business interest

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Manufacturing	5	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Services	17	68.0	68.0	88.0
		Wholesale	1	4.0	4.0	92.0
		Finance, Investment	2	8.0	8.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Mining etc	1	6.7	6.7	6.7
		Manufacturing	5	33.3	33.3	40.0
		Services	6	40.0	40.0	80.0
		Wholesale	2	13.3	13.3	93.3
		Finance, Investment	1	6.7	6.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Mining etc	3	7.0	7.5	7.5
		Manufacturing	20	46.5	50.0	57.5
		Services	12	27.9	30.0	87.5
		Wholesale	2	4.7	5.0	92.5
		Finance, Investment	3	7.0	7.5	100.0
		Total	40	93.0	100.0	
	Missing	System	3	7.0		
	Total		43	100.0		

Type of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Sole Proprietor	3	12.0	12.0	12.0
		Partnership	8	32.0	32.0	44.0
		Proprietary Ltd	7	28.0	28.0	72.0
		Public-listed	3	12.0	12.0	84.0
		Other	4	16.0	16.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Partnership	3	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Proprietary Ltd	6	40.0	40.0	60.0
		Public-listed	4	26.7	26.7	86.7
		Other	2	13.3	13.3	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Sole Proprietor	4	9.3	9.5	9.5
		Partnership	8	18.6	19.0	28.6
		Proprietary Ltd	19	44.2	45.2	73.8
		Public-listed	11	25.6	26.2	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
Total		43	100.0			

Family-owned or not

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Family-owned	10	40.0	40.0	40.0
		Not Family-owned	15	60.0	60.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Family-owned	2	13.3	13.3	13.3
		Not Family-owned	13	86.7	86.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Family-owned	11	25.6	26.2	26.2
		Not Family-owned	31	72.1	73.8	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

Locations of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	18	72.0	72.0	72.0
		AUSTRALIA offshore	7	28.0	28.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	5	33.3	33.3	33.3
		SINGAPORE offshore	10	66.7	66.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Malaysia	15	34.9	35.7	35.7
		MALAYSIA offshore	27	62.8	64.3	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

APPENDIX VI.26

**Frequency Tables for Quota Sample (N=83)
COMPANY PROFILE**

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	25	12.3	30.1	30.1
	Singapore	15	7.4	18.1	48.2
	Malaysia	43	21.2	51.8	100.0
	Total	83	40.9	100.0	
Missing	System	120	59.1		
Total		203	100.0		

Main business interest

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Manufacturing	5	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Services	17	68.0	68.0	88.0
		Wholesale	1	4.0	4.0	92.0
		Finance, Investment	2	8.0	8.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Mining etc	1	6.7	6.7	6.7
		Manufacturing	5	33.3	33.3	40.0
		Services	6	40.0	40.0	80.0
		Wholesale	2	13.3	13.3	93.3
		Finance, Investment	1	6.7	6.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Mining etc	3	7.0	7.5	7.5
		Manufacturing	20	46.5	50.0	57.5
		Services	12	27.9	30.0	87.5
		Wholesale	2	4.7	5.0	92.5
		Finance, Investment	3	7.0	7.5	100.0
		Total	40	93.0	100.0	
	Missing	System	3	7.0		
	Total		43	100.0		

Type of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Sole Proprietor	3	12.0	12.0	12.0
		Partnership	8	32.0	32.0	44.0
		Proprietary Ltd	7	28.0	28.0	72.0
		Public-listed	3	12.0	12.0	84.0
		Other	4	16.0	16.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Partnership	3	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Proprietary Ltd	6	40.0	40.0	60.0
		Public-listed	4	26.7	26.7	86.7
		Other	2	13.3	13.3	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Sole Proprietor	4	9.3	9.5	9.5
		Partnership	8	18.6	19.0	28.6
		Proprietary Ltd	19	44.2	45.2	73.8
		Public-listed	11	25.6	26.2	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

Family-owned or not

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Family-owned	10	40.0	40.0	40.0
		Not Family-owned	15	60.0	60.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Family-owned	2	13.3	13.3	13.3
		Not Family-owned	13	86.7	86.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
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		Not Family-owned	31	72.1	73.8	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

Locations of company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	18	72.0	72.0	72.0
		AUSTRALIA offshore	7	28.0	28.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	5	33.3	33.3	33.3
		SINGAPORE offshore	10	66.7	66.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Malaysia	15	34.9	35.7	35.7
		MALAYSIA offshore	27	62.8	64.3	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

APPENDIX VI.27

Frequency Tables for Quota Sample (N=83)

RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	25	12.3	30.1	30.1
	Singapore	15	7.4	18.1	48.2
	Malaysia	43	21.2	51.8	100.0
	Total	83	40.9	100.0	
Missing	System	120	59.1		
Total		203	100.0		

Gender

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Male	17	68.0	68.0	68.0
		Female	8	32.0	32.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Male	12	80.0	80.0	80.0
		Female	3	20.0	20.0	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Male	37	86.0	86.0	86.0
		Female	6	14.0	14.0	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Age

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	31-40	2	8.0	8.3	8.3
		41-50	11	44.0	45.8	54.2
		51-60	11	44.0	45.8	100.0
		Total	24	96.0	100.0	
		Missing	System	1	4.0	
	Total		25	100.0		
Singapore	Valid	31-40	3	20.0	20.0	20.0
		41-50	8	53.3	53.3	73.3
		51-60	3	20.0	20.0	93.3
		61 & above	1	6.7	6.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	25-30	3	7.0	7.0	7.0
		31-40	13	30.2	30.2	37.2
		41-50	17	39.5	39.5	76.7
		51-60	8	18.6	18.6	95.3
		61 & above	2	4.7	4.7	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Status in company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Sole owner	3	12.0	12.0	12.0
		Part owner	10	40.0	40.0	52.0
		Employee	12	48.0	48.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Sole owner	2	13.3	13.3	13.3
		Part owner	6	40.0	40.0	53.3
		Employee	7	46.7	46.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Sole owner	5	11.6	11.6	11.6
		Part owner	11	25.6	25.6	37.2
		Employee	27	62.8	62.8	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Position in company

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	MD/Dir	14	56.0	56.0	56.0
		Other Mgr	3	12.0	12.0	68.0
		Other	8	32.0	32.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	MD/Dir	9	60.0	64.3	64.3
		Other Mgr	4	26.7	28.6	92.9
		Other	1	6.7	7.1	100.0
		Total	14	93.3	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	6.7		
	Total		15	100.0		
Malaysia	Valid	MD/Dir	21	48.8	50.0	50.0
		Other Mgr	8	18.6	19.0	69.0
		HR Mgr	9	20.9	21.4	90.5
		Other	4	9.3	9.5	100.0
		Total	42	97.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	2.3		
	Total		43	100.0		

Citizenship

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	19	76.0	76.0	76.0
		AUSTRALIA - Other	6	24.0	24.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	5	33.3	33.3	33.3
		SINGAPORE - Other	10	66.7	66.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Malaysia	29	67.4	67.4	67.4
		MALAYSIA - Other	14	32.6	32.6	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Born in

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Australia	5	20.0	20.8	20.8
		AUSTRALIA - Other	19	76.0	79.2	100.0
		Total	24	96.0	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	4.0		
	Total		25	100.0		
Singapore	Valid	Singapore	5	33.3	33.3	33.3
		SINGAPORE - Other	10	66.7	66.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Malaysia	29	67.4	67.4	67.4
		MALAYSIA - Other	14	32.6	32.6	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Recode identity ethnic

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Anglo-Celt/Caucasian	9	36.0	36.0	36.0
		Chinese	14	56.0	56.0	92.0
		Malay	1	4.0	4.0	96.0
		Other	1	4.0	4.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Anglo-Celt/Caucasian	8	53.3	53.3	53.3
		Chinese	7	46.7	46.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Anglo-Celt/Caucasian	12	27.9	27.9	27.9
		Chinese	16	37.2	37.2	65.1
		Malay	7	16.3	16.3	81.4
		Indian	8	18.6	18.6	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Religion1

Country			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Missing	System	120	100.0		
Australia	Valid	Christian	5	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Buddhist	16	64.0	64.0	84.0
		Muslim	3	12.0	12.0	96.0
		None	1	4.0	4.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
Singapore	Valid	Christian	9	60.0	60.0	60.0
		Buddhist	5	33.3	33.3	93.3
		None	1	6.7	6.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
Malaysia	Valid	Christian	13	30.2	30.2	30.2
		Buddhist	18	41.9	41.9	72.1
		Muslim	8	18.6	18.6	90.7
		Hindu	2	4.7	4.7	95.3
		None	2	4.7	4.7	100.0
		Total	43	100.0	100.0	

Crosstabs

Position in company * Length of time in position Crosstabulation

Country			Length of time in position					Total
			<1 year	bet 1-2 years	bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	> 10 years	
Australia	Position in company	MD/Dir			2	3	9	14
		Other Mgr		1		1	1	3
		Other	1	3	1	2	1	8
	Total		1	4	3	6	11	25
Singapore	Position in company	MD/Dir		1	2	3	2	8
		Other Mgr		2	1	1		4
		Other	1					1
	Total		1	3	3	4	2	13
Malaysia	Position in company	MD/Dir	1	1	6	6	7	21
		Other Mgr	1	3	1	1	2	8
		HR Mgr			3	3	3	9
		Other		2		1	1	4
	Total		2	6	10	11	13	42

Status in company - Owner/Employee * Length of time in organisation Crosstabulation

Country			Length of time in organisation					Total
			< 1 year	bet 1-2 years	bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	>10 years	
Australia	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner			2	3	8	13
		Employee	1	2	1	5	3	12
	Total		1	2	3	8	11	25
Singapore	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner		1		3	3	7
		Employee	1	2	1	1	2	7
	Total		1	3	1	4	5	14
Malaysia	Status in company - Owner/Employee	Owner		1	3	6	6	16
		Employee		1	6	8	12	27
	Total			2	9	14	18	43

APPENDIX VI.28

AUSTRALIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%

Employment within the country

Bringing in the Skilled	105	96	91	9	9
Bringing in the Unskilled	78	39	50	39	50
Hiring the Skilled already in country	104	99	95	5	5
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	75	44	59	31	41

Employment in other countries

Work sent	103	50	49	53	51
Set-up of branch	101	90	89	11	11
Company relocation	103	20	19	83	81

APPENDIX VI.29
 AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF
 FOREIGN LABOUR (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=103)	66	64	15	14.5	16	15.5	6	6
Foreigners already in country (n=104)	41	39	13	13	33	32	17	16
Work sent overseas (n=101)	77	76	3	3	13	13	8	8

APPENDIX VI.30
 SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES (*Q4*)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	
Once only	1	11			
	2	2			
	4	1			
	2001	1			
			Total	15	
On a few occasions	1	12	1	1	
	5	1	2	4	
			3	4	
			4	1	
			6	1	
			10	1	
			15	1	
		Total	13	Total	13

Regularly	1	2	1	1
			18	1
		Total	2	Total
				2

APPENDIX VI.31

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	10		
	2	1		
	4	1		
		Total	12	
On a few occasions	1	18	1	2
	2	5	2	3
	3	2	3	7
	10	1	4	2
			5	4
			6	3
			8	1
			10	1
			15	1

		Total	26		Total	24
Regularly	1	5		1	1	
	2	3		4	1	
	5	1		5	1	
	8	1		6	1	
	10	1		8	1	
				10	2	
				11	1	
				15	1	
				31	1	
				40	1	
		Total	11		Total	11

APPENDIX VI.32 SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	8	5	3	-		16	26
Technical	10	13	3	1		27	44
Sales	3	5	-	-		8	13
Administrative	3	6	-	-		9	14
Other (eg production, health, research)	2	-	-	-		2	3
						62	100

APPENDIX VI.33 SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	8	10	1	2		21	18
Technical	10	27	2	1		40	35
Sales	2	15	-	-		17	15
Administrative	3	21	-	-		24	21

Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	3	8	1	-	12	11
					114	100

APPENDIX VI.34 AUSTRALIANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)		n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	22	22
	2	12	11.75
	3	11	11
	4	17	16.75
	5	14	13.75
	6	14	13.75
<i>Very likely</i>	7	11	11
	<i>Total</i>	101	
	<i>Mean</i>	3.7426	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	2.0477	

APPENDIX VI.35 AUSTRALIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=103)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	63	61	
Reason for being	61		5.9180
Cannot keep going otherwise	58		5.9655
Measure of success	57		5.4211
A waste of time otherwise	54		5.0556

	DISAGREE	40	39	
	Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	39		6.1282

APPENDIX VI.36

AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	75	70	93	5	7
Bringing in the Unskilled	54	26	48	28	52
Hiring the Skilled already in country	75	72	96	3	4
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	55	33	60	22	40
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	75	39	52	36	48
Set-up of branch	73	66	90	7	10
Company relocation	75	17	23	58	77

APPENDIX VI.37

AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' COMPANIES'
EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9,
Q14)

CATEGORIES OF FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
	Employment							
	%		%		%		%	
Foreigners brought in (n=74)	48	65	9	12	14	19	3	4
Foreigners already in country (n=75)	32	43	8	11	25	33	10	13
Work sent overseas (n=73)	55	75	2	3	10	14	6	8

APPENDIX VI.38

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-
CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	6		
	2	1		
	4	1		
	2001	1		
			9	
On a few occasions	1	11	1	1
	5	1	2	3
			3	4
			4	1
			6	1
			10	1
			15	1
			12	12
Regularly	1	2	1	1
			18	1
			2	2

APPENDIX VI.39

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	5		
	2	1		
	4	1		
		7		
On a few occasions	1	15	1	2
	2	3	2	2
	3	2	3	5
	10	1	4	2
			5	4
			6	3
			8	1
			15	1
		21		20
Regularly	1	4	1	1
	2	2	4	1
	10	1	5	1
			8	1
			15	1
			31	1
			40	1
		7		7

APPENDIX VI.40

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	5	4	2	-		11	26
Technical	7	10	3	-		20	47.5
Sales	2	2	-	-		4	9.5
Administrative	2	3	-	-		5	12
Other (eg production, health, research)	2	-	-	-		2	5
						42	100

APPENDIX VI.41
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES
(Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	5	8	1	-	-	14	18.5
Technical	6	18	2	-	-	26	34
Sales	1	9	-	-	-	10	13
Administrative	2	15	-	-	-	17	22.5
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	3	6	-	-	-	9	12
						76	100

APPENDIX VI.42
AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' RESIDENCE
CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

	Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	20	27.5
	2	9	12
	3	5	7
	4	12	16.5
	5	9	12
<i>Very likely</i>	6	11	15
	7	7	10
	<i>Total</i>	73	
	<i>Mean</i>	3.5753	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	2.1208	

APPENDIX VI.43

AUSTRALIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=75)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	48	64	
Reason for being	46		5.9783
Cannot keep going otherwise	44		6.1136
Measure of success	43		5.4651
A waste of time otherwise	41		5.0488
DISAGREE	27	36	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	26		6.0769

APPENDIX VI.44

AUSTRALIAN CHINESE ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	18	16	89	2	11
Bringing in the Unskilled	15	10	67	5	33
Hiring the Skilled already in country	18	16	89	2	11
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	14	8	57	6	43
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	18	7	39	11	61
Set-up of branch	18	17	94	1	6
Company relocation	18	3	17	15	83

APPENDIX VI.45

AUSTRALIAN CHINESE COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=18)	9	50	5	28	1	5.5	3	16.5
Foreigners already in country (n=18)	5	28	2	11	5	28	6	33
Work sent overseas (n=18)	13	72	1	6	2	11	2	11

APPENDIX VI.46

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	4		
	2	1		
			5	

APPENDIX VI.47**SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q9)**

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	2	2	
On a few occasions	1 2	2 1	2 3	1 2
Regularly	1 5 8	1 1 1	10 11 3	2 1 3

APPENDIX VI.48**SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q5)**

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	1	1	-		5	28
Technical	2	3	-	1		6	33
Sales	1	2	-	-		3	17
Administrative	1	3	-	-		4	22
						18	100

APPENDIX VI.49
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
AUSTRALIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	3	2	-	2	7	23
Technical	4	4	-	1	9	29
Sales	1	6	-	-	7	23
Administrative	1	5	-	-	6	19
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	1	1	-	2	6
					31	100

APPENDIX VI.50
AUSTRALIAN CHINESE RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	2	11
	3	11
	4	16.5
	5	28
	6	16.5
<i>Very likely</i>	7	16.5
<i>Total</i>	18	
<i>Mean</i>	4.7778	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.5925	

APPENDIX VI.51

AUSTRALIAN CHINESE OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=18)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	9	50	
Reason for being	9		5.2222
Cannot keep going otherwise	9		5.1111
Measure of success	9		5.7778
A waste of time otherwise	8		5.0000
DISAGREE	9	50	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	9		6.2222

APPENDIX VI.52

AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	62	56	90	6	10
Bringing in the Unskilled	41	20	49	21	51
Hiring the Skilled already in country	62	59	95	3	5
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	42	25	60	17	40
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	62	25	40	37	60
Set-up of branch	61	53	87	8	13
Company relocation	62	8	13	54	87

APPENDIX VI.53

AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=62)	37	60	13	21	10	16	2	3
Foreigners already in country (n=62)	27	43	10	16	19	31	6	10
Work sent overseas (n=60)	49	82	3	5	5	8	3	5

APPENDIX VI.54

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	9		
	2	2		
	4	1		
	2001	1		
			13	
On a few occasions	1	8	2	3
	5	1	3	4
			6	1
			15	1
			9	
Regularly	1	1	18	1
			1	1

APPENDIX VI.55

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	8		
	4	1		
			9	
On a few occasions	1	11	1	1
	2	3	2	3
	3	2	3	3
	10	1	4	1
			5	4
			6	3
			10	1
		15	1	
		17		17
Regularly	1	3	5	1
	2	2	6	1
			11	1
			31	1
			40	1
		5		5

APPENDIX VI.56

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	2	2	-		7	17.5
Technical	8	8	3	1		20	50
Sales	2	3	-	-		5	12.5
Administrative	3	3	-	-		6	15
Other (eg production, health, research)	2	-	-	-		2	5
						40	100

APPENDIX VI.57
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	1	7	1	-	9	15
Technical	6	18	2	1	27	44
Sales	1	7	-	-	8	13
Administrative	2	10	-	-	12	20
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	3	2	-	-	5	8
					61	100

APPENDIX VI.58
AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)		n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	15	25
	2	8	13
	3	7	11
	4	11	18
	5	9	15
	6	6	10
<i>Very likely</i>	7	5	8
	<i>Total</i>	61	
	<i>Mean</i>	3.4754	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.9800	

APPENDIX VI.59

AUSTRALIAN CHRISTIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=62)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	39	63	
Reason for being	38		6.1316
Cannot keep going otherwise	35		5.9714
Measure of success	34		5.3824
A waste of time otherwise	32		4.8125
DISAGREE	23	37	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	23		6.1304

APPENDIX VI.60

AUSTRALIAN BUDDHISTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	17	17	100	0	0
Bringing in the Unskilled	15	7	47	8	53
Hiring the Skilled already in country	17	17	100	0	0
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	15	10	67	5	33
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	17	9	53	8	47
Set-up of branch	16	14	87.5	2	12.5
Company relocation	17	2	12	15	88

APPENDIX VI.61

AUSTRALIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=17)	11	64.5	1	6	3	17.5	2	12
Foreigners already in country (n=17)	4	24	-	-	8	47	5	29
Work sent overseas (n=17)	11	65	-	-	3	17.5	3	17.5

APPENDIX VI.62

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	1	1	
On a few occasions	1	2	2 10	1 1 2

APPENDIX VI.63

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY AUSTRALIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	4	1	1
	2	1	3	2
			4	1
		5		4
Regularly	2	1	8	1
	8	1	10	1
			2	2

APPENDIX VI.64

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY AUSTRALIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	2	1	-	6	43	
Technical	1	3	-	-	4	29	
Sales	-	2	-	-	2	14	
Administrative	-	2	-	-	2	14	
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	-	-	-	-	-	
					14	100	

APPENDIX VI.65
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
AUSTRALIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Australian	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	4	1	-	1	6	21
Technical	1	6	-	-	7	25
Sales	-	5	-	-	5	18
Administrative	-	7	-	-	7	25
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	2	1	-	3	11
					28	100

APPENDIX VI.66
AUSTRALIAN BUDDHISTS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	6
	2	6
	3	-
	4	23.5
	5	18
	6	23.5
<i>Very likely</i>	7	23.5
<i>Total</i>	17	
<i>Mean</i>	5.0588	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.7489	

APPENDIX VI.67

AUSTRALIAN BUDDHISTS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=17)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	8	47	
Reason for being	8		4.1250
Cannot keep going otherwise	8		5.0000
Measure of success	8		4.8750
A waste of time otherwise	7		4.5714
DISAGREE	9	53	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	8		6.3750

APPENDIX VI.68

SINGAPOREANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	55	52	95	3	5
Bringing in the Unskilled	40	27	67.5	13	32.5
Hiring the Skilled already in country	53	49	92	4	8
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	38	22	58	16	42
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	55	47	85	8	15
Set-up of branch	54	51	94	3	6
Company relocation	54	33	61	21	39

APPENDIX VI.69**SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)**

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=54)	7	13	3	5	22	41	22	41
Foreigners already in country (n=55)	12	22	4	7	24	44	15	27
Work sent overseas (n=52)	23	44	4	8	13	25	12	23

APPENDIX VI.70
SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
‘BROUGHT IN’ BY SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	2		
	4	1		
		Total 3		
On a few occasions	1	8	2	1
	2	6	3	5
	3	1	4	3
	4	1	5	2
	5	1	6	1
	10	1	10	3
	12	1	18	1
	30	1	20	1
	40	1	40	1
			50	1
			120	1
			200	1
			Total 21	Total 21
Regularly	1	8	3	3
	2	2	5	2
	5	4	6	3
	6	1	10	2
	10	1	14	1
	12	1	15	1
	20	1	25	1
	50	2	40	1
			50	3
			60	1
			200	1
			300	1
			Total 20	Total 20

APPENDIX VI.71

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	4	4		
		Total	4	
On a few occasions	1	9	2	1
	2	4	3	5
	3	2	4	2
	4	2	5	3
	5	2	8	1
	10	1	10	5
	12	1	15	1
	40	1	18	1
			20	1
			40	1
			120	1
		Total	22	Total
				22
Regularly	1	7	3	2
	2	1	5	3
	3	1	6	1
	10	1	15	1
	20	3	25	1
	30	1	30	1
	1200	1	50	3
			200	1
			230	1
			2500	1
		Total	15	Total
				15

APPENDIX VI.72

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	11	15	2	-		28	24
Technical	15	26	1	1		43	37
Sales	8	11	2	-		21	18
Administrative	2	18	1	-		21	18
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	2	-	2		4	3

APPENDIX VI.73
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
SINGAPOREAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	10	13	1	-	24	22
Technical	11	27	-	-	38	36
Sales	5	16	-	-	21	19
Administrative	3	18	-	-	21	19
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	2	2	-	-	4	4
					108	100

APPENDIX VI.74
SINGAPOREANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

	Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	3	6
	2	6	11
	3	6	11
	4	11	20.5
	5	12	22
	6	11	20.5
<i>Very likely</i>	7	5	9
	<i>Total</i>	54	
	<i>Mean</i>	4.4074	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.6769	

APPENDIX VI.75
SINGAPOREANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS
(Q25)

Opinions (n=55)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	40	73	
Reason for being	40		6.3250
Cannot keep going otherwise	38		6.1053
Measure of success	38		5.7105
A waste of time otherwise	37		4.9459
DISAGREE	15	27	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	15		6.1333

APPENDIX VI.76
SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	10	10	100	0	0
Bringing in the Unskilled	9	6	60	3	30
Hiring the Skilled already in country	10	10	100	0	0
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	9	5	50	4	40
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	10	9	90	1	10
Set-up of branch	9	9	90	0	0
Company relocation	9	6	60	3	30

APPENDIX VI.77

SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' COMPANIES'
EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=10)	1	10	0	0	2	20	7	70
Foreigners already in country (n=10)	4	40	1	10	3	30	2	20
Work sent overseas (n=10)	4	40	0	0	3	30	3	30

APPENDIX VI.78

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-
CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (*Q4*)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	2	4	1
			5	1
		2		2
Regularly	1	3	3	2
	2	1	6	2
	5	1	10	1
	50	1	60	1
		6		6

APPENDIX VI.79

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	1	1	
On a few occasions	1 2	2 1	3 8	2 1
Regularly	1 20	1 1	3 50	1 1
			2	2

APPENDIX VI.80

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singapore	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	5	-	2	-	7	30.5	
Technical	6	2	-	1	9	39	
Sales	3	-	1	-	4	17.5	
Administrative	-	2	1	-	3	13	
					23	100	

APPENDIX VI.81
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES
(Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singapore	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	-	1	-		4	33.5
Technical	2	2	-	-		4	33.5
Sales	1	2	-	-		3	25
Administrative	-	1	-	-		1	8
						12	100

APPENDIX VI.82
SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' RESIDENCE
CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)		n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	4	1	10
	5	1	10
	6	3	30
<i>Very likely</i>	7	5	50
	<i>Total</i>	10	
	<i>Mean</i>	6.2000	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.0328	

APPENDIX VI.83
SINGAPOREAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS
PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=10)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	8	80	
Reason for being	8		6.5000
Cannot keep going otherwise	8		6.1250
Measure of success	8		5.1250
A waste of time otherwise	8		4.2500
DISAGREE	2	20	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	2		5.0000

APPENDIX VI.84
SINGAPOREAN CHINESE ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF
FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	44	41	93	3	7
Bringing in the Unskilled	30	20	67	10	33
Hiring the Skilled already in country	42	38	90	4	10
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	28	16	57	12	43
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	44	37	84	7	16
Set-up of branch	44	41	93	3	7
Company relocation	44	27	61	17	39

APPENDIX VI.86
SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN CHINESE COMPANIES
(Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	2		
	4	1		
			3	
On a few occasions	1	6	2	1
	2	6	3	5
	3	1	4	2
	4	1	5	1
	10	1	6	1
	12	1	10	2
	30	1	18	1
	40	1	20	1
			40	1
			50	1
			120	1
			200	1
		18		18
Regularly	1	5	3	1
	2	1	5	2
	5	3	6	1
	6	1	10	1
	10	1	14	1
	12	1	15	1
	20	1	25	1
	50	1	40	1
			50	3
			200	1
		300	1	
		14		14

APPENDIX VI.87

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY SINGAPOREAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	3	3	
On a few occasions	1	7	2	1
	2	3	3	3
	3	2	4	2
	4	2	5	3
	5	1	10	4
	10	1	15	1
	12	1	18	1
	40	1	20	1
			40	1
			120	1
			18	18
Regularly	1	6	3	1
	2	1	5	3
	3	1	6	1
	10	1	15	1
	20	2	25	1
	30	1	30	1
	1200	1	50	2
			200	1
			230	1
			2500	1
			13	13

APPENDIX VI.88

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	6	15	-	-	21	23
Technical	8	24	1	-	33	35.5
Sales	5	11	1	-	17	18
Administrative	2	16	-	-	18	19.5

Other (eg production, health, research)	-	2	-	2	4	4
					93	100

APPENDIX VI.89
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
SINGAPOREAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	7	13	-	-	20	21	
Technical	8	25	-	-	33	35	
Sales	4	14	-	-	18	19	
Administrative	3	17	-	-	20	21	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	2	2	-	-	4	4	
					95	100	

APPENDIX VI.90
SINGAPOREAN CHINESE RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

	Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	3	7
	2	6	14
	3	5	11.5
	4	10	23
	5	11	26
	6	8	18.5
<i>Very likely</i>			
	<i>Total</i>	43	
	<i>Mean</i>	4.0233	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.5351	

APPENDIX VI.91
SINGAPOREAN CHINESE OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF
BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=44)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	31	70.5	
Reason for being	31		6.2581
Cannot keep going otherwise	29		6.1724
Measure of success	29		5.9310
A waste of time otherwise	28		5.1786
DISAGREE	13	29.5	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	13		6.3077

APPENDIX VI.92
SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES
OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	26	26	100	0	0
Bringing in the Unskilled	18	13	72	5	28
Hiring the Skilled already in country	26	25	96	1	4
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	19	10	53	9	47
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	26	25	96	1	4
Set-up of branch	25	25	100	0	0
Company relocation	25	16	64	9	36

APPENDIX VI.93

SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=26)	3	11.5	1	4	15	57.5	7	27
Foreigners already in country (n=26)	7	27	2	7.5	15	58	2	7.5
Work sent overseas (n=25)	10	40	1	4	10	40	4	16

APPENDIX VI.94

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	1	1	
On a few occasions	1	7	2	1
	2	3	3	2
	4	1	4	3
	10	1	5	2
	30	1	10	1
	40	1	20	1
			40	1
			50	1
			120	1
			200	1
			14	14
Regularly	1	4	3	2
	2	1	6	3
	5	1	10	1
			6	6

APPENDIX VI.95

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	2	2	
On a few occasions	1	7	3	4
	2	3	4	2
	4	2	5	1
	10	1	8	1
	40	1	10	2
			15	1
			20	1
			40	1
			120	1
			14	14
Regularly	2	2	3	1
			6	1
			2	2

APPENDIX VI.96

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination	Total	%
Managerial	5	7	2	-	14	26
Technical	10	8	1	1	20	37
Sales	5	4	2	-	11	20
Administrative	1	6	1	-	8	15
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	-	-	1	1	2
					54	100

APPENDIX VI.97
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	4	7	1	-	12	27
Technical	5	10	-	-	15	33
Sales	2	8	-	-	10	22
Administrative	1	6	-	-	7	16
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	1	-	-	-	1	2
					45	100

APPENDIX VI.98
SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	4
	2	8
	3	8
	4	19
	5	23
	6	19
<i>Very likely</i>	7	19
<i>Total</i>	26	
<i>Mean</i>	4.8462	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.6898	

APPENDIX VI.99
SINGAPOREAN CHRISTIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE
OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=26)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	16	61.5	
Reason for being	16		6.4375
Cannot keep going otherwise	16		6.1875
Measure of success	16		5.7500
A waste of time otherwise	16		4.6875
DISAGREE	10	38.5	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	10		6.1000

APPENDIX VI.100
SINGAPOREAN BUDDHISTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES
OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	17	14	82	3	18
Bringing in the Unskilled	13	7	54	6	46
Hiring the Skilled already in country	15	13	87	2	13
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	11	7	64	4	36
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	17	13	76	4	24
Set-up of branch	17	14	82	3	18
Company relocation	17	8	47	9	53

APPENDIX VI.101

SINGAPOREAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=16)	2	12.5	1	6	4	25	9	56.5
Foreigners already in country (n=17)	2	12	1	6	5	29	9	53
Work sent overseas (n=16)	7	44	3	19	1	6	5	31

APPENDIX VI.102

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	1	1	1	
On a few occasions	1	1	3	2
	2	2	6	1
	12	1	18	1
			4	4
Regularly	1	2	5	2
	2	1	10	1
	5	2	25	1
	10	1	40	1
	12	1	50	3
	20	1	300	1
	50	1		
			9	9

APPENDIX VI.103

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY SINGAPOREAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	1	1	1	
On a few occasions	1	2	2	1
	2	1	3	1
	5	1	5	1
	12	1	10	1
			18	1
		5		5
Regularly	1	3	5	3
	2	1	15	1
	3	1	25	1
	10	1	50	2
	20	1	200	1
	30	1	2500	1
	1200	1		
		9		9

APPENDIX VI.104

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY SINGAPOREAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	4	-	-	7	19	
Technical	1	12	-	-	13	36	
Sales	1	4	-	-	5	14	
Administrative	1	8	-	-	9	25	
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	1	-	1	2	6	
					36	100	

APPENDIX VI.105
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
SINGAPOREAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Singaporean	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	3	-	-	6	15	
Technical	1	13	-	-	14	35	
Sales	1	7	-	-	8	20	
Administrative	1	9	-	-	10	25	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	2	-	-	2	5	
					40	100	

APPENDIX VI.106
SINGAPOREAN BUDDHISTS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	2	12.5
1	4	25
2	1	6
3	3	18.75
4	3	18.75
5	3	18.75
6	3	18.75
<i>Very likely</i>	-	-
<i>Total</i>	16	
<i>Mean</i>	3.6250	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.7842	

APPENDIX VI.107
SINGAPOREAN BUDDHISTS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF
BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=17)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	15	88	
Reason for being	15		6.0667
Cannot keep going otherwise	15		6.0667
Measure of success	15		5.7333
A waste of time otherwise	14		4.9286
DISAGREE	2	12	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	2		6.5000

APPENDIX VI.108
MALAYSIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1,
Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	40	37	92.5	3	7.5
Bringing in the Unskilled	38	26	68	12	32
Hiring the Skilled already in country	38	36	95	2	5
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	34	21	62	13	38
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	43	27	63	16	37
Set-up of branch	43	40	93	3	7
Company relocation	43	12	28	31	72

APPENDIX VI.109

MALAYSIAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
		%		%		%		%
Employment								
Foreigners brought in (n=43)	9	21	5	11.5	17	39.5	12	28
Foreigners already in country (n=40)	15	37.5	2	5	16	40	7	17.5
Work sent overseas (n=39)	23	59	1	2.5	10	25.5	5	13

APPENDIX VI.110

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN COMPANIES (*Q4*)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	
Once only	4	2			
	10	1			
	36	1			
	40	1			
			Total	5	
On a few occasions	1	9	1	1	
	2	6	3	3	
	14	1	4	2	
	50	1	5	2	
			6	1	
			7	1	
			8	1	
			20	2	
			25	1	
			30	1	
			200	1	
			Total	17	Total 16

Regularly	1	7	3	1
	2	1	5	2
	3	1	7	1
	4	1	10	2
	5	1	20	1
	20	1	50	2
			100	3
		Total	12	Total
				12

APPENDIX VI.111

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	3	1		
	40	1		
		Total	2	
On a few occasions	1	11	2	2
	2	4	3	1
	14	1	4	3
			5	1
			6	1
			8	2
			10	1
			20	1
			25	1
			30	1
			36	1
		Total	16	Total
				15
Regularly	1	3	5	2
	2	1	10	1
	4	1	50	2
	5	1	100	2
	20	1		
		Total	7	Total
				7

APPENDIX VI.112

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	14	1	3	1	19	28	
Technical	14	5	3	-	22	33	
Sales	5	2	2	-	9	13.5	
Administrative	3	4	1	-	8	12	
Other (eg production, health, research)	1	7	1	-	9	13.5	
					67	100	

APPENDIX VI.113
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations				Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination		
Managerial	7	5	-	-	12	24
Technical	9	6	1	1	17	33
Sales	4	2	-	-	6	12
Administrative	2	5	-	-	7	14
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	1	7	1	-	9	17
					51	100

APPENDIX VI.114
MALAYSIANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	3	7
1	3	7
2	7	16
3	6	14
4	5	12
5	13	30
6	6	14
<i>Very likely</i>		
7		
<i>Total</i>	43	
<i>Mean</i>	4.6279	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.8260	

APPENDIX VI.115

MALAYSIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS
(Q25)

Opinions (n=43)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	32	74	
Reason for being	32		6.2813
Cannot keep going otherwise	32		6.1250
Measure of success	32		5.8125
A waste of time otherwise	31		5.6774
DISAGREE	11	26	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	11		6.2727

APPENDIX VI.116

MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	12	12	100	0	0
Bringing in the Unskilled	9	6	67	3	33
Hiring the Skilled already in country	12	12	100	0	0
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	8	4	50	4	50
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	12	11	92	1	8
Set-up of branch	12	12	100	0	0
Company relocation	12	6	50	6	50

APPENDIX VI.117

MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
		%		%		%		%
Employment								
Foreigners brought in (n=12)	1	8.5	-	0	7	58	4	33.5
Foreigners already in country (n=11)	3	27	-	0	4	36.5	4	36.5
Work sent overseas (n=11)	3	27	-	0	4	36.5	4	36.5

APPENDIX VI.118

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (*Q4*)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'		Largest numbers 'brought in'	
		Companies represented		Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	5	3	2
	2	2	4	1
			5	1
			7	1
			8	1
			20	1
			7	7
Regularly	1	2	5	1
	4	1	10	1
	5	1	50	1
			100	1
		4	4	

APPENDIX VI.119

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	4	2	1
			4	1
			5	1
			8	1
		4		4
Regularly	1	1	5	1
			10	1
			50	1
			100	1
		4		4

APPENDIX VI.120

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination	Total	%
Managerial	7	-	2	1	10	37
Technical	6	1	2	-	9	33
Sales	2	-	1	-	3	11
Administrative	1	2	1	-	4	15
Other (eg production, health, research)	1	-	-	-	1	4
					27	100

APPENDIX VI.121
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN COMPANIES
(Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	4	1	-	-	5	25	
Technical	5	1	1	1	8	40	
Sales	2	1	-	-	3	15	
Administrative	1	2	-	-	3	15	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	1	-	-	-	1	5	
					20	100	

APPENDIX VI.122
MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' RESIDENCE
CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	5	25
	6	33
<i>Very likely</i>	7	42
<i>Total</i>	12	
<i>Mean</i>	6.1667	
<i>Std Deviation</i>	.8348	

APPENDIX VI.123

MALAYSIAN ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=12)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	10	83	
Reason for being	10		6.3000
Cannot keep going otherwise	10		6.4000
Measure of success	10		5.5000
A waste of time otherwise	9		5.2222
DISAGREE	2	17	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	2		6.0000

APPENDIX VI.124

MALAYSIAN CHINESE ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	14	13	93	1	7
Bringing in the Unskilled	15	10	67	5	33
Hiring the Skilled already in country	14	13	93	1	7
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	14	7	50	7	50
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	16	9	56	7	44
Set-up of branch	16	14	87.5	2	12.5
Company relocation	16	2	12.5	14	87.5

APPENDIX VI.125

MALAYSIAN CHINESE COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (*Q4, Q9, Q14*)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=16)	7	44	1	6	2	12.5	6	37.5
Foreigners already in country (n=15)	7	47	-	-	5	33	3	20
Work sent overseas (n=15)	9	60	1	6.5	4	27	1	6.5

APPENDIX VI.126

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (*Q4*)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	4	1	1	
On a few occasions	1 2	1 1	1	1 1
Regularly	1 3 20	4 1 1	5 10 20 50 100	1 1 1 1 2
			6	6

APPENDIX VI.127**SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q9)**

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	4	2	1
	2	1	4	1
			8	1
			10	1
			5	4
Regularly	1	2	5	1
	20	1	50	1
			100	1
			3	3

APPENDIX VI.128**SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q5)**

Type of work	Labour regulations					
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination	Total	%
Managerial	6	-	-	-	6	29
Technical	5	1	1	-	7	33
Sales	2	1	-	-	3	14
Administrative	2	1	-	-	3	14
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	2	-	-	2	10
					21	100

APPENDIX VI.129
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN CHINESE COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	2	1	-	-	3	20	
Technical	2	3	-	-	5	33	
Sales	1	1	-	-	2	13.5	
Administrative	1	1	-	-	2	13.5	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	3	-	-	3	20	
					15	100	

APPENDIX VI.130
MALAYSIAN CHINESE RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)		n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	3	19
	2	1	6
	3	3	19
	4	2	13
	5	1	6
<i>Very likely</i>	6	5	31
	7	1	6
	<i>Total</i>	16	
	<i>Mean</i>	4.0000	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	2.0656	

APPENDIX VI.131
MALAYSIAN CHINESE OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF
BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=16)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	9	56	
Reason for being	9		6.4444
Cannot keep going otherwise	9		6.1111
Measure of success	9		5.6667
A waste of time otherwise	9		6.0000
DISAGREE	7	44	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	7		6.4286

APPENDIX VI.132
MALAYSIAN CHRISTIANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES
OF FLE (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	12	12	100	0	0
Bringing in the Unskilled	10	7	70	3	30
Hiring the Skilled already in country	12	12	100	0	0
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	9	5	56	4	44
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	13	9	69	4	31
Set-up of branch	13	12	92	1	8
Company relocation	13	3	23	10	77

APPENDIX VI.133

MALAYSIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
		%		%		%		%
Foreigners brought in (n=13)	5	38.5	1	8	4	30.5	3	23
Foreigners already in country (n=12)	5	41.5	-	-	5	41.5	2	17
Work sent overseas (n=12)	7	58.5	-	-	4	33.5	1	8

APPENDIX VI.134

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'		Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'		Companies represented
Once only	4		1			1
On a few occasions	1		2		4	1
	2		2		5	1
					7	1
				4		3
Regularly	1		2		5	1
	4		1		10	1
					100	1
				3		3

APPENDIX VI.135
 SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN
 THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN CHRISTIAN
 COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
On a few occasions	1	4	4	2
	2	1	5	1
			8	1
			5	4
Regularly	1	1	10	1
	4	1	100	1
			2	2

APPENDIX VI.136
 SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES
 (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination	Total	%
Managerial	5	-	1	1	7	35
Technical	4	1	2	-	7	35
Sales	1	1	-	-	2	10
Administrative	1	2	-	-	3	15
Other (eg production, health, research)	1	-	-	-	1	5
					20	100

APPENDIX VI.137
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN CHRISTIAN COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	3	-	-	-		3	20
Technical	3	2	-	1		6	40
Sales	1	-	-	-		1	7
Administrative	1	1	-	-		2	13
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	1	2	-	-		3	20
						15	100

APPENDIX VI.138
MALAYSIAN CHRISTIANS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

	Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	2	15
	2	1	8
	3	1	8
	4	-	-
	5	1	8
	6	4	30.5
<i>Very likely</i>	7	4	30.5
	<i>Total</i>	13	
	<i>Mean</i>	4.9231	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	2.3260	

APPENDIX VI.139
MALAYSIAN CHRISTIANS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF
BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=13)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	8	61.5	
Reason for being	8		6.1250
Cannot keep going otherwise	8		5.8750
Measure of success	8		5.0000
A waste of time otherwise	7		5.2857
DISAGREE	5	38.5	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	5		6.8000

APPENDIX VI.140
MALAYSIAN BUDDHISTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN CATEGORIES OF
FOREIGN LABOUR EMPLOYMENT (FLE) (Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	17	16	94	1	6
Bringing in the Unskilled	16	11	69	5	31
Hiring the Skilled already in country	16	15	94	1	6
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	15	10	67	5	33
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	18	13	72	5	28
Set-up of branch	18	17	94	1	6
Company relocation	18	6	33	12	67

APPENDIX VI.141
MALAYSIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE
CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
		%		%		%		%
Employment								
Foreigners brought in (n=18)	3	17	1	6	7	38.5	7	38.5
Foreigners already in country (n=17)	6	35	1	6	7	41	3	18
Work sent overseas (n=17)	8	47	1	6	6	35	2	12

APPENDIX VI.142
SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	4	1	1	
On a few occasions	1 2	5 2	1 3 4 6 8 20	1 2 1 1 1 1
			7	7
Regularly	1 3 20	5 1 1	3 5 10 20 50 100	1 1 1 1 1 2
			7	7

APPENDIX VI.143

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	3	1	1	
On a few occasions	1 2	5 2	2 3 4 6 8 10	2 1 1 1 1 1
			7	7
Regularly	1 20	2 1	5 50 100	1 1 1
			3	3

APPENDIX VI.144

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination	Total	%
Managerial	7	-	1	-	8	29
Technical	8	3	-	-	11	39
Sales	2	-	1	-	3	10.5
Administrative	2	1	-	-	3	10.5
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	3	-	-	3	10.5
					28	99.5

APPENDIX VI.145
SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN BUDDHIST COMPANIES (Q10)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	2	2	-	-	4	20	
Technical	4	3	-	-	7	35	
Sales	2	1	-	-	3	15	
Administrative	1	3	-	-	4	20	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	2	-	-	2	10	
					20	100	

APPENDIX VI.146
MALAYSIAN BUDDHISTS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

	Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	1	1	5.5
	2	1	5.5
	3	2	11
	4	4	22
	5	3	17
	6	7	39
<i>Very likely</i>	7	-	
	<i>Total</i>	18	
	<i>Mean</i>	4.5556	
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	1.5424	

APPENDIX VI.147
MALAYSIAN BUDDHISTS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF
BUSINESS (Q25)

Opinions (n=18)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	13	72	
Reason for being	13		6.3077
Cannot keep going otherwise	13		6.2308
Measure of success	13		5.7692
A waste of time otherwise	13		5.6923
DISAGREE	5	28	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive	5		5.8000

APPENDIX VI.148

**Frequency Tables for Quota Sample of seven Malay Muslims
from Malaysia
COMPANY PROFILE**

Main business interest

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Mining etc	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
Manufacturing	6	85.7	85.7	100.0
Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Type of company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sole Proprietor	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Partnership	1	14.3	14.3	28.6
	Proprietary Ltd	2	28.6	28.6	57.1
	Public-listed	3	42.9	42.9	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Family-owned or not

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Family-owned	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Not Family-owned	6	85.7	85.7	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Locations of company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Malaysia	4	57.1	57.1	57.1
	MALAYSIA offshore	3	42.9	42.9	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX VI.149

Frequency Tables for Quota Sample of seven Malay Muslims from Malaysia

RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	6	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Female	1	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25-30	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	31-40	4	57.1	57.1	71.4
	41-50	2	28.6	28.6	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Status in company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employee	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

Position in company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Other Mgr	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	HR Mgr	6	85.7	85.7	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Citizenship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Malaysia	6	85.7	85.7	85.7
	MALAYSIA - Other	1	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Born in

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Malaysia	6	85.7	85.7	85.7
	MALAYSIA - Other	1	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Ethnic identity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Malay	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

Religion1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Muslim	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

Position in company * Length of time in position Crosstabulation

Count		Length of time in position				Total
		bet 1-2 years	bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	> 10 years	
Position in company	Other Mgr	1				1
	HR Mgr		2	2	2	6
Total		1	2	2	2	7

Status in company * Length of time in organisation Crosstabulation

Count		Length of time in organisation			Total
		bet 2-5 years	bet 5-10 years	>10 years	
Status in company	Employee	2	2	3	7
Total		2	2	3	7

APPENDIX VI.150
MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIMS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEVEN
CATEGORIES OF FLE (*Q1, Q6, Q11, Q16, Q19*)

Categories of FLE	Responses				
	Total	Favour	%	Not in Favour	%
Employment within the country					
Bringing in the Skilled	6	4	67[4]	2	33
Bringing in the Unskilled	7	6	86[1]	1	14
Hiring the Skilled already in country	5	4	80[3]	1	20
Hiring the Unskilled already in country	6	5	83[2]	1	17
Employment in other countries					
Work sent	7	3	43[5]	4	57
Set-up of branch	7	6	86[1]	1	14
Company relocation	7	1	14[6]	6	86

APPENDIX VI.151
RESPONSES OF MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE TO 3 BUSINESS
SCENARIO OPTIONS BY RANK ORDER (*Q23a*)

Business scenario options (n=7)	%	Mean
Set-up branch	100	5.5714
Work sent	86	3.5000
Co relocation	86	3.3333

APPENDIX VI.152

REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

Reasons (n=7)	%	Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)		
Senior executive positions	43	3.6667
Other managerial positions	43	2.3333
Specialist positions	43	5.0000
Skill gap/shortage	43	4.0000
Skill transfer/exchange	43	6.3333
Competing on global market	43	3.6667
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)		
Meet short supply in industry	86	5.3333
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	86	5.1667
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)		
Best person for the job	100	3.5714
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	100	3.714
Ability to fit in with local environment	100	3.5714
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	86	4.0000
PR is the same as a local	86	3.5000
Cultural diversity is good for the company	86	3.1667

APPENDIX VI.153

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

Reasons (n=7)	%	Mean
<i>Work sent (Q12)</i>		
In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	43	5.0000
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	43	5.6667
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	43	4.6667
Company to be competitive on world market	43	4.6667
Foster international trade relations	43	5.6667

Competitive product, both in price and quality	43	4.6667
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Set-up of branch (Q17)

Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	86	6.0000
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	86	5.5000
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	86	5.8333
Access to resources not available in country	86	4.6667
Foster international trade relations	86	5.1667

Company relocation (Q20)

Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	14	5.0000
Company to be competitive on world market	14	5.0000
Foster international trade relations	14	5.0000
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	14	4.0000
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	14	4.0000

APPENDIX VI.154

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

Reasons (n=7)	%	Mean
<i>Bringing in foreigners (Q3)</i>		
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	43	5.0000
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	29	5.0000
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	29	4.0000
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)		
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	29	5.0000
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	29	4.0000

APPENDIX VI.155

REASONS *NOT FAVOURING* FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

Reasons (n=7)	%	Mean
<i>Work sent (Q13)</i>		
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	57	5.000
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	57	5.250
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	57	4.500
Prefer product to be made locally	57	6.250
Set-up of branch (Q18)		
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	14	4.000
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	14	4.000
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	14	4.000
Prefer product to be made locally	14	6.000
Company relocation (Q21)		
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	86	5.500
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	86	5.333
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	86	5.000
Prefer product to be made locally	86	5.666
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	86	5.833

APPENDIX VI.156

MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF 3 CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR (Q4, Q9, Q14)

Categories of FLE	Nil		Once only		Few occasions		Regularly	
Employment								
	%		%		%		%	
Foreigners brought in (n=7)	-	-	2	29	5	71	-	-
Foreigners already in country (n=7)	2	29	1	14	4	57	-	-
Work sent overseas (n=6)	6	100	-	-	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX VI.157
SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM
COMPANIES (Q4)

Frequency	Smallest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented	Largest numbers 'brought in'	Companies represented
Once only	36	1		
	40	1		
		Total	2	
On a few occasions	1	1	5	1
	2	2	20	1
	14	1	25	1
	50	1	30	1
			200	1
		Total	5	Total
				5

APPENDIX VI.158

SMALLEST & LARGEST NUMBERS OF FOREIGN WORKERS ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM COMPANIES (Q9)

Frequency	Smallest numbers ever employed	Companies represented	Largest numbers ever employed	Companies represented
Once only	40	1		
		Total	1	
On a few occasions	1	2	20	1
	2	1	25	1
	14	1	30	1
			36	1
		Total	4	Total
				4

APPENDIX VI.159

SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS 'BROUGHT IN' BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM COMPANIES (Q5)

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	-	1	-	-		1	12.5
Technical	1	1	-	-		2	25
Sales	-	1	-	-		1	12.5
Administrative	-	-	-	-		-	-
Other (eg production, health, research)	-	3	1	-		4	50
						8	100

APPENDIX VI.160

**SALARY & WORK CONDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKERS
ALREADY IN THE COUNTRY EVER EMPLOYED BY
MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM COMPANIES (Q10)**

Type of work	Labour regulations					Total	%
	International standards	Malaysian	Worker's country of origin	Combination			
Managerial	1	2	-	-	3	33	
Technical	1	1	-	-	2	22	
Sales	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Administrative	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Other (eg production, health, labourers, translators, journalists, public relations)	-	3	1	-	4	44	
					9	99	

APPENDIX VI.161

COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE AND RANK ORDER (Q22)

Sources of foreign labour (n=7)	%	Mean
Recruit personally from overseas	100	4.8571
Local labour agency	86	5.0000
Agency in foreign country	86	2.8333

APPENDIX VI.162

MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIMS' RESIDENCE CONSIDERATIONS (Q23b)

Response scale (1-7)	n	%
<i>Not likely at all/Least likely</i>	2	14
	3	43
	4	29
<i>More likely</i>	5	14
	<i>Total</i>	7
	<i>Mean</i>	3.4286
	<i>Std Deviation</i>	.9759

APPENDIX VI.163**OPINIONS OF MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM SAMPLE ON TEN JOB SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK ORDER (Q24)**

Job factors (n=7)	%	Mean
Educational qualification	100	6.1429
Work experience	100	6.0000
Years of work experience	100	5.8571
Age	100	4.8571
Nationality	100	4.8571
Gender	100	3.5714
Marital status	100	3.5714
Ethnic identity	100	3.1429
Religion	100	2.7143
Place of birth	100	2.5714

APPENDIX VI.164**MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIMS' OPINIONS ON PROFIT AS PRIME MOTIVE OF BUSINESS (Q25)**

Opinions (n=7)	n	%	Mean
AGREE	7	100	
Reason for being	7		6.1429
Cannot keep going otherwise	7		5.8571
Measure of success	7		6.2857
A waste of time otherwise	7		5.7143
DISAGREE	0	0	
Profit important and necessary but not prime motive			

APPENDIX VI.165
 OPINIONS OF MALAYSIAN MALAY MUSLIM ON COMPANY PRIORITY
 ITEMS BY RANK ORDER (Q26)

Company priority items (n=7)	%	Mean
Profit	100	6.7143
Good quality product	100	6.1429
Good quality service	100	6.1429
Company's public image	100	6.1429
Fostering good relationships	100	6.1429
Company's growth and development	100	6.0000
Teamwork	100	6.0000
Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.0000
Staff competency	100	5.8571
Staff well being	100	5.8571
Company's capital investments	100	5.8571
Product development	100	5.8571
Staff work ethic	100	5.4286
Environmental responsibility	100	5.4286
Community-mindedness	100	5.2857
Staff loyalty	100	5.0000

APPENDIX VI.166
ATTITUDES OF TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE
FAVOURING SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE BY RANK
ORDER (refer to app. VI.28, VI.68 & VI.108)

Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
<i>CATEGORIES OF FLE</i>	%		%		%
Hiring the skilled already in country	95	Bringing in the skilled	95	Hiring the skilled already in country	95
Bringing in the skilled	91	Set-up of branch	94	Set-up of branch	93
Set-up of branch	89	Hiring the skilled already in country	92	Bringing in the skilled	92.5
Hiring the unskilled already in country	59	Work sent	85	Bringing in the unskilled	68
Bringing in the unskilled	50	Bringing in the unskilled	67.5	Work sent	63
Work sent	49	Company relocation	61	Hiring the unskilled already in country	62
Company relocation	19	Hiring the unskilled already in country	58	Company relocation	28

APPENDIX VI.167
RESPONSES OF TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE TO 3
BUSINESS SCENARIO OPTIONS BY RANK ORDER
(Q23a)

	Australia (n=105)		Singapore (n=55)		Malaysia (n=43)	
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean
Set-up branch	91	5.5000	96	5.2830	100	5.5116
Work sent	86	4.2556	91	4.7200	93	4.4000
Co relocation	81	2.8000	91	3.3400	93	3.5500

APPENDIX VI.168
REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL COUNTRY
SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

	Australia (n=105)			Singapore (n=55)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)						
Senior executive positions	81	3.7294		82	4.6000	
Other managerial positions	81	3.7412		82	4.0889	
Specialist positions	86	5.8333		85	5.8085	
Skill gap/shortage	89	5.9032		87	5.6458	
Skill transfer/exchange	84	5.7500		80	5.4545	
Competing on global market	83	5.1034		87	5.5208	
			5.0872			5.2
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)						
Meet short supply in industry	36	5.1053		49	6.0000	
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	36	4.6053		49	5.8519	
			4.9125			5.9
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)						
Best person for the job	90	5.5213		96	5.0755	
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	85	4.371		93	4.882	
Ability to fit in with local environment	88	4.0870		93	4.1765	
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	87	4.8571		91	4.2000	
PR is the same as a local	88	4.9239		93	4.4510	
Cultural diversity is good for the company	83	4.8276		91	3.9800	
Skill shortage ^a	1	7.0000		-	-	
			4.8111			4.5

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.169a
REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY
TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

	Australia (n=105)			Singapore (n=55)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Work sent (Q12)</i>						
In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	45	5.3191		80	5.2045	
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	44	5.5000		84	5.6522	
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	44	5.6304		84	5.5870	
Company to be competitive on world market	44	5.6957		82	5.8222	
Foster international trade relations	44	4.0652		78	4.1163	
Competitive product, both in price and quality	44	5.5435		82	5.7333	
			5.3319			5.3
Set-up of branch (Q17)						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	85	6.2247		89	6.0816	
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	85	5.8876		93	5.9020	
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	85	5.4831		87	4.8542	
Access to resources not available in country	84	5.3636		87	5.5417	
Foster international trade relations	83	4.7931		87	4.0417	
<i>Local knowledge and expertise^a</i>	3	6.6667		2	5.0000	
<i>Access to lower cost staff resources^a</i>	1	6.0000		-	-	
			5.5511			5.3

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.169b
REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL COUNTRY
SAMPLE (Q20)

	Australia (n=105)			Singapore (n=55)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Company relocation (Q20)</i>						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	18	6.1053		58	5.8125	
Company to be competitive on world market	18	5.8421		58	6.0313	
Foster international trade relations	18	4.4737		56	4.0000	
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	18	5.8421		56	4.7097	
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	18	5.7895		60	5.6364	
			5.6105			5.2

APPENDIX VI.170
 REASONS *NOT FAVOURING* FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL
 COUNTRY SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

	<i>Australia (n=105)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=55)</i>		
	%	Mean	<i>Overall Mean</i>	%	Mean	<i>Overall M</i>
<i>Bringing in foreigners (Q3)</i>						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	35	5.0811		24	3.9231	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	36	5.2632		24	4.2308	
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	36	5.5263		0	-	
			5.2982			4.0
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	29	4.7667		31	3.8824	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	30	4.9677		31	3.7647	
			4.9032			3.8

APPENDIX VI.171
 REASONS *NOT FAVOURING* FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL
 COUNTRY SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

	<i>Australia (n=105)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=</i>		
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	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Ove
<i>Work sent (Q13)</i>						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	49	6.0196		15	4.8750	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	49	5.9804		15	4.8750	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	48	6.0400		15	4.6250	
Prefer product to be made locally	50	5.8654		15	4.3750	
Decline of country's skill base ^a	1	7.0000		-	-	
			5.9371			

Set-up of branch (Q18)

Local community missing out on generation of wealth	7	6.0000		7	4.7500	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	10	6.0000		7	5.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	9	5.8889		7	4.7500	
Prefer product to be made locally	9	5.6667		7	4.7500	
			5.9000			

Company relocation (Q21)

Local community missing out on generation of wealth	76	6.0750		35	4.3684	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	76	6.1000		35	4.2632	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	76	6.0250		35	3.6842	
Prefer product to be made locally	77	5.4815		35	3.7895	
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	76	6.0375		36	4.8000	
			5.9415			

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.172

COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.29, VI.69 & VI.109)

Categories of FLE	Percentage of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Ever employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	36	87	79
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	61	78	62.5
Work sent overseas (Q14)	24	56	41
<u>Never employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	64	13	21
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	39	22	37.5
Work sent overseas (Q14)	76	44	59

APPENDIX VI.173
FREQUENCY AND NUMBER OF COMPANIES THAT HAD
EVER EMPLOYED FOREIGN WORKERS WITHIN THEIR
COUNTRY BY TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.30-
31, VI.70-71 & VI.110-111)

Frequency/Categories of FLE	Number of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Once only</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	15	3	5
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	12	4	2
<u>On a few occasions</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	13	21	17
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	26	22	16
<u>Regularly</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	2	20	12
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	11	15	7

APPENDIX VI.174
COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY
TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE AND RANK ORDER (Q22)

	Australia (n=105)		Singapore (n=55)		Malaysia (n=43)	
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean
Local labour agency	84	5.3750	95	4.9231	95	5.1707
Recruit personally from overseas	83	3.8851	91	3.9200	95	4.2439
Agency in foreign country	75	3.2278	89	4.4898	93	3.7750
Sister companies overseas ^a	3	7.0000	2	7.0000	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.175
OPINIONS OF TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE ON 10 JOB
SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK ORDER (Q24)

	Australia (n=105)		Singapore (n=55)		Malaysia (n=43)	
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean
Work experience	97	6.0980	98	6.1667	100	6.3023
Educational qualification	97	6.0294	98	5.7593	100	6.1395
Years of work experience	97	5.7451	98	5.7593	100	5.9302
Age	97	3.4804	98	4.2778	100	4.3953
Nationality	97	2.8431	98	3.0370	100	3.6744
Ethnic identity	97	2.3627	98	3.0000	100	3.0930
Gender	97	2.2451	98	2.7407	100	2.5349
Marital status	96	2.2277	98	2.4259	100	2.4651
Place of birth	96	2.1980	98	2.3519	100	2.3953
Religion	96	1.9604	96	3.7547	100	2.1395

APPENDIX VI.176
OPINIONS OF TOTAL COUNTRY SAMPLE ON
COMPANY PRIORITY ITEMS BY RANK ORDER (Q26)

Australia (n=105)			Singapore (n=55)			Malaysia (n=43)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Good quality service	96	6.5050	Company's public image	100	6.2545	Good quality product	100	6.4884
Staff competency	96	6.2574	Teamwork	100	6.2182	Good quality service	100	6.4651
Company's growth & development	96	6.1980	Profit	100	6.1636	Profit	100	6.2791
Staff work ethic	96	6.1980	Staff well being	100	5.9273	Company's growth & development	100	6.2326
Staff well being	96	6.0990	Fostering good relationships	100	5.8182	Staff competency	100	6.1860
Staff loyalty	96	6.0495	Environmental responsibility	100	5.2545	Company's public image	100	6.1395
Company's public image	96	5.9703	Good quality service	98	6.6481	Teamwork	100	6.1395
Fostering good relationships	96	5.9604	Staff competency	98	6.2407	Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.0233
Profit	96	5.8812	Company's growth & development	98	6.1481	Fostering good relationships	100	6.0000
Environmental responsibility	96	5.8020	Staff work ethic	98	6.0741	Staff work ethic	100	5.9767
Community-mindedness	96	5.4752	Maximising shareholder returns	98	5.8148	Staff well being	100	5.8605
Good quality product	95	6.4800	Staff loyalty	98	5.7407	Staff loyalty	100	5.6744
Teamwork	95	6.2500	Product development	98	5.9630	Company's capital investments	100	5.6512
Product development	95	5.8800	Company's capital investments	98	5.3704	Environmental responsibility	100	5.6512
Company's capital investments	95	5.4500	Community-mindedness	98	5.0741	Community-mindedness	100	5.2326
Maximising shareholder returns	93	5.7347	Good quality product	96	6.5849	Product development	98	5.8333

Safety ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Honesty ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Corporate ethics ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	Corporate ethics ^a	2	7.0000
Technical proficiency ^a	1	6.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	-	-	Political stability ^a	2	5.0000	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.177a

COMPARISON OF PROFIT MEAN & OVERALL MEANS ON REASONS FAVOURING/NOT FAVOURING FILE OF TOTAL SAMPLES

	Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
COUNTRY [app. VI.168-171, VI.176]						
Profit	5.88		6.16		6.28	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled	5.09	{5.30	5.24	{4.08	5.06	{4.74
Bring in the foreign unskilled	4.91	{	5.93	{	5.82	{
Hiring foreigners already in country	4.81	4.90	4.52	3.82	4.49	4.00
Work sent	5.33	5.94	5.39	4.69	5.30	5.53
Set-up of branch	5.55	5.90	5.32	4.81	5.48	5.42
Company relocation	5.61	5.94	5.27	4.39	5.03	5.21
ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN [app. VI.180-183, VI.188]						
Profit	5.92		6.10		6.33	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled	5.02	{5.09	5.13	{3.50	5.32	{4.44
Bring in the foreign unskilled	4.67	{	6.00	{	5.30	{
Hiring foreigners already in country	4.59	4.57	4.25	3.25	4.50	3.50
Work sent	5.34	5.89	5.37	5.00	5.05	4.00
Set-up of branch	5.41	5.33	5.09	-	5.37	-
Company relocation	5.48	5.99	5.13	2.87	4.80	4.75
CHINESE [app. VI.191-194, VI.199]						
Profit	5.56		6.16		6.13	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled	5.46	{5.61	5.25	{4.33	5.14	{4.67
Bring in the foreign unskilled	5.85	{	5.90	{	6.05	{
Hiring foreigners already in country	5.37	5.57	4.59	4.00	4.66	3.90
Work sent	5.19	5.77	5.41	4.64	5.44	5.93
Set-up of branch	5.91	6.75	5.39	4.81	5.37	5.88
Company relocation	6.33	5.71	5.30	4.63	4.20	5.07
CHRISTIAN [app. VI.202-205, VI.210]						
Profit	5.92		6.00		6.00	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled	5.07	{5.57	5.27	{3.50	5.46	{5.00
Bring in the foreign unskilled	4.90	{	5.77	{	6.00	{
Hiring foreigners already in country	4.63	5.28	4.33	3.38	4.58	4.50
Work sent	5.50	5.90	5.41	4.00	5.06	5.75
Set-up of branch	5.62	5.54	5.37	2.75	5.48	4.75
Company relocation	5.98	6.04	5.35	4.22	4.20	4.75
BUDDHIST [app. VI.213-216, VI.221]						

Profit	5.19		6.24		6.22	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled	5.00	{4.75	5.23	{4.42	5.04	{4.60
Bring in the foreign unskilled	5.29	{	6.25	{	6.00	{
Hiring foreigners already in country	5.21	4.50	4.65	4.08	4.81	3.50
Work sent	4.58	5.94	5.28	4.56	5.46	5.85
Set-up of branch	5.29	6.63	5.34	5.50	5.42	7.00
Company relocation	5.50	5.44	5.18	4.64	5.40	5.35

Note: F = Favoursing NF = Not Favoursing

APPENDIX VI.177b

COMPARISON OF PROFIT MEAN & OVERALL MEANS ON REASONS FAVOURING/NOT FAVOURING FLE OF TOTAL SAMPLES

	Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
MALAY MUSLIM [app. VI.152-155, VI.165]						
Profit					6.71	
	F	NF	F	NF	F	NF
Bring in the foreign skilled					4.17	{5.22
Bring in the foreign unskilled					5.25	{
Hiring foreigners already in country					3.69	4.50
Work sent					5.06	5.25
Set-up of branch					5.43	4.50
Company relocation					4.60	5.47

Note: F = Favoursing NF = Not Favoursing

APPENDIX VI.178

ATTITUDES OF TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE FAVOURING SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE BY RANK ORDER (refer to app. VI.36, VI.76 & VI.116)

Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
<i>CATEGORIES OF FLE</i>	%		%		%
Hiring the skilled already in country	96	Bringing in the skilled	100	Hiring the skilled already in country	100
Bringing in the skilled	93	Hiring the skilled already in country	100	Bringing in the skilled	100
Set-up of branch	90	Set-up of branch	90	Set-up of branch	100
Hiring the unskilled already in country	60	Work sent	90	Work sent	92
Work sent	52	Bringing in the unskilled	60	Bringing in the unskilled	67
Bringing in the unskilled	48	Company relocation	60	Company relocation	50
Company relocation	23	Hiring the unskilled already in country	50	Hiring the unskilled already in country	50

APPENDIX VIII.179
RESPONSES OF TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN
SAMPLE TO THREE BUSINESS SCENARIO OPTIONS
BY RANK ORDER (Q23a)

	Australia (n=75)		Singapore (n=10)		Malaysia (n=12)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Set-up branch	92	5.3623	Set-up branch	90	4.8889	Set-up branch	100	5.5000
Work sent	84	4.3810	Work sent	90	4.2222	Work sent	100	4.7500
Co relocation	79	2.9492	Co relocation	90	3.2222	Co relocation	100	3.9167

APPENDIX VI.180

REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

	Australia (n=75)			Singapore (n=10)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)						
Senior executive positions	83	3.5484		100	5.3000	
Other managerial positions	83	3.5645		100	4.3000	
Specialist positions	87	5.8154		90	5.8889	
Skill gap/shortage	91	5.8676		100	5.4000	
Skill transfer/exchange	85	5.7500		100	5.1000	
Competing on global market	84	5.0635		100	4.9000	
			5.0222			
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)						
Meet short supply in industry	35	4.9231		60	6.5000	
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	35	4.2692		60	5.5000	
			4.6667			
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)						
Best person for the job	91	5.4706		100	5.9000	
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	84	4.079		100	2.900	
Ability to fit in with local environment	87	3.7692		100	4.2000	
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	85	4.6563		90	3.5556	
PR is the same as a local	87	4.6308		100	3.8000	
Cultural diversity is good for the company	81	4.6885		100	5.1000	
Skill shortage ^a	1	7.0000		-	-	
			4.5887			

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.181a
REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY
TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

	<i>Australia (n=75)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=10)</i>		
	%	Mean	<i>Overall Mean</i>	%	Mean	<i>Overall M</i>
<i>Work sent (Q12)</i>						
In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	49	5.1892		80	5.5000	
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	48	5.5278		90	6.1111	
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	48	5.6667		90	5.6667	
Company to be competitive on world market	48	5.6944		90	6.1111	
Foster international trade relations	48	4.0833		90	2.7778	
Competitive product, both in price and quality	48	5.5833		90	6.1111	
			5.3404			5.3
Set-up of branch (Q17)						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	87	6.1538		90	6.000	
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	87	5.7846		90	6.2222	
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	87	5.2923		90	4.3333	
Access to resources not available in country	85	5.1719		90	5.6667	
Foster international trade relations	84	4.6349		90	3.2222	
<i>Local knowledge and expertise^a</i>	1	7.0000		-	-	
<i>Access to lower cost staff resources^a</i>	1	6.0000		-	-	
			5.4121			5.0

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.181b
REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL ANGLO-
CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (Q20)

	<i>Australia (n=75)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=10)</i>		
	%	Mean	<i>Overall Mean</i>	%	Mean	<i>Overall M</i>
<i>Company relocation (Q20)</i>						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	21	6.0000		60	6.0000	
Company to be competitive on world market	21	5.7500		60	6.5000	
Foster international trade relations	21	4.1875		60	3.1667	
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	21	5.7500		60	4.1667	
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	21	5.6875		60	5.8333	
			5.4750			5.1

APPENDIX VI.182

REASONS *NOT FAVOURING* FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL
ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

	Australia (n=75)			Singapore (n=10)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Bringing in foreigners (Q3)</i>						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	36	4.9259		40	3.2500	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	36	5.0000		40	3.7500	
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	36	5.3333		0		
			5.0864			3.5
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	28	4.4762		40	3.2500	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	29	4.5455		40	3.2500	
			4.5682			3.2

APPENDIX VI.183

REASONS *NOT FAVOURING* FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL
ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

	Australia (n=75)			Singapore (n=)		
--	------------------	--	--	----------------	--	--

	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Ove
<u>Work sent (Q13)</u>						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	47	6.0286		10	5.0000	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	47	5.9714		10	5.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	45	5.9412		10	5.0000	
Prefer product to be made locally	47	5.9429		10	5.0000	
Decline of country's skill base ^a	1	7.0000		-	-	
			5.8935			

Set-up of branch (Q18)

Local community missing out on generation of wealth	7	5.8000		0		
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	8	5.5000		0		
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	8	5.5000		0		
Prefer product to be made locally	7	4.6000		0		
			5.3333			

Company relocation (Q21)

Local community missing out on generation of wealth	73	5.9818		30	2.6667	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	73	6.0364		30	2.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	73	6.1273		30	2.6667	
Prefer product to be made locally	75	5.6607		30	4.0000	
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	75	6.1818		30	3.0000	
			5.9930			

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.184

COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.37, VI.77 & VI.117)

Categories of FLE	Percentage of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Ever employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	35	90	91.5
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	57	60	73
Work sent overseas (Q14)	25	60	73
<u>Never employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	65	10	8.5
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	43	40	27
Work sent overseas (Q14)	75	40	27

APPENDIX VI.185

FREQUENCY AND NUMBER OF COMPANIES THAT HAD EVER EMPLOYED FOREIGN WORKERS WITHIN THEIR

**COUNTRY BY TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE
(refer to app. VI.38-39, VI.78-79 & VI.118-119)**

Frequency/Categories of FLE	Number of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<i>Once only</i>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	9	0	0
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	7	1	0
<i>On a few occasions</i>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	12	2	7
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	21	3	4
<i>Regularly</i>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	2	6	4
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	7	2	4

APPENDIX VI.186
COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY
TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN SAMPLE AND
RANK ORDER (Q22)

	Australia (n=75)		Singapore (n=10)		Malaysia (n=12)			
	%	Mean		%	Mean	%	Mean	
Local labour agency	83	5.1935	Agency in foreign country	100	3.8000	Recruit personally from overseas	92	4.6364
Recruit personally from overseas	81	3.8361	Local labour agency	100	3.6000	Agency in foreign country	92	4.0909
Agency in foreign country	72	3.0741	Recruit personally from overseas	90	5.8889	Local labour agency	92	3.9091
Sister companies overseas ^a	3	7.0000	Sister companies overseas ^a	10	7.0000	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.187
OPINIONS OF TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN
SAMPLE ON 10 JOB SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK
ORDER (Q24)

	Australia (n=75)		Singapore (n=10)		Malaysia (n=12)			
	%	Mean		%	Mean	%	Mean	
Work experience	74	6.0135	Work experience	100	6.5000	Work experience	100	6.3333
Educational qualification	74	5.9459	Educational qualification	100	6.3000	Educational qualification	100	6.0000
Years of work experience	74	5.5405	Years of work experience	100	5.9000	Years of work experience	100	5.6667
Age	74	3.3378	Nationality	100	3.9000	Age	100	3.3333
Nationality	74	2.8919	Age	100	3.8000	Ethnic identity	100	2.4167
Gender	74	2.3243	Marital status	100	2.9000	Marital status	100	2.2500
Ethnic identity	74	2.2973	Ethnic identity	100	2.6000	Nationality	100	2.0000
Place of birth	73	2.2192	Gender	100	2.3000	Religion	100	1.6667
Marital status	73	2.1096	Religion	100	2.3000	Gender	100	1.6667
Religion	73	1.8493	Place of birth	100	2.0000	Place of birth	100	1.4167

APPENDIX VI.188
OPINIONS OF TOTAL ANGLO-CELTIC/CAUCASIAN
SAMPLE ON COMPANY PRIORITY ITEMS BY RANK
ORDER (Q26)

Australia (n=75)			Singapore (n=10)			Malaysia (n=12)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Good quality service	73	6.4384	Good quality service	100	6.6000	Good quality product	100	6.4167
Staff competency	73	6.2055	Company's public image	100	6.6000	Good quality service	100	6.4167
Company's growth & development	73	6.1233	Staff competency	100	6.5000	Profit	100	6.3333
Staff work ethic	73	6.1233	Company's growth & development	100	6.4000	Company's growth & development	100	6.2500
Staff well being	73	6.0137	Staff well being	100	6.2000	Staff competency	100	6.1667
Staff loyalty	73	6.0000	Staff work ethic	100	6.2000	Staff work ethic	100	6.0000
Fostering good relationships	73	5.9178	Profit	100	6.1000	Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.0000
Profit	73	5.9178	Teamwork	100	6.1000	Teamwork	100	5.9167
Company's public image	73	5.8493	Staff loyalty	100	5.9000	Company's public image	100	5.6667
Environmental responsibility	73	5.7808	Fostering good relationships	100	5.7000	Fostering good relationships	100	5.4167
Community-mindedness	73	5.3562	Maximising shareholder returns	100	5.7000	Staff well being	100	5.3333
Good quality product	72	6.4306	Product development	100	5.4000	Staff loyalty	100	5.3333
Teamwork	72	6.1389	Environmental responsibility	100	5.1000	Environmental responsibility	100	5.3333
Product development	72	5.7778	Company's capital investments	100	4.8000	Company's capital investments	100	5.0000
Company's capital investments	72	5.3472	Community-mindedness	100	4.8000	Community-mindedness	100	4.5833
Maximising shareholder returns	70	5.7286	Good quality product	90	6.1111	Product development	92	5.3636

Safety ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Honesty ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Corporate ethics ^a	1	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Technical proficiency ^a	1	6.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.189
ATTITUDES OF TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE
FAVOURING SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE BY RANK
ORDER (refer to app. VI.44, VI.84 & VI.124)

Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
<i>CATEGORIES OF FLE</i>	%		%		%
Set-up of branch	94	Bringing in the skilled	93	Hiring the skilled already in country	93
Bringing in the skilled	89	Set-up of branch	93	Bringing in the skilled	93
Hiring the skilled already in country	89	Hiring the skilled already in country	90	Set-up of branch	87.5
Bringing in the unskilled	67	Work sent	84	Bringing in the unskilled	67
Hiring the unskilled already in country	57	Bringing in the unskilled	67	Work sent	56
Work sent	39	Company relocation	61	Hiring the unskilled already in country	50
Company relocation	17	Hiring the unskilled already in country	57	Company relocation	12.5

APPENDIX VI.190
RESPONSES OF TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE TO
THREE BUSINESS SCENARIO OPTIONS BY RANK
ORDER (Q23a)

	Australia (n=18)		Singapore (n=44)		Malaysia (n=16)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Set-up branch	100	5.8333	Set-up branch	98	5.3488	Set-up branch	100	5.5625
Work sent	94	4.4118	Work sent	91	4.8500	Work sent	100	4.2500
Co relocation	94	2.7059	Co relocation	91	3.3500	Co relocation	100	3.0000

APPENDIX VI.191

REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

	Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)						
Senior executive positions	89	4.6250		77	4.3529	
Other managerial positions	89	4.6250		77	3.9706	
Specialist positions	89	6.0000		84	5.7838	
Skill gap/shortage	89	6.0000		84	5.7297	
Skill transfer/exchange	89	6.0000		75	5.5758	
Competing on global market	89	5.5000		84	5.6757	
			5.4583			
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)						
Meet short supply in industry	56	6.1000		45	5.8500	
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	56	5.6000		45	5.9500	
			5.8500			
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)						
Best person for the job	94	5.7059		95	4.9048	
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	94	5.647		91	5.350	
Ability to fit in with local environment	94	4.8235		91	4.1500	
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	94	5.1765		91	4.3500	
PR is the same as a local	94	5.8235		91	4.6250	
Cultural diversity is good for the company	94	5.0588		89	3.6923	
			5.3725			

APPENDIX VI.192a

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

	Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean

Work sent (Q12)

In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	33	5.8333	80	5.1714
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	33	5.1667	82	5.5556
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	33	5.3333	82	5.5833
Company to be competitive on world market	33	5.6667	80	5.7714
Foster international trade relations	33	3.6667	75	4.4848
Competitive product, both in price and quality	33	5.5000	80	5.6286

5.1944

5.4

Set-up of branch (Q17)

Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	94	6.4118	89	6.1282
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	94	6.0588	93	5.8537
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	94	5.8235	86	5.0000
Access to resources not available in country	94	6.1176	86	5.5526
Foster international trade relations	94	5.1176	86	4.2368

Local knowledge and expertise^a

6 6.0000

2 5.0000

5.9059

5.3

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.192b

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (Q20)

	Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<u>Company relocation (Q20)</u>						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	17	6.6667		59	5.7692	
Company to be competitive on world market	17	6.3333		59	5.9231	
Foster international trade relations	17	6.0000		57	4.2000	
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	17	6.3333		57	4.8400	
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	17	6.3333		61	5.5926	
			6.3333			5.2

APPENDIX VI.193

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

	Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Bringing in foreigners (Q3)</i>						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	28	4.8000		20	4.2222	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	33	5.6667		20	4.4444	
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	33	6.1667		0	-	
			5.6111			4.3182
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	39	5.2857		30	4.0769	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	39	5.8571		30	3.9231	
			5.5714			4.0000

APPENDIX VI.194

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

	Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Work sent (Q13)</i>						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	61	5.8182		16	4.8571	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	61	5.8182		16	4.8571	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	61	6.1818		16	4.5714	
Prefer product to be made locally	61	5.2727		16	4.2857	
			5.7727			
Set-up of branch (Q18)						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	6	6.0000		9	4.7500	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	6	7.0000		9	5.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	6	7.0000		9	4.7500	

Prefer product to be made locally	6	7.0000	9	4.7500
			6.7500	

Company relocation (Q21)

Local community missing out on generation of wealth	83	6.2000	34	4.7333
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	83	6.0000	34	4.6667
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	83	5.6667	34	3.8000
Prefer product to be made locally	83	4.7333	34	3.6667
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	83	5.9333	36	5.1250
			5.7067	

APPENDIX VI.195

COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.45, VI.85 & VI.125)

Categories of FLE	Percentage of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Ever employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	50	86	56
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	72	82	53
Work sent overseas (Q14)	28	56	40
<u>Never employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	50	14	44
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	28	18	47
Work sent overseas (Q14)	72	44	60

APPENDIX VI.196

FREQUENCY AND NUMBER OF COMPANIES THAT HAD EVER EMPLOYED FOREIGN WORKERS WITHIN THEIR COUNTRY BY TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.46-47, VI.86-87 & VI.126-127)

Frequency/Categories of FLE	Number of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Once only</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	5	3	1
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	2	3	-
<u>On a few occasions</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	-	18	2
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	3	18	5
<u>Regularly</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	-	14	6
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	3	13	3

APPENDIX VI.197
COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY
TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE AND RANK ORDER (Q22)

	Australia (n=18)		Singapore (n=44)		Malaysia (n=16)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Local labour agency	94	5.6471	Local labour agency	93	5.2683	Local labour agency	100	6.0625
Recruit personally from overseas	94	4.5882	Recruit personally from overseas	89	4.1282	Agency in foreign country	100	3.4375
Agency in foreign country	94	4.1765	Agency in foreign country	89	3.9231	Recruit personally from overseas	100	3.4375
Sister companies overseas ^a	6	7.0000	Sister companies overseas ^a	-	-	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.198
OPINIONS OF TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE ON 10 JOB
SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK ORDER (Q24)

	Australia (n=18)		Singapore (n=44)		Malaysia (n=16)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Work experience	100	6.5000	Work experience	98	6.0930	Work experience	100	6.3125
Years of work experience	100	6.2222	Years of work experience	98	5.7209	Educational qualification	100	6.3125
Educational qualification	100	6.1667	Educational qualification	98	5.6047	Years of work experience	100	6.1875
Age	100	4.2778	Age	98	4.3953	Age	100	4.8750
Nationality	100	2.8333	Ethnic identity	98	3.1163	Nationality	100	3.6875
Marital status	100	2.7778	Marital status	98	3.0465	Marital status	100	3.3125
Ethnic identity	100	2.4444	Place of birth	98	2.8837	Religion	100	3.3125
Religion	100	2.3889	Religion	98	2.4651	Place of birth	100	2.5000
Place of birth	100	2.1667	Gender	98	2.3953	Ethnic identity	100	2.6250
Gender	100	1.9444	Nationality	95	3.6905	Gender	100	2.4375

APPENDIX VI.199
OPINIONS OF TOTAL CHINESE SAMPLE ON
COMPANY PRIORITY ITEMS BY RANK ORDER (Q26)

Australia (n=18)			Singapore (n=44)			Malaysia (n=16)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Good quality service	100	6.6667	Teamwork	100	6.2273	Good quality product	100	6.5625
Teamwork	100	6.6667	Company's public image	100	6.1818	Good quality service	100	6.5000
Good quality product	100	6.6111	Profit	100	6.1591	Company's public image	100	6.5000
Company's growth & development	100	6.3333	Staff well being	100	5.8409	Teamwork	100	6.3750
Staff well being	100	6.2778	Fostering good relationships	100	5.8409	Company's growth & development	100	6.3750
Staff competency	100	6.2778	Environmental responsibility	100	5.2727	Fostering good relationships	100	6.3750
Staff work ethics	100	6.2778	Good quality product	98	6.6744	Staff competency	100	6.3125
Company's public image	100	6.2778	Good quality service	98	6.6512	Profit	100	6.1250
Staff loyalty	100	6.0556	Staff competency	98	6.1628	Staff work ethics	100	6.1250
Product development	100	6.0000	Product development	98	6.0930	Staff loyalty	100	6.1250
Fostering good relationships	100	5.8889	Company's growth & development	98	6.0930	Product development	100	6.1250
Community-mindedness	100	5.6667	Staff work ethic	98	6.0233	Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.1250
Profit	100	5.5556	Maximising shareholder returns	98	5.8140	Staff well being	100	6.0625
Environmental responsibility	100	5.5556	Staff loyalty	98	5.6744	Environmental responsibility	100	6.0000
Maximising shareholder returns	100	5.4444	Company's capital investments	98	5.4884	Company's capital investments	100	5.9375
Company's capital investments	100	5.3889	Community-mindedness	98	5.1163	Community-mindedness	100	5.7500
-	-	-	Political stability^a	2	5.0000	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.200
ATTITUDES OF TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE
FAVOURING SEVEN CATEGORIES OF FLE BY RANK
ORDER (refer to app. VI.52, VI.92 & VI.132)

Australia		Singapore		Malaysia	
<i>CATEGORIES OF FLE</i>	%		%		%
Hiring the skilled already in country	95	Bringing in the skilled	100	Hiring the skilled already in country	100
Bringing in the skilled	90	Set-up of branch	100	Bringing in the skilled	100
Set-up of branch	87	Hiring the skilled already in country	96	Set-up of branch	92
Hiring the unskilled already in country	60	Work sent	96	Bringing in the unskilled	70
Bringing in the unskilled	49	Bringing in the unskilled	72	Work sent	69
Work sent	40	Company relocation	64	Hiring the unskilled already in country	56
Company relocation	13	Hiring the unskilled already in country	53	Company relocation	23

APPENDIX VI.201
RESPONSES OF TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE TO
THREE BUSINESS SCENARIO OPTIONS BY RANK
ORDER (Q23a)

Australia (n=62)			Singapore (n=26)			Malaysia (n=13)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Set-up branch	94	5.2931	Set-up branch	96	5.6800	Set-up branch	100	5.4615
Work sent	85	4.3208	Work sent	85	5.0000	Work sent	100	4.6154
Co relocation	81	2.9600	Co relocation	85	3.1818	Co relocation	100	3.6154

APPENDIX VI.202
REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL
CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

	Australia (n=62)			Singapore (n=26)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)						
Senior executive positions	77	3.5417		88	4.5217	
Other managerial positions	77	3.7292		88	3.7826	
Specialist positions	82	5.8039		88	6.0870	
Skill gap/shortage	87	6.0000		96	5.6800	
Skill transfer/exchange	81	5.6400		85	5.5455	
Competing on global market	79	5.0816		92	5.4167	
			5.0733			
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)						
Meet short supply in industry	32	5.3500		50	6.0769	
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	32	4.3000		50	5.4615	
			4.9048			
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)						
Best person for the job	89	5.6182		100	5.1154	
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	81	4.220		96	4.480	
Ability to fit in with local environment	84	3.7885		96	3.8800	
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	82	4.5098		92	3.9167	
PR is the same as a local	85	4.7547		96	4.0000	
Cultural diversity is good for the company	79	4.5714		96	4.0400	
Skill shortage ^a	2	7.0000		-	-	
			4.6253			

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.203a

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

	Australia (n=62)			Singapore (n=26)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Work sent (Q12)</i>						
In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	37	5.3913		92	5.3750	
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	35	5.7273		92	5.7917	
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	35	5.8182		96	5.6000	
Company to be competitive on world market	35	5.7727		92	5.8333	
Foster international trade relations	35	4.2727		92	3.7500	
Competitive product, both in price and quality	35	5.5909		92	5.7500	
			5.4972			5.4
Set-up of branch (Q17)						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	84	6.3846		92	5.9583	
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	84	6.0769		96	6.0000	
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	84	5.5577		92	5.0000	
Access to resources not available in country	82	5.2353		92	5.6667	
Foster international trade relations	81	4.8200		92	3.9167	

<i>Local knowledge and expertise^a</i>	2	7.0000	-	-
<i>Access to lower cost staff resources^a</i>	2	6.0000	-	-
			5.6151	5.3

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.203b

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (Q20)

	<i>Australia (n=62)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=26)</i>		
	%	Mean	<i>Overall Mean</i>	%	Mean	<i>Overall M</i>
<i>Company relocation (Q20)</i>						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	13	6.3750		62	6.1250	
Company to be competitive on world market	13	6.2500		62	6.5000	
Foster international trade relations	13	4.6250		62	3.5625	
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	13	6.3750		62	4.6250	
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	13	6.2500		62	5.9375	
			5.9750			5.3

APPENDIX VI.204

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

	<i>Australia (n=62)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=26)</i>		
	%	Mean	<i>Overall Mean</i>	%	Mean	<i>Overall M</i>

Bringing in foreigners (Q3)

Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	32	5.3500	15	3.5000
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	32	5.5500	15	3.5000
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	32	5.8000	0	0
			5.5667	3.5

Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)

Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	24	5.1333	31	3.5000
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	26	5.3125	31	3.2500
			5.2813	3.3

APPENDIX VI.205

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

	<i>Australia (n=62)</i>			<i>Singapore (n=)</i>		
	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Overall Mean</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Overall Mean</i>
<i>Work sent (Q13)</i>						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	58	6.0278		4	5.0000	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	58	6.0556		4	3.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	56	6.0286		4	4.0000	
Prefer product to be made locally	58	5.8056		4	4.0000	
Decline of country's skill base ^a	2	7.0000		-	-	
			5.9032			
Set-up of branch (Q18)						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	10	5.8333		4	3.0000	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	11	5.5714		4	2.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	11	5.8571		4	4.0000	
Prefer product to be made locally	10	5.0000		4	2.0000	
			5.5357			
Company relocation (Q21)						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	84	6.1538		31	4.1250	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	84	6.1346		35	4.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	82	6.1569		31	3.5000	
Prefer product to be made locally	84	5.5962		31	3.2500	
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	82	6.1569		31	4.8750	
			6.0415			

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.206

COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.53, VI.93 & VI.133)

Categories of FLE	Percentage of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Ever employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	40	88.5	61.5
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	57	73	58.5
Work sent overseas (Q14)	18	60	41.5
<u>Never employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	60	11.5	38.5
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	43	27	41.5
Work sent overseas (Q14)	82	40	58.5

APPENDIX VI.207

FREQUENCY AND NUMBER OF COMPANIES THAT HAD EVER EMPLOYED FOREIGN WORKERS WITHIN THEIR COUNTRY BY TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.54-55, VI.94-95 & VI.134-135)

Frequency/Categories of FLE	Number of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Once only</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	13	1	1
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	9	2	-
<u>On a few occasions</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	9	14	4
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	17	14	5
<u>Regularly</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	1	6	3
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	5	2	2

APPENDIX VI.208
COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY
TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE AND RANK ORDER
(Q22)

	Australia (n=62)		Singapore (n=26)		Malaysia (n=13)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Local labour agency	90	5.7679	Local labour agency	96	4.6000	Local labour agency	92	5.4167
Recruit personally from overseas	89	3.5273	Agency in foreign country	92	4.0417	Recruit personally from overseas	92	4.5000
Agency in foreign country	81	3.1000	Recruit personally from overseas	85	4.5909	Agency in foreign country	92	3.9167
-	-	-	Sister companies overseas ^a	4	7.0000	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.209
OPINIONS OF TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE ON 10
JOB SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK ORDER (Q24)

	Australia (n=62)		Singapore (n=26)		Malaysia (n=13)			
	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean		
Work experience	98	6.0820	Work experience	100	6.1923	Educational qualification	100	6.3846
Educational qualification	98	6.0492	Educational qualification	100	5.8077	Work experience	100	6.3077
Years of work experience	98	5.6721	Years of work experience	100	5.7692	Years of work experience	100	5.8462
Age	98	3.5738	Age	100	3.5769	Age	100	4.6154
Nationality	98	3.0000	Nationality	100	3.5385	Religion	100	3.1538
Ethnic identity	98	2.1639	Ethnic identity	100	2.9615	Marital status	100	2.6923
Gender	98	2.1311	Marital status	100	2.4231	Nationality	100	2.4615
Religion	98	1.8525	Place of birth	100	2.3462	Ethnic identity	100	2.2308
Place of birth	97	2.1667	Religion	100	2.2692	Gender	100	1.9231
Marital status	97	2.1333	Gender	100	2.0000	Place of birth	100	1.3077

APPENDIX VI.210
OPINIONS OF TOTAL CHRISTIAN SAMPLE ON
COMPANY PRIORITY ITEMS BY RANK ORDER (Q26)

Australia (n=62)			Singapore (n=26)			Malaysia (n=13)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Good quality service	98	6.4590	Good quality service	100	6.6538	Good quality product	100	6.5385
Staff competency	98	6.2623	Company's public image	100	6.2692	Staff competency	100	6.5385
Staff work ethic	98	6.2623	Staff competency	100	6.2308	Staff work ethic	100	6.5385
Company's growth & development	98	6.2623	Company's growth & development	100	6.1923	Company's public image	100	6.5385
Staff loyalty	98	6.1639	Teamwork	100	6.1923	Good quality service	100	6.4615
Staff well being	98	6.0656	Profit	100	6.0000	Teamwork	100	6.3846
Fostering good relationships	98	5.9672	Staff work ethic	100	6.0000	Company's growth & development	100	6.3077
Profit	98	5.9180	Staff well being	100	5.8462	Fostering good relationships	100	6.2308
Company's public image	98	5.9180	Fostering good relationships	100	5.8077	Environmental responsibility	100	6.0769
Environmental responsibility	98	5.8525	Product development	100	5.7308	Staff well being	100	6.0769
Community-mindedness	98	5.4754	Maximising shareholder returns	100	5.6923	Profit	100	6.0000
Good quality product	97	6.4667	Staff loyalty	100	5.5000	Staff loyalty	100	6.0000
Teamwork	97	6.3333	Environmental responsibility	100	5.3846	Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.0000
Product development	97	5.8500	Company's capital investments	100	5.0769	Company's capital investments	100	5.7692
Company's capital investments	97	5.4500	Community-mindedness	100	4.7692	Community-mindedness	100	5.5385
Maximising shareholder returns	95	5.8644	Good quality product	96	6.5200	Product development	92	6.1667

Safety ^a	2	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Honesty ^a	2	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Technical proficiency ^a	2	6.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	-	-	Political stability ^a	4	5.0000	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.213

REASONS FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (Q2a, Q2b, Q7)

	Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=17)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
Bringing in the foreign skilled (Q2a)						
Senior executive positions	100	3.8824		65	4.9091	
Other managerial positions	100	3.8824		65	4.3636	
Specialist positions	100	5.7647		76	5.5385	
Skill gap/shortage	100	5.6471		65	5.8182	
Skill transfer/exchange	100	6.0000		65	5.1818	
Competing on global market	100	4.8235		71	5.6667	
			5.0000			
Bringing in the foreign unskilled (Q2b)						
Meet short supply in industry	35	5.1667		47	6.0000	
Take on jobs locals not prepared to do	41	5.1429		47	6.5000	
			5.2857			
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q7)						
Best person for the job	100	5.5882		94	5.0625	
Willingness to work and take on jobs locals not prepared to do	100	5.059		94	5.563	
Ability to fit in with local environment	100	4.4706		94	4.3750	
Legitimate immigration clearance to work in country	100	5.3529		94	4.4375	
PR is the same as a local	100	5.7059		94	4.5000	
Cultural diversity is good for the company	100	5.0588		88	3.8667	
			5.2059			

APPENDIX VI.214a

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (Q12, Q17)

	Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=17)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<u>Work sent (Q12)</u>						
In keeping with principle of 'best person or business' for the job	47	5.5000		71	4.8333	
Ensure company's sustainability and profitability	47	4.7500		76	5.3846	
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	47	4.6250		76	5.5385	
Company to be competitive on world market	47	4.8750		76	5.7692	
Foster international trade relations	47	2.8750		71	4.6667	

Competitive product, both in price and quality	47	4.8750		76	5.4615	5.2
			4.5833			
Set-up of branch (Q17)						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	82	5.8571		82	6.2143	
Company to be and to remain competitive on world market	82	5.2857		82	5.8571	
Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale	82	5.1429		76	4.9231	
Access to resources not available in country	82	5.5000		76	5.4615	
Foster international trade relations	82	4.6429		76	4.0769	
<i>Local knowledge and expertise^a</i>	6	6.0000		6	5.0000	
			5.2857			5.3

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.214b

REASONS FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (Q20)

	Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=17)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Company relocation (Q20)</i>						
Maximise opportunities for company's growth and development	12	6.0000		41	5.5714	
Company to be competitive on world market	12	5.5000		41	5.2857	
Foster international trade relations	12	5.0000		41	4.2857	
<i>Access to capital markets to achieve economies of scale</i>	12	5.5000		41	4.8571	
<i>Access to resources not available in country</i>	12	5.5000		47	5.3750	
			5.5000			5.1

APPENDIX VI.215

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE WITHIN THE COUNTRY BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (Q3, Q8)

	Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=17)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Bringing in foreigners (Q3)</i>						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	41	4.2857		35	4.1667	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	47	4.7500		35	4.6667	
Burden on the welfare system when foreign workers are unable to secure jobs	47	5.0000		0	0	
			4.7500			4.4
Hiring foreigners already in country (Q8)						
Number of favourable jobs for locals is reduced	29	4.4000		35	4.3333	
Unemployment amongst locals is increased and in turn their reliance on the welfare system	29	4.6000		35	3.8333	
			4.5000			4.0

APPENDIX VI.216

REASONS NOT FAVOURING FLE IN OTHER COUNTRIES BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (Q13, Q18, Q21)

	Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=)		
	%	Mean	Overall Mean	%	Mean	Overall Mean
<i>Work sent (Q13)</i>						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	47	6.1250		24	5.0000	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	47	5.8750		24	4.5000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	47	6.0000		24	4.5000	
Prefer product to be made locally	47	5.7500		24	4.2500	
			5.9375			
Set-up of branch (Q18)						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	12	6.5000		18	5.3333	
Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	12	7.0000		18	6.0000	
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	12	6.0000		18	5.0000	
Prefer product to be made locally	12	7.0000		18	5.6667	
			6.6250			
Company relocation (Q21)						
Local community missing out on generation of wealth	82	5.7143		47	4.8750	

Loss of jobs to local community leading to increase in unemployment	82	5.9286	41	4.7143
Possible disappearance of particular jobs for local community	88	5.3333	47	3.7500
Prefer product to be made locally	88	5.0667	47	3.7500
Effect on small businesses that are dependent on business from this company	88	5.2667	53	5.1111

5.4400

APPENDIX VI.217

COMPANIES' EMPLOYMENT OF THREE CATEGORIES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.61, VI.101 & VI.141)

Categories of FLE	Percentage of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Ever employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	35.5	87.5	83
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	76	88	65
Work sent overseas (Q14)	35	56	53
<u>Never employed</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	64.5	12.5	17
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	24	12	35
Work sent overseas (Q14)	65	44	47

APPENDIX VI.218

FREQUENCY AND NUMBER OF COMPANIES THAT HAD EVER EMPLOYED FOREIGN WORKERS WITHIN THEIR COUNTRY BY TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE (refer to app. VI.62-63, VI.102-103 & VI.142-143)

Frequency/Categories of FLE	Number of companies		
	Australian	Singaporean	Malaysian
<u>Once only</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	1	1	1
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	-	1	1
<u>On a few occasions</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	2	4	7
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	5	5	7
<u>Regularly</u>			
Foreigners brought in (Q4)	-	9	7
Foreigners already in country (Q9)	2	9	3

APPENDIX VI.219
COMPANIES' SOURCES OF FOREIGN LABOUR BY
TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE AND RANK ORDER (Q22)

	Australia (n=17)		Singapore (n=17)		Malaysia (n=18)			
	%	Mean		%	Mean	%	Mean	
Recruit personally from overseas	76	4.9231	Local labour agency	94	5.3125	Local labour agency	100	5.2778
Local labour agency	76	4.3846	Recruit personally from overseas	94	4.1875	Agency in foreign country	100	4.2222
Agency in foreign country	65	3.6364	Agency in foreign country	88	3.6667	Recruit personally from overseas	100	3.8333
Sister companies overseas ^a	12	7.0000	-	-	-	-	-	-

(a) Reason suggested by respondent

APPENDIX VI.220
OPINIONS OF TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE ON 10 JOB
SELECTION FACTORS BY RANK ORDER (Q24)

	Australia (n=17)		Singapore (n=17)		Malaysia (n=18)			
	%	Mean		%	Mean	%	Mean	
Work experience	100	6.1176	Work experience	100	6.0588	Work experience	100	6.3889
Years of work experience	100	6.0588	Years of work experience	100	5.7647	Years of work experience	100	6.0000
Educational qualification	100	5.6471	Educational qualification	100	5.6471	Educational qualification	100	5.8889
Age	100	2.9412	Age	100	5.1176	Age	100	4.3333
Ethnic identity	100	2.6471	Marital status	100	3.8235	Nationality	100	4.0000
Marital status	100	2.2353	Place of birth	100	3.6471	Marital status	100	3.2778
Nationality	100	2.1176	Ethnic identity	100	3.2941	Place of birth	100	2.5556
Religion	100	1.9412	Gender	100	2.9412	Gender	100	2.3889
Gender	100	1.8824	Religion	100	2.7647	Ethnic identity	100	2.2222
Place of birth	100	1.8824	Nationality	94	4.3125	Religion	100	1.9444

APPENDIX VI.221
OPINIONS OF TOTAL BUDDHIST SAMPLE ON
COMPANY PRIORITY ITEMS BY RANK ORDER (Q26)

Australia (n=17)			Singapore (n=17)			Malaysia (n=18)		
	%	Mean		%	Mean		%	Mean
Good quality service	94	6.3750	Good quality service	100	6.6471	Good quality product	100	6.6111
Good quality product	94	6.1875	Good quality product	100	6.6471	Good quality service	100	6.5556
Teamwork	94	6.1875	Profit	100	6.2353	Company's growth & development	100	6.2778
Staff well being	94	5.9375	Company's public image	100	6.2353	Profit	100	6.2222
Staff competency	94	5.9375	Company's growth & development	100	6.1765	Staff competency	100	6.1111
Staff work ethic	94	5.8750	Teamwork	100	6.0588	Company's public image	100	6.1111
Product development	94	5.8125	Staff competency	100	6.0000	Maximising shareholder returns	100	6.0000
Company's public image	94	5.8125	Product development	100	6.0000	Staff well being	100	5.9444
Company's growth & development	94	5.6875	Fostering good relationships	100	5.5882	Teamwork	100	5.9444
Staff loyalty	94	5.5625	Maximising shareholder returns	100	5.5882	Fostering good relationships	100	5.8889
Fostering good relationships	94	5.5625	Staff well being	100	5.7647	Staff work ethic	100	5.7778
Environmental responsibility	94	5.5000	Staff loyalty	100	5.6471	Staff loyalty	100	5.6667
Community-mindedness	94	5.2500	Company's capital investments	100	5.5294	Product development	100	5.6667
Profit	94	5.1875	Community-mindedness	100	5.0000	Company's capital investments	100	5.6667
Company's capital investments	94	5.1875	Environmental responsibility	100	4.9412	Environmental responsibility	100	5.4444
Maximising shareholder returns	88	4.8667	Staff work ethic	94	5.8750	Community-mindedness	100	5.0556
-	-	-	-	-	-	Corporate ethics^a	6	7.0000

(a) Reason suggested by respondent