Allied Academies International Conference

Maui, Hawaii
October 14-17, 1997

Academy of Educational Leadership

Proceedings

Affiliates	*Journals*
International Academy for Case Studies	*Journal of the International Academy for Case Studies*
Academy of Entrepreneurship	*Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal and the Entrepreneurial Executive*
Academy of Accounting and Financial Studies	*Academy of Accounting and Financial Studies Journal*
Academy of Managerial Communications	*Academy of Managerial Communications Journal*
Academy of Educational Leadership	*Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*
Academy of Marketing Studies	*Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*
Academy of Strategic and Organizational Leadership	*Academy of Strategic and Organizational Leadership Journal*
Academy of Free Enterprise Education	*The Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*
Academy of Information and Management Sciences	*Academy of Information and Management Sciences Journal*
Academy for Studies in Business Law	*Academy for Studies in Business Law Journal*

Allied Academies, Inc.
An International Non Profit Association
of Scholars and Practitioners

PO Box 2689, Cullowhee, NC 28723
Voice 704-293-9151; FAX 704-293-9407
www.alliedacademies.org

Volume 2, Number 2 1997

Proceedings of the
Academy of Educational Leadership

October 14-17, 1997
Maui, Hawaii

Jo Ann and Jim Carland
Co-Editors
Western Carolina University

The Proceedings of the
Academy of Educational Leadership
are published by the
Allied Academies, Inc., PO Box 2689, Cullowhee, NC, 28723.

The Academy of Educational Leadership is an affiliate of the Allied Academies, an international, non-profit association of scholars whose purpose is to support and encourage the exchange of knowledge.

Copyright 1997 by the Allied Academies, Inc.

Proceedings of the Academy of Educational Leadership

Table of Contents

The ABC's of Higher Education Endowments 1
Gary E. Kundey, Columbus State University
Rodger Holland, Columbus State University
Rodger Trigg, Columbus State University

The Rising Learning Age: Benefits and Challenges of Increased Non-traditional
Students in Higher Education 4
Nini Yang, Clayton College & State University

Structural Choices for Growing Head Start Programs 8
Philip D. Olson, University of Idaho
Jennifer Olson, University of Idaho

But Can I Eat at a Taco Bell in Tunisia?
The "Big Country" Survey-A Cross-Cultural Survey for Student Use in
International Curricula at the Collegiate and Secondary Levels 17
David C. Wyld, Southeastern Louisiana University
Jack E. Tucci, Southeastern Louisiana University
Avinash Waikar, Southeastern Louisiana University

Business School Graduates: Requisite Abilities and Skills for the 21st Century 29
Harry G. McAlum, Lander University
Faruk Tanyel, University of South Carolina Spartanburg
Mark A. Mitchell, University of South Carolina Spartanburg

Employing the Major Fields Assessment Team in a Semester Conversion Project:
Reflections on Concurrent Program Redesign and Assessment 34
Charlotte Stephens, Columbus State University

Future Business Executives: An Experiment in Increasing Diversity 41
Linda Upshaw Hadley, Columbus State University
Charlotte S. Stephens, Columbus State University

Forced Counsel: Student Perceptions of Mandatory Advisement at the University Level 45
Robert McConkie, Brigham Young University
Charles Stowe, Sam Houston State University

The Transferability of Leadership Principles from Business to Educational Institutions 46
Georgia M. Hale, Arkansas State University
Roger D. Roderick, Arkansas State University
George Foldesy, Arkansas State University

THE ABC's OF HIGHER EDUCATION ENDOWMENTS

Gary E. Kundey, Columbus State University
Rodger Holland, Columbus State University
Rodger Trigg, Columbus State University

INTRODUCTION

Department administrators, with the assistance of their faculty, develop various programs to meet the goals of the university, college, and department. These programs are based on their various resources, which in turn are based on their level of financial funding. Higher education is one among many services funded by state governments. Regretfully, the demand for alternative services has caused many states to hold constant the dollars of higher education funding, which is actually a decrease on real basis when inflation is factored in. This shrinkage on a real basis is expected to intensify over time (Abdelnons, 1992, p. 20).

This funding gap has increased at an increasing rate, and most higher education institutions have been unable to raise tuition to an adequate level to maintain their existing levels of service, much less develop new programs. Faced with less governmental support and an inability to extract more support from students, many universities and colleges have been forced to increase their endowment fund raising efforts to help meet their needs (Williamson, 1993,p.I-1).

Many institutions that had meager endowments have successfully increased fund raising efforts and now have endowments making significant contributions to institutional and departmental budgets (Nicklin, 1995, p. 42). Departmental administrators can increase their department's funding through participating in the cultivation of their institution's endowment. In the scramble for resources, administrators who know the "basics" of endowments have an advantage over chairs who don't. This article covers these endowment "basics".

ORGANIZATION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENT'S

Organization of an institution's endowment is affected by whether the institution is private or public, it's age, and size. Larger and older private institutions tend to have larger well established endowment programs, while smaller, and younger, public institutions generally have smaller and less developed programs. Fund raising activities (both annual and capital) and various forms of planned giving (gift annuities, life income trusts, and charitable remainder trusts) are at the heart of increasing endowment principle. These later types of activities are signs of a more mature stage of endowment development. They take time, but in the longrun, have a dramatic impact on an institution's endowment. Almost all institutions (private and public) today are actively involved in endowment activities or, at the least, contemplating entry into the field.

Private institutions have governing boards determining general policy (and even operations) but public institution's boards (or associated support foundations) have more modest duties but both must still oversee management of the institution's endowment. Board members are generally from the private sector with many (if not the majority) holding title of president or chairman of the corporation from which they come (Wood, 1983, p. 52).

Board's of trustees are responsible for the overall management of endowment funds but this function is usually delegated to an investment committee normally consisting of 8 to 12 board members. Investment committee members tend to be commercial bankers, stock brokers, investment bankers, or local business persons (Wiliamson, p. 2-29). Investment committees usually delegate day to day management and oversight of the endowment to external professional portfolio managers (Williamson, p. 2-27). Trust departments of commercial banks, mutual fund managers, and The Common Fund (a mutual fund that accepts investments only from higher education institutions) are the most likely external portfolio managers to be used.

One of the major responsibilities of the investment committee is the development of a comprehensive and workable "investment policy". Without an investment policy, the management of the endowment tends to lose focus resulting in excess spending, loss of return, or higher risk.

INVESTMENT POLICY

An investment policy should cover: Basic objectives of the portfolio; categories of investments allowed; range of percentage of the overall portfolio allowed for each category; selection of investment managers; monitoring of manager's performance; spending from the endowment; and the investment committee reporting it's activities to the board of trustees. The investment policy should strive to balance the forces of expected level of gifts and fund raising, investment returns anticipated from the investment portfolio, and spending levels. The board will seek guidance from the investment committee on what sustainable level of spending is possible given the level of fund raising and the asset/risk composition of the portfolio.

COMPOSITION OF ENDOWMENT PORTFOLIOS

True endowment funds have purposes that are longterm and have restrictions on the spending of principal but quasi-endowment funds do not have such restrictions on principle but the purpose of quasi-endowments is still longterm. This means that institutions should treat quasi-endowment funds as though they are true endowment funds. Endowment and quasi-endowment funds have longterm objectives so investments of such funds should also be longterm. Funds with intermediate or shortterm goals should have an investment horizon that is intermediate or even short-term in nature.

Many endowments have restrictions on what funds can be spent for from the endowment and therefore, these endowments are referred to as "restricted" funds. Usually these restrictions do not affect what the funds can be invested in unless some form of "social responsibility" or "ethical" restriction might apply. An example would be: Investment in tobacco companies of funds restricted to cancer research would pose such a conflict.

Investment of funds exhibit significant "economies of scale" making "pooled" investments preferable when dealing with small individual endowments. Smaller endowment amounts are generally invested in "pooled" portfolios and then returns are proportioned to the individual endowments based upon the relative size of the individual endowments. Investment committees seldom become involved in the detail of investment income distribution; instead they decide on the investments and investment manager for the "pool" leaving the details of income allocation to the institution's development staff.

The general guidelines for the composition of the endowment portfolio is specified by the "investment policy". Most endowments have longterm preservation of principle (from default and inflation risks) with maximization of yield as the overall objective. Common stock investments are almost mandatory with this investment objective and is reflected in that approximately 60% of higher education investments are in equity type investments with the balance in fixed income or cash equivalents (Winegerd, 1993, p. 2-7). The endowment common stock investments tend to be conservative but there is some activity in foreign stocks and bonds, high yield bonds, and derivatives (Nicklin, 1993, p. 43).

Higher education endowments in the past with the above referenced compositions have had a nominal return of approximately 8.5% which would support a spending level (on a real basis net of inflation) of approximately 5% per year (Nicklin, 1993, p. 4-1). The latter is the most common spending objective stated for higher education endowments and illustrates a realistic balance between return and spending in today's investment environment.

SPENDING POLICY

Endowments to perpetually support a particular activity date back to at least the twelfth century. Early endowments were established by the dedication of substantial quantities of land. Over time endowment investments shifted towards financial assets. By the early part of the 20th century, most educational endowment funds were held in bonds and mortgages with the spending levels set at the interest income derived from the assets. This basic mode of operation remained unchanged until the 1960's and 1970's.

During the 1960's returns on common stock were considerably higher than fixed income investments, inflation was increasing, and institutions desired expanded program offerings. Increasing stock investments seemed to be a solution since stock returns were higher and during inflationary times common stocks, as compared to fixed income assets, would probably have capital appreciation to offset inflation.

The drawback was that common stock dividend yields are typically less than the interest on bonds therefore causing a shortage of spendable income (at least in the shortrun until dividend growth caught up with fixed interest income) unless an institution sold part of their investments to convert to cash a portion of the capital gains. This posed the question: Was selling shares to cash out capital gains the same as selling principle and therefore a violation of most endowments? Until the 1960's most legal opinions indicated that "sell-offs" would be an invasion of the principle and contrary to the general rules of endowment management. Opinions reversed during the 1960's and selling a portion of the portfolio to convert capital appreciation to cash income using a "prudent" person standard is allowed as long as sufficient appreciation is left to offset inflation. This concept was enacted into legislation in the majority of the states with the passage of the Uniform Management of Institutional Funds Act.

As a result of the above, over the last quarter century endowment investments have shifted significantly towards common stock as a means to offset inflation and maintain endowments on a real basis. The implication for a general spending policy is that spending should be set at a level of "real" return net of inflation that can be reasonably expected to be sustained in the long run from the endowment portfolio. Based on long term market return studies, this level of spending would be approximately 5% of the endowment principle per year if the endowment portfolio has significant stock investments with the balance in fixed income assets. Hence, the origin of the commonly used spending policy of 5% of the average of the last three years endowment balance. Each institution needs to examine its expected level of fund raising, investment returns expected, and current demand for spending to determine what variation from this general rule is prudent for its needs.

SUMMARY

All of the areas of endowment management (fund raising, management of investments, and setting spending levels) have important effects on the resources available to the various academic departments within an institution. Administrators who understand the rudiments of endowment management will be able to enhance the benefits available to their department derived from endowment funds.

REFERENCES

Abdelnons, S. "California Colleges Brace for Big Cuts in State Financing." Chronicle of Higher Education, June 17, 1992: pp. 19-22.

A Chartbook of Trends Affecting Higher Education Finance 1960-1990. Westport, Conn.: The Common Fund Press, 1992.

Clark, Frank L. and Wootton, Charles W. "College Endowment Funds: An Examination of Portfolio Performance." American Business Review, June, 1995: pp. 26-32.

Davidson, Harold A. "Investing College Endowment Funds: A Comparison of Internal and External Management." Financial Analysts Journal, Jan.-Feb., 1971: pp. 69-74.

Nicklin, Julie L. "Prudent Risks." Chronicle of Higher Education, July 28, 1995: pp. 42-43.

Williamson, J. Peter. Funds for the Future: College Endowment Management for the 1990's. Westport, Conn.: The Common Fund Press, 1993.

Williamson, J. Peter. "How Well are College and Endowment Funds Managed." The Journal of Portfolio Management, Summer, 1979: pp. 19-22.

Winegerd, Daniel. The Grouth of College Endowments: 1960-1990. Westport, Conn.: The Common Fund Press, 1993.

Wood, Miriam. "What Role for College Trustees." Harvard Business Review, May-June, 1983: pp. 52-58.

THE RISING LEARNING AGE: BENEFITS AND CHALLENGES OF INCREASED NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Nini Yang, Clayton College & State University
yang@cc.clayton.edu

ABSTRACT

As the world of working is getting increasingly diversified, so is the world of higher education. This paper is focused on dramatic shifts in student age structure and their implications for effective teaching and learning. It is the basic premise of this paper that changes in relative sizes of different age groups in higher education can be an asset to colleges and universities because it brings a broad range of viewpoints, conceptual skills, team spirit, and innovation. Meanwhile, this paper highlights opportunities and challenges that student diversity has raised to higher education in transformational times. Impacts and implications of the rising learning age for future research and practice in higher education are discussed. This paper is documented in three ways: (1) current periodicals and data reflecting the emerging paradigm of the aging population and their impacts on the U.S. workforce and higher education; (2) an interview with a senior citizen graduate on pursuing higher education at late age; (3) discussion and suggestions for enhancing benefits of student diversity while minimizing fears and stereotyping errors in communication.

INTRODUCTION

Changes in the demographic composition of the U.S. population are reshaping the workforce rapidly. Employees are more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, culture, age, and other characteristics that reflect differences. One of the increasingly important issues confronting both the business world and the world of higher education is the reality that the U.S. workforce is aging. Employees 55 and older are the fastest growing sector of the workforce between 1990 and 2005 (Galen, 1993). By the year 2000, people aged 35 to 54 will increase to 51% of the workforce from 38% in 1985 (Johnson & Packer, 1987).

The aging U.S. workforce can be attributed to several major reasons. First, Americans are living longer. It is estimated that by 2010, men's average life expectancy will be 74.4 years, as opposed to just 53.6 years in 1920 (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 1995). Second, most employees today no longer have to retire at age 70 as the U.S. legislation outlaws mandatory retirement. Third, the historical role of women in child caring and house making has changed dramatically since the 1970s, and a large portion of women are reentering the work place. Fourth, people of the younger generation are delaying marriage and childbirth with a vengeance. Recent data show that one-third of women and one-half of men aged 25 to 29 have never married, an all time high (Morris, 1997). Despite a slight increase in fertility to about two per woman after falling to a low of 1.8 a decade ago and as the baby boomers became parents, the median age of the U.S. population continues to rise.

Meanwhile, the aging population indicates that organizations may face a shortage of skilled workers in the near future, once the baby boomers start to retire. Demographic changes in the relative sizes of different age groups also reshape the markets for many products and services including formal education and job-related training programs. The changing environments and competitive markets call for timely organizational adaptations in strategic planning and reidentification of one's mission, objectives and competitive niche.

IMPACTS OF THE AGING POPULATION ON HIGHER EDUCATION

As the world of working is getting increasingly diversified, so is the world of higher education. Prior to the 1980s, college students were primarily fresh high school graduates studying full time to obtain advanced degrees. This

traditional student composition is shrinking today. Students entering colleges and universities differ tremendously in gender, age, full- or part-time status, and other demographic categories that fall under non-traditional characteristics. At Clayton College & State University in Morrow, Georgia, for example, female students increased by 4% in the first quarter of 1996. Meanwhile, students of 31-40 and 41-60 years of age increased by 4% and 5% respectively, making up almost one-third of the total enrollment. Most of today's students are also permanent employees while pursuing college degrees or senior citizens returning to school after years of working. In the summer of 1997, part-time students at Clayton College & State University have been up to 83.7%. Many of those students are full-time employees working for companies such as Coca-Cola Co., Ford Motor Co., Delta Airlines, Home Deport, Wachovia Bank, and Nations Bank. Looking at those non-traditional students and sometimes evaluating them as future employees and managers, who work 40 hours a week and take 10 to 15 hours of college courses, one really have to admire what they are accomplishing.

What do the shifts in student age structure imply for effective teaching and learning? Why are these changes increasingly important to education institutions? First of all, changes in the makeup of the student population require reidentifying an organization's mission, objectives and strategies. Determining one's market or market segments is as important for non-profit organizations as it is for business firms. Recognizing the changing environment and reduction in supplies of traditional students, many colleges and universities are tapping non-traditional markets by offering classes in unusual settings such as off-campus satellites, web sites, and telecourses. Course scheduling has also adapted to accommodate students' time commitment to their work and family responsibilities.

Second, among noteworthy changes are some interesting shifts in students' maturity and career focus. A recent survey by the National Research Center for College and University Admissions (1997) revealed a significant drop in students of undecided majors from over 15% in 1987 to 8% in 1997. Non-traditional students appear to be clear about what they want to learn, why they are returning to school, and what commitments they are going to make for obtaining college degrees.

Third, significant shifts in student age structure raise concerns about learning ability at the individual level, and quality of education at the institution level. Although research has shown no evidence that age negatively affects job productivity, there is a widespread belief that job performance declines with increasing age (Galen, 1993). Regardless of whether it is true or not, people over 55 are often stereotyped as incompetent, past their prime, or slow to respond. These perceptions about age effects are way off base. The actual evidence suggests that older people are, in reality, reliable, trained, and experienced. They display significant lower absenteeism than younger people and consistently score higher on job satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 1996). These positive effects of age are also reflected in higher education as students of older age groups tend to be more committed to course work, less likely to be absent or show up late for class or team activities, and more active in raising questions and participating in discussion. There's no evidence that age affect learning ability negatively.

Shifts in student age compositions can be an asset for education institutions as it brings a broad range of viewpoints, conceptual skills, team spirit, and innovation. On the one hand, students with heterogeneous characteristics offer divers inputs and resemble the work place reality. Negative stereotypes not only create communication barriers, but are also likely to become a major handicap for organizations' performance. To conquer the fear and enhance the benefits of the age diversity in higher education, on the other hand, almost inevitably entails a learning process of how it works, and rich information can be learned directly from students themselves.

THE VALUE AND MOST FUN PART OF ACCOMPLISHING A COLLEGE DEGREE: A SENIOR CITIZEN'S PERSPECTIVE ON LEARNING AGE

"I enjoyed it. It was fun to work on," said L.C. Thomas when asked to describe how he felt about pursuing a college degree after retirement.

Anyone who knows L.C. Thomas understands what it is meant by the word "fun" here. L.C. Thomas is a retired manager of the Nabisco, Inc.. He took an active part in the college education. Many people call him simply by L.C.. When asked about his experience with Clayton College & State University, L.C. responded, "Clayton State is a very important part of this community. I am not sure the faculty knows how good they are. Sometimes because you are part of it, you don't see it as well as somebody outside would see. I learned very fast the valuable asset this community has, the staff of the college."

L.C. started the college in 1953 but was unable to complete the degree as his job responsibility increased quickly. He spent 35 years in Nabisco, and retired as a regional sales manager for the division at Atlanta, Georgia. Although very successful and experienced in the field of business, L.C. always wanted to complete the college, a dream that he and his wife Wynelle talked about during those years of working. "Some day, I will do it," he told himself many times. So after being retired for a year or so from Nabisco, L.C. talked with a business professor at the Kiwanis Club, and was advised to start with one course first, a critical thinking class, "because that will help you clue what's going on in the world today at the college level." It was not an easy start, however. Many of the subjects being taught today were not even created 40 years ago. The first time in the class, a question about one's sexual life was raised for answers. "It was a real shock," said L.C., "but nothing would surprise me anymore after that one."

L.C. had a lot of support from his wife Wynelle and their three children. There was also encouragement from his friends: "If you want to do it, do it." That did not, however, call off the concern about whether the college would accept someone of his age until he became an actual part of the college. "I found in the first class that they will. We had one thing in common, that course we were undertaking in that one class. So you can have that in common all the way through, and they will accept," said L.C.. "I felt that was very pleasant."

"I also felt I'd better do my homework, especially to stay up. If you had a lot of reading, you'd better read. If in accounting, you'd better do all that work, to stay up. I might be hard to compete against those young folks first," said L.C.. "I think one of the most front things of those young people is they did not enjoy as much as I did for the group study, the group projects, because in group projects, you really have to learn the personalities of other people regardless of the age background. It could be cultural barriers. It could be racial variables, because being born in a foreign country, but if you fall into groups of your class, study groups, I think it is the most fun part of the college. I think it is the most learning part."

L.C. followed the foot steps of his daughter, and a stepped grandson. One by one, they completed Clayton College & State University, having the same teachers sometimes. His experience was not unusual. Often times, you see in upper level courses, several students are following the foot steps of their children. "It is kind of the issue, sharing your needs with your children, but you are not the first one to go. You are the last one to go. That's the humor side of this education," said L.C.. "I knew they would want to see my report card. They wanted to see my grades."

L.C. completed his "biggest report" in August, 1995. With a college degree in hand, he is planning to go international. He applied to join a Study Aboard Program in London through the University System of Georgia. "I really want to continue on international studies. I became interested in international through my teachers," said L.C.. "I was always glad that I went to your first class. You are from China. You bring a different view of the subject." "It was just a dream that I worked completely to get a degree, but what I really want to do with all of this, the change that occurred. I would like to teach at the college level, just like you, that would require something else."

"I think of the changes of the American country. The education facilities and the means of communication like PCs are great things to get involved with, not too old to learn at my age," said L.C., "because our children are involved, and our grandchildren, and we just need to learn."

L.C. Thomas was in my class for three quarters and often took the lead in group discussions. Both the students and the business school faculty enjoyed having him as a team member, a colleague, and a friend. Off the campus, L.C. is active in the community and is a member of the local Kiwanis Club. As today's colleges are getting more diversified in terms of gender, age, and ethnicity, students like L.C. himself are real valuable assets to the quality of education. They bring with them rich experience, high motivation, and creative ideas. They are making today's education both a challenge and a fun activity to work on. And in this regard, students like L.C. Thomas are educators as well, who show to colleges and universities how the world of working has changed and their implications for successful education in transformational times.

SUGGESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

The implications of increased non-traditional students in higher education are enormous. Our discussion on diversity-related issues is focused on impacts of the significant shifts in student age structure - that is, the relative sizes of different age groups in today's higher education. As the median age of the U.S. population continues to rise, so does the average learning age in colleges and universities. Major opportunities and challenges created by the rising learning age in today's higher education can be contrasted for strategic planning and future research.

Opportunities created by the increased student age diversity for effective teaching and learning include the following:

First of all, the rising learning age brings with it more mature and better prepared students who tend to decide on majors at earlier stages of higher education. This new trend allows for more participative learning process and effective decision making. It will help increase education efficiency by saving faculty time for more strategic planning and innovative course development.

Second, the increased age diversity reflects the work place reality, and will help to enhance a better understanding of workforce diversity. Students will be able to exchange ideas from different viewpoints, which go beyond the traditional ways of teaching and learning. The divers points of view and complementary skills and knowledge among students will create synergy for effective team work, which has become increasing common in both business firms and formal education.

Third, the increased number of non-traditional students calls for many colleges and universities to reidentify their missions and objectives, which will help to explore non-traditional markets and enhance relationships between education institutions and business communities. It will be interesting to see how the non-traditional markets may reshape the role of junior and senior colleges that are, by tradition, more focused on classroom teaching.

Major challenges presented by the increased student age diversity in higher education include the following:

First, colleges and universities need to be more accommodating to unique needs of non-traditional students as it is common for these students to have simultaneous demands from multiple life domains. Non-traditional students are likely to have a full-time job while having family and child-care responsibilities. Therefore, there will be increased needs for unusual course schedules and class settings.

Second, with the rising learning age, stereotypes of different age groups may create barriers in teaching and learning. Faculty should take the leadership to reduce such barriers among students as well as to increase its own sensitivity to age-related issues. In this regard, diversity training is as import to the faculty and staff as it is to students.

Third, more research is needed to identify relationships between age and some solid outcomes measuring effective education such as individual course performance, team projects, and years of accomplishing a higher degree. While many age-related matters at the work place have been studied, little has been done to examine similar matters concerning higher education in the transformational framework.

Based on recent data reports and practical issues, this paper has provided a framework for broad action. Future research and discussion on specific problem areas should be sought as education institutions continue to encounter challenges while pursuing new opportunities in the paradigm of the changing world of business and education.

REFERENCES

Galen, M. (1993). Myths about older workers cost business plenty. *Business Week*, December 20, p. 83.

Johnson, W.R. & Packer, A.H. (1987). *Workforce 2000.* Indianapolis: Hudson Institute.

Morris, B. (1997). Is your family wrecking your career? *Fortune,* March 17, pp. 71-90.

National Research Center for College and University Admissions (1997). *Career Trends.*

Robbins, S.P., Coulter, M. (1996). Challenging the stereotypes of women and older workers. *Management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, p. 479.

Stoner, J.A., Freeman, R.E. & Gilbert, D.R. (1995). *Management.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, p. 76.

STRUCTURAL CHOICES FOR GROWING HEAD START PROGRAMS

Philip D. Olson, University of Idaho
Jennifer Olson, University of Idaho
polson@uidaho.edu

ABSTRACT

In recent years, many Head Start programs have experienced growth in numbers of children served and employees hired. This growth often requires an examination of how the programs are organized or structured to meet their goals. The purposes of this study are to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of three basic structural choices for growing Head Start organizations, and to illustrate through two case studies the structural changes that were made to help these programs become more effective.

INTRODUCTION

Head Start is a branch of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and it provides comprehensive services (e.g., education, social, health, nutrition) for the children, ages three to five, of low-income families. In recent years, many Head Start programs across the nation have experienced growth in numbers of children served, a change that has triggered a sequence of strategic decisions for program directors or leaders. First, to meet the needs of the additional children served, Head Start directors have had to hire additional employees and, also, to expand into different service locations. These changes, in turn, have brought about structural problems within programs. That is, expansion has contributed to unclear roles, responsibilities, and authority relationships within programs as well as coordination problems. In response to these concerns, directors have had to decide how to reorganize or restructure their programs so as to best achieve their organizations' goals. Organization structure is reflected in the organization chart and it involves: (a) designating formal reporting or authority relationships; (b) placing or grouping individuals into work units or departments, and grouping work units into the total organization; and (c) designing systems to ensure effective coordination (linkages) across departments (Child, 1984; Daft, 1992; Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980; Willmott, 1981).

A number of different structural options or choices exist for growing Head Start programs. Frequently, when making structural changes, choices need to be made on the types of administrators to add to assist the director of a Head Start program in supervising the additional employees. Because each structural option has different strengths and weaknesses and, further, because many Head Start directors have had limited experiences with reorganizations, the process of changing structure is often a difficult task for these leaders.

The purposes of the current study are: (a) to discuss strengths and weaknesses of different structural choices for growing Head Start organizations, and (b) to illustrate, through two Head Start case studies, the structural changes that were made by the leaders of these programs to help them become more effective. Hopefully, this study will be useful for Head Start leaders who seek information in this area.

BACKGROUND

Prior to the 20th century there was limited written information about organization structure and the primary organization chart models were for church, military and governmental organizations. During the 20th century, scholars from sociology, economics, business, and various other disciplines have helped our understanding of how to structure organizations (e.g., Blau & Schoenherr, 1971; Chandler, 1962; Mintzberg, 1983; Weber, 1947).

One important influence on an organization's structure is its size--i.e., the number of employees (Blau & Schoenherr, 1971; Child, 1973). Because of this influence, a helpful way to understand different structural types or configurations is to examine how a small organization, as it grows in size over time, might change its structure.

Typically, in a small organization, all employees report directly to a single administrator. This structure is often referred to as a "simple" structure because there is a single administrator and, further, tasks are not highly specialized. For small organizations, the simple structure is flexible and effective (Mintzberg, 1979). However, as a small organization grows in size a single administrator will likely become overburdened due to supervising an increased number of employees. It is important, then, that new structures and systems capable of accommodating the demands of growth be investigated. This is particularly true for organizations that grow rapidly (Fombrun & Wally, 1989; Hambrick & Crozier, 1985; Olson & Terpstra, 1992).

Organizations that outgrow their simple structures typically add a layer of administrators to their charts. The particular types of administrators that are added will depend on how jobs and hence employees are grouped into work units or departments in the organization. Employees that are grouped together have a common supervisor, share common resources, often have a common evaluation and reward system, and tend to identify and collaborate with each other (Mintzberg, 1979). Nadler and Tushman (1988) state that the options for how jobs and employees can be grouped are: activity (e.g., function or component), output (e.g., product or service), location (e.g., site or center), and multifocused (e.g., matrix or simultaneous). In growing Head Start organizations, the three most common structural approaches are activity, location and multifocused, and they are typically called component, center and matrix.

A brief discussion of the three structures plus their associated strengths and weaknesses follows. Also included for each structure is an organization chart.

COMPONENT STRUCTURE

A component structure has at the second layer or level down in the organization groups of people classified by components (activities). These groups are headed by administrators, often called component coordinators, who are hired and given authority to manage activities in each component (which includes evaluating the performance of people assigned to each component). Individuals in each component, in turn, are further subdivided at the third level down into centers or sites (locations), and even further into classrooms, to perform specialized work. The affiliation of these people, however, tends to be with a component rather than a center because they report to a component coordinator who is likely to evaluate them based on specific component performance standards.

An organization chart for the component structure is presented in Figure 1. Note that in the figure only some of the possible Head Start components at the second level were included, others such as health, nutrition, social services were omitted to save space. Likewise, at the third level, only two centers were included.

Overall, the component structure's strengths are: (a) it promotes specialization of skills in, and the interaction of people within, each component; and (b) it focuses the organization on component goals. The structure's weaknesses are: (a) it leads to poor collaboration or linkages between components within a center since in this structure the director is the only integrator of components for the entire organization; (b) it results in employees having a restricted view of
an organization's overall goals; and (c) it may lead to confusion for parents and outside agencies regarding chain of command, information sharing and role responsibilities.

CENTER STRUCTURE

The center structure has at the second level down center groups. Center managers (or center coordinators) are hired and given authority to manage the employees who work at each center. A center manager then manages a small Head Start organization within a larger Head Start organization. The third level down in the structure has employees who provide component services. Because in this structure center managers have authority and they evaluate staff within each center, employees tend to be aligned to a center rather than a component.

A center structure chart is presented in Figure 2. As with the component structure in Figure 1, only some of the possible component areas, as well as only two centers, are included here for space reasons. Further, a number of variations exist to the Figure 2 chart. One of these variations will be discussed later in the study.

Figure 1
Component Structure Chart

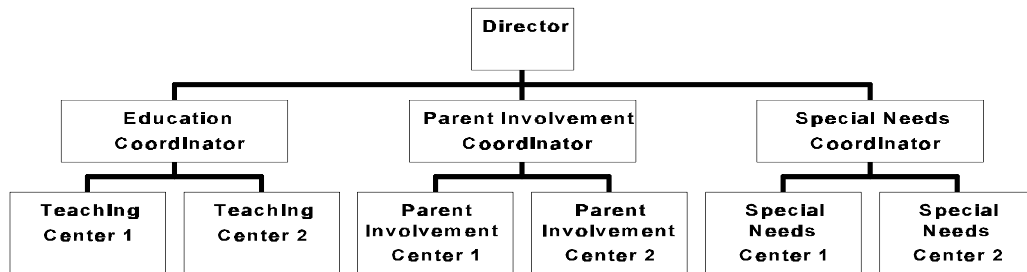
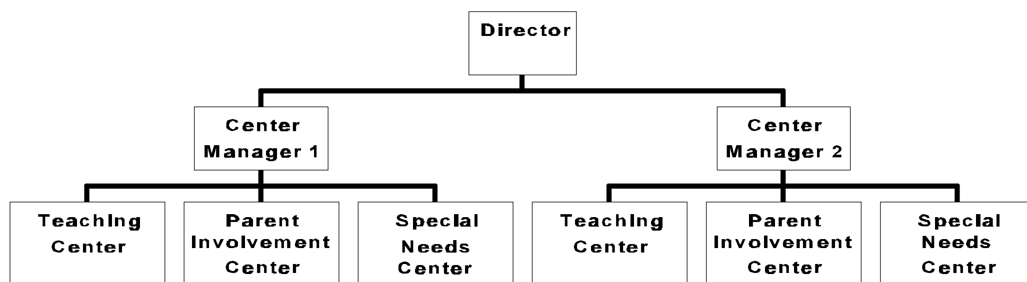


Figure 2
Center Structure Chart

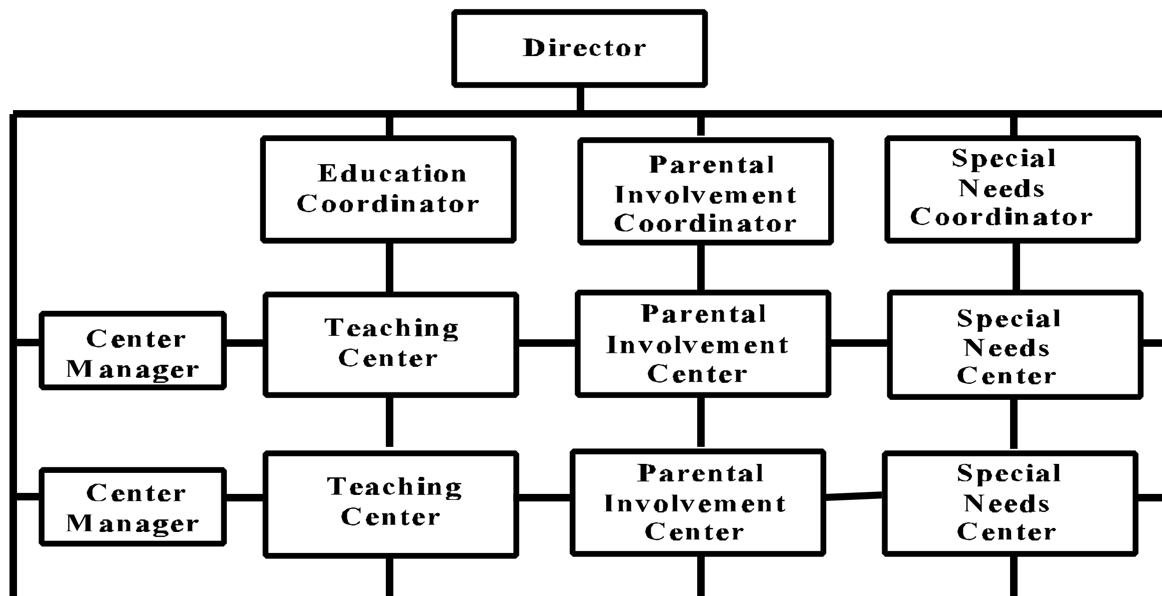


The center structure's strengths are: (a) it promotes high collaboration across components within a center (i.e., it promotes team work between components and a focus on the "whole" child/family); (b) it creates multiple integrators in the organization--the director plus the center managers; and (c) it allows centers to adapt to differences in their communities and respond to clients in a timely fashion; hence, it leads to client satisfaction because responsibility and contact points are clear. The weaknesses of the center structure are: (a) it limits interaction of staff within each component across the larger organization; and (b) it makes integration and standardization between the centers difficult.

MATRIX STRUCTURE

The matrix structure has at the second level down both component coordinators and center managers--the columns and rows in the matrix. Thus, both component and center structures are implemented simultaneously. A chart for this structure is presented in Figure 3. Again, the chart could be expanded by including additional component areas as columns and center locations as rows.

Figure 3
Matrix Structure Chart



The strengths of the matrix structure are: (a) it enables an organization to meet the demands for specialization by organizing along component lines; and (b) it enables the organization to be organized on a center basis, thereby meeting the individual needs of the community or satellite area. Hence, dual demands are being met. The weaknesses of the matrix structure are: (a) it causes employees to experience dual authority from component and center leaders which can be frustrating and confusing; (b) it necessitates frequent meetings and conflict resolution sessions over the

various dual authority issues which is time-consuming; and (c) it requires that leaders and staff either demonstrate highly effective interpersonal skills or receive training in conflict management.

CASE STUDIES

To illustrate how structural changes can help growing organizations, two Head Start case studies are discussed. We served as consultants to these organizations, providing technical assistance, training, and ongoing consultation to the change process. Regarding methodology or, in particular, data gathering in both situations, in-depth interviews were conducted with the directors, meetings were held with other key personnel, and applicable formal written documents were reviewed (see Berg, 1989). Because anonymity is important in these cases, names of, and selected descriptive information for, the programs have been changed.

HIGHLAND: DESCRIPTION, DATA, AND ANALYSIS

Highland Head Start is located in an area where the primary industry has suffered a decline over the past years. Because of this industry decline and other economic factors, the need for Head Start services has increased. In 1983 there were 54 students in the program, in 1988, 90 students were enrolled, and in 1993 there were 270 students. The corresponding number of employees at Highland for these years was 10, 22 and 52. During this period of rapid growth four satellite sites were opened. Further, in response to increased managerial responsibilities, component leaders were hired and given middle administrative authority to coordinate their component areas. The organization chart of Highland resembled most closely the component structure chart presented in Figure 1.

The director at Highland sought technical assistance in two areas. First, she believed information regarding families and children was not being exchanged across component areas and within classroom teams in a collaborative manner. She felt that this not only had resulted in decreased quality in the classroom experience for children but also had discouraged parents from becoming involved in the program. Second, there was conflict between groups of people in the organization. As examples, she stated that conflict existed between some component leaders and, also, between newly employed teachers and the old guard. New teachers believed they had been hired only to teach, and new parent involvement employees (or parent advocates) believed the needs of parents were their sole responsibility. The older generation teachers did not see the need for parent advocates, since the family was part of their responsibilities in meeting the needs of the whole child. Overall, the director believed that there was a lack of understanding and commitment to the stated mission and goals of Highland Head Start--in particular, to the goal of offering quality (in the sense of collaborative) health, education and social services.

We also gathered information about Highland from staff, component coordinators, and the policy council. Adapted versions of the "Team Building Checklist" and the "Yardstick for the Growth of a Team" (Dyer, 1977) were used to collect data on staff impressions of organization functioning. The survey revealed the following concerns: productivity problems, conflicting educational practices and approaches, unclear roles and responsibilities, turf issues, and a fragmented philosophy.

Several of the new teachers indicated that they were uncomfortable making home visits because that was the role of parent advocates. Parent advocates reported that some parents felt uncomfortable in particular classrooms and that services to families were fragmented. Health staff reported that there was no general commitment from other components to support health goals, such as dental care. Food service personnel felt divided among the new sites or centers and a lack of administrative support to do their job. Component leaders at Highland were using group meetings of their component personnel extensively to coordinate their areas. This facilitated the standardization of techniques, and the sharing of resources and information within each component, but had the negative effect of producing less opportunity for collaborative discussion or delivery of service across component areas. It appeared then that each component area had a limited view of the overall organization mission, and in particular, to the goal of providing collaborative services.

HIGHLAND: RECOMMENDATIONS AND OUTCOMES

We proposed the following plan for Highland that was to extend over a two-year period. To begin to meet the need for increased sharing of information and collaboration, direct service teams were established consisting of a parent advocate, teacher and teacher aide for each classroom. These teams would meet weekly to discuss the needs and progress of their children and families. As such, responsibility for services would be shared rather than individualized. To assist in this process staff would receive training on family involvement, home visit strategies and collaborative planning.

To address the issue of information sharing and collaboration at the administrative level, component coordinators received training on strategic planning strategies with an emphasis upon quality management. They reviewed the mission statement, formulated goals and began to develop a long range plan that would facilitate collaboration, improve the information flow and decision-making process, and reduce excessive amounts of conflict in the staff and between component leaders.

We also suggested to Highland's director that the organization be restructured from a component to a center structure to help facilitate communication and coordination between component areas. Some two months after this suggestion was made Highland's education component coordinator resigned. This opening afforded the director the opportunity to consider restructuring at an earlier date than had been originally anticipated.

The director involved the policy council at this point. She brought council members up to date on our suggestions, and a recommendation was approved to proceed with restructuring. To this end, Highland's management team met with us for a two-day retreat that was devoted to discussing the strengths and weaknesses of various structural options. An outcome of this retreat was a new structural chart for Highland (see Figure 4).

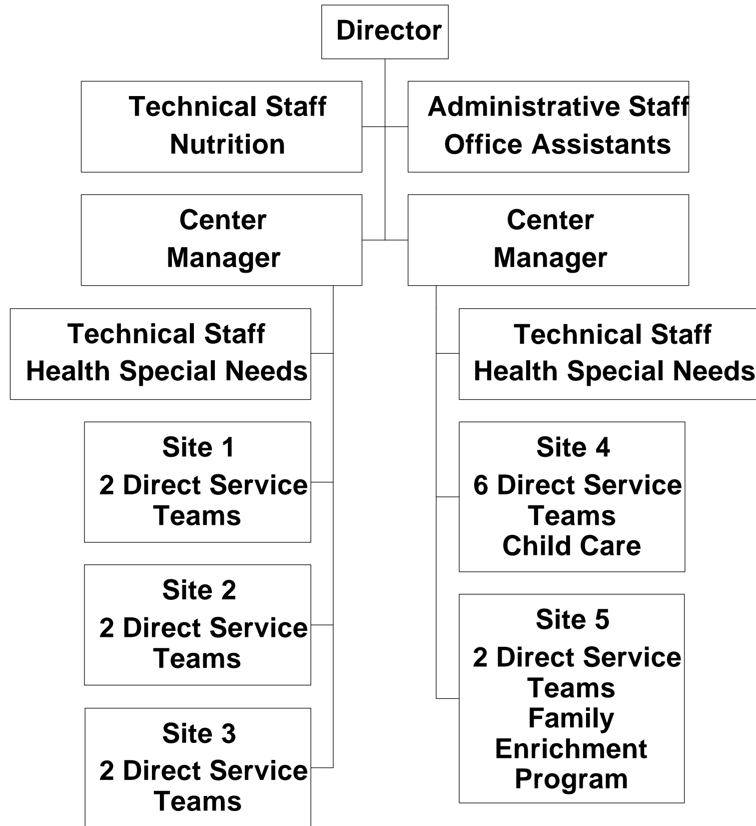
As can be noted in Figure 4, nutrition was moved to a technical staff position that reports directly to the director. At Highland there was one kitchen for the whole program; hence, it made sense that nutrition be centralized under the director. Health and special needs component leaders became technical staff assigned to the center managers to assist them as internal consultants in these essential areas, and to expand the information base of the center managers. Classroom direct service teams at each site, consisting of a teacher, family advocate and a teacher aide, report to the center manager. Each center manager reports to the director and has access to the nutritional staff through her. A benefit of this structure is that as expansion occurs, and it is expected, the structure can easily accommodate the hiring of another center manager.

Was the restructuring effective? Administrators and staff at Highland were asked to identify outcomes that would be associated with effectiveness. The following items were listed: higher levels of family involvement as measured by increased in-kind contributions (contributed time to the program by family members), evidence of health and nutrition goals being integrated into the education and parent involvement components, and increased staff cooperation. Data collected for each of these items are presented next.

In-kind contributions showed large increases for the monthly time periods following restructuring (and the formation of direct service teams) when compared to the corresponding months in the preceding year. For example, in one month before restructuring the in-kind contributions were about $7,000, and during the same month following restructuring the in-kind contributions were about $25,000. In addition, dental examinations and immunizations have increased. These health changes have been attributed to direct service teams sharing the responsibility for the achievement of health goals. Evidence of other collaboration was demonstrated by the meetings held by direct service teams, and the development of an integrated work plan that encompasses the education, parent involvement, mental health and social services areas.

It should also be noted that nine months following the restructuring Highland was reviewed for compliance with national performance standards. During the previous review, the program was marked out of compliance on more than 100 items. In the review following restructuring, the program was marked out of compliance on only six items. Administration and staff received complimentary comments on increased parent involvement, the direct service team concept and the integrated work plan. Overall, then, restructuring appears to have been effective.

Figure 4
Organization Chart for Highland Head Start



* A direct service team consists of a family advocate, teacher, and teacher aide.

HORIZON: DESCRIPTION, DATA, AND ANALYSIS

The second case study to be discussed is Horizon Head Start. Horizon consists of a central office and four regional centers separated by distances, in some cases, exceeding 100 miles. The program served 106 children in 1984, 118 children in 1989, and 180 children in 1994. The corresponding number of employees for these time periods was 25, 26 and 47. As is evident by these numbers, Horizon has experienced recent rapid growth. Horizon's organization chart resembled the matrix chart presented in Figure 3. More specifically, the second level of Horizon's chart consisted of component coordinators who supervised their various tasks or jobs, and center coordinators who were responsible for day-to-day tasks, including coordination, at their particular location. At Horizon, then, dual authority existed between component and center coordinators.

During our first visit at Horizon, we met with the director to gather information about both the current status of the program and her thoughts about the future. She indicated that here was a lack of cooperation among the administration team (i.e., component and center coordinators) and that discord was occurring. One example she mentioned was that some administration team members had recently attended a training on long-term planning, and

they were unable to reach a consensus on goals. She also stated that turf issues were a real concern, and attempts at conflict resolution were consuming administration and staff time.

At the first meeting with the director we also reviewed Horizon's vision and mission statements. To us, the key words in these statements were ". . . to work together harmoniously to provide quality services . . . ." Further, the director mentioned that her goals during the next few years for the program included: (a) to reorganize Horizon to provide quality services, (b) to clarify roles and responsibilities, and (c) to delegate day-to-day decision so she can spend more time on long-range planning.

Members of the administration team were also asked to provide us with information. They were asked to complete adapted versions of the "Team Building Checklist" and the "Yardstick for the Growth of a Team" (Dyer, 1977). In addition, we interviewed the administration team members. The results of these inquiries revealed a lack of clarity regarding roles and responsibilities, and unclear linkages for sharing information. In general, the administration team indicated that the effectiveness of the organization was diminished by the level of conflict among component leaders and between component and center leaders.

Information provided by both the director and the administration team members seemed to highlight the weaknesses of the matrix structure that were presented earlier in this study. That is, dual authority issues in the organization were creating conflict and this was leading to frequent resolution sessions which, perhaps, were not as productive or effective as they could be because the people involved may not have had good interpersonal skills.

The data collection phase also included a meeting with the policy council. During this session, we discussed the benefits of action planning and had council members practice setting goals and determining responsibilities. One issue that surfaced was the uniqueness of each of the communities served by the six centers. Policy council members from each community met to discuss the needs and concerns of their area. Each team developed their own plan for improving parent involvement and expanding services. It became clear that a decentralized structure that was responsive to community needs would be an attractive option.

HORIZON: RECOMMENDATIONS AND OUTCOMES

Upon consideration of the aforementioned data, we recommended a change from the matrix to a center structure where center coordinators have sole authority on center issues. Although there are differences, the suggested structure resembles the structure recommended for Highland (see Figure 4). One difference at Horizon was that nutrition was placed under each center manager because each site has its own kitchen. This structural change to a center framework was a major adjustment for the program, but it was our opinion that minor changes to the current structure would not be effective due to the existing behavior patterns (culture) in the organization. Further, we believed that the other structural alternative, the component structure, would not likely lead to quality services at each center because the various components would not be highly coordinated (integrated). That is, there would be no one at each center integrating the services.

The center structure also enables each center to respond more directly and quickly to the unique needs in each community and thereby individualize services. Currently, center employees need approval on certain issues from component coordinators located at the central office which takes time. The geographical distances between the central office and the centers further complicate a quick response. In addition, the center structure means that the director will likely spend less time on day-to-day decisions, certainly less time on those meetings and decisions that currently arise from conflicts among component leaders and between component and center leaders; hence, the director has more time for long-range planning. Finally, in the center structure roles should be clearer since one person is in charge of center activities.

Was Horizon's restructuring effective? We believe so, based on several outcomes. First, interviews were conducted with the program director and center coordinators. The observations of these people were that the roles of the second-level administrators were much clearer now than they were previously with the matrix structure. They also stated that conflict has decreased significantly and that, in turn, cooperation has increased.

Other positive information concerning the restructuring is the recent federal review result. The team conducting the review commented that staff felt the new organizational structure worked much better than the last one. Additional statements by the review team were that staff at each site (center) felt closer now, worked better as a team, and felt empowered.

CONCLUSION

Organization structure needs to accomplish three things for a Head Start organization: (a) designate formal reporting relationships, (b) group individuals into work units and work units into the total organization, and (c) provide mechanisms for linking and coordinating organizational elements together.

Three structural alternatives for growing Head Start organizations are the component, center and matrix frameworks. Each of these structures has different strengths and weaknesses; hence, there is no single structure that is best overall. An organization's leader needs to select a structure that can best help the organization achieve its goals. Further, because goal priorities will likely change over time, periodic changes in structure will be necessary.

Finally, even if an organization is able to employ the best structure, given its goals and problems, this structure may not produce its expected outcomes. Within organizations there are "informal" communication networks and behavior patterns that interfere with and create barriers for what people should do based on the formal organization chart. The organization chart is only a guide for organizational work relationships. It is the responsibility of administrators to ensure that the chart is being implemented.

REFERENCES

Berg, B. (1989). *Qualitative Research for Social Sciences*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Blau, P.M., & Schoenherr, R.A. (1971). *The Structure of Organizations*. New York: Basic Books.

Chandler, A.D. Jr. (1962). *Strategy and Structure*. Cambridge, MA: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

Child, J. (1973). Predicting and understanding organization structure. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 18*, 168-185.

Child, J. (1984). *Organization*. New York: Harper and Row.

Daft, R.L. (1992). *Organization Theory and Design (4th ed.)*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.

Dyer, W.E. (1977). *Team Building: Issues and Alternatives*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fombrun, C.J., & Wally, S. (1989). Structuring small firms for rapid growth. *Journal of Business Venturing, 4*, 107-122.

Hambrick, D.C., & Crozier, L.M. (1985). Stumblers and stars in the management of rapid growth. *Journal of Business Venturing, 1*, 31-45.

Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The Structuring of Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Structure in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Nadler, D., & Tushman, M. (1988). *Strategic Organization Design*. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Olson, P.D., & Terpstra, D.E. (1992). Organizational structural changes: Life-cycle stage influences and managers' and interventionists' challenges. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 5 (4)*, 27-40.

Ranson, S., Hinings, B., & Greenwood, R. (1980). The structuring of organizational structures. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 25*, 1-17.

Weber, M. (1947). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations*, translated by A.M. Henderson and T. Parsons. New York: Free Press.

Willmott, H. (1981). The structuring of organizational structure: A note. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 26*, 470-474.

BUT CAN I EAT AT A TACO BELL IN TUNISIA?: THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY-A CROSS-CULTURAL SURVEY FOR STUDENT USE IN INTERNATIONAL CURRICULA AT THE COLLEGIATE AND SECONDARY LEVELS

David C. Wyld, Southeastern Louisiana University
Jack E. Tucci, Southeastern Louisiana University
Avinash Waikar, Southeastern Louisiana University
dwyld@I-55.com

ABSTRACT

This paper chronicles the development of a survey instrument which has been utilized as a methodology for helping students learn about other countries and cultures. As such, the project format (most suitable for use with groups of students) forces an intense focus on a single country. The survey produces greater understanding and awareness of cross-cultural issues and has received positive student feedback. This is in large part due to the fact that the survey propels students to inquire about a wide range of cultural differences, including many that students can very easily relate to in their daily lives. This realistic approach enhances the utility of the cross-cultural survey as a learning device. The survey is reproduced in whole in this paper and is also available from the lead author for classroom usage.

INTRODUCTION

How do we go about learning about other nations and other cultures? Even in the "Information Age" in which we live, it has often been said that nothing can beat the personal experience of physically being in another country and walking amongst people of a different culture in order to learn about peoples different from (and similar to) ourselves.

However, many - perhaps even a vast majority - of those involved in international education efforts - both at the collegiate and secondary levels - face a daunting task. In many respects, it may even amount to an intractable obstacle. This is the fact that they (the instructors) often possess a frame of reference about the cultures about whom they are teaching and researching that the majority of their students simply do not have at the point in time they are in the professor or teacher's class. Thus, when dealing with issues involving knowledge of a specific country or discussing problems of doing business across cultures, the instructor possesses an unfair advantage.

Certainly, this is an advantage based on knowledge, but it is based not just on the textbook knowledge that the student and instructor can ultimately share. Rather, the instructor's advantage is often based upon the kind of experience one can only gain from traveling in, from doing business in, and from perhaps even living in and amongst the people of another country or region for a period of time.

Consider that at the collegiate level, there has been a movement towards "internationalizing" the curricula of business schools - both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. This has been undertaken largely in response to the growth of an increasingly interconnected and multi-cultural global economy (Hill, 1997). Many prominent schools of business have developed entire programs in international business. In most other business schools (and in all accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business [A.A.C.S.B]), efforts have been made to "internationalize" the overall business curriculum by offering specific, internationally-focused majors and courses (e.g. international management, marketing, economics, and finance) (Wyld, 1995).

The vast majority of the professors who teach such international courses will themselves have experience as international consultants and/or researchers. In addition to whatever "formal" training they may have had in the cross-cultural aspects of business, these professors have an advantage based upon both their professional and personal

experiences traveling, working, and perhaps even living abroad. Even considering that an ever-increasing percentage of today's college students are "non-traditional," how many of students in such international business courses have had comparable experiences? How many have traveled outside of the Unites States? How many have lived abroad? How many have worked abroad? While the specific answers may vary slightly from region to region and from college to college, the simple answer is that the professor's possess a great upper hand in terms of the "experiential" part of cross-cultural learning over his or her class.

This is not however, a phenomena limited to a specific program or even level of American education. Take linguistics for example. Whether one is speaking of professors teaching Spanish, French, or German at the university level or of foreign language teachers at the high school levels, the majority of these teachers have spent time traveling and perhaps even living in the cultures which are the foci of their teaching and studies. While there may indeed be a multitude of reasons motivating teachers in such fields to go abroad (including economic incentives based upon tax deductions, sabbaticals, and grant programs), the result is that the majority of these teachers have simply furthered their personal and professional interests by engaging in travel which leads to greater levels of cross-cultural understanding.

How can teachers at both the collegiate and secondary levels counter such an inherent advantage? Certainly, student exchange programs and study abroad opportunities may serve to somewhat mitigate the students' collective lack of cross-cultural experience. However, in reality, what percentage of students can actually participate personally in such programs? While once again matters of income and opportunity will be key variables dictating participation rates in such valuable programs, even the most successful of programs will not capture more than a small percentage of the total number of students in almost any university of high school setting. Certainly, guest speakers from foreign nations, as well as international artists and artisans can prove invaluable as resources in promoting cross-cultural awareness. However, both the school and the individual teacher in question will have both vastly different access towards and often conflicting attitudes regarding the inclusion of such people in an international curriculum.

Is technology the answer? In truth, creative usage of technology in the classroom may indeed be a part of the solution. Yet, it is not a panacea. In education, we are all aware of instructors who use the slides from their trip to the Caribbean or their cruise through the islands of Greece in the classroom to demonstrate their personal experience and perhaps even expertise (although some in truth use such materials to justify the tax-deductibility of last summer's vacation!). While relating personal cross-cultural experiences, as well as tangible and visual resources resulting from those times, may be very valid and developed as a creative mode of instruction, more creative use of cutting-edge technology can indeed help to bridge cultural divides.

With the explosive growth of computing and telecommunications technology, we have more opportunities than ever to use these media for cross-cultural instruction and exchange. Today, with the advent of the Internet and the World Wide Web, we possess the capability to "visit" any country on the planet in the realm of cyberspace. We also have the ability to allow students to have personal correspondence with their contemporaries anywhere on the planet via electronic mail. College students and second-graders alike can carry on an e-mail-based dialogue with likely situated individuals whether the other party resides in Omaha or in Oman. Further, with the spread and cheapening of video-conferencing technology, it is now possible to have instructors and students spread-out in far-flung, even international, locations. Want to learn more about life in India, why not go there or bring a bit of India here traveling in the ether?

Yet, for all the possible curriculum changes and technological responses that university and secondary school administrators alike could take to address the cross-cultural knowledge gap, no pedagogical tool may be so cost effective - or more effective at promoting critical thinking and inquiry on cross-cultural issues - as an old-fashioned assignment for the students to undertake.

What is detailed in the remainder of this paper is a project format utilized at the undergraduate level to promote student awareness of and knowledge about other cultures. We will discuss how the project format is presently used and ways it could be adapted for other settings. We will also detail the various sections of the survey and detail what students can discover through completing the eleven-part questionnaire.

THE BIG COUNTRY SURVEY

This questionnaire, deemed the "Big Country" Survey (after a one-hit wonder rock group from Scotland in the mid-1980s) has been utilized as a project format in a senior-level international management course at a large,

regional state university. The survey was based on a questionnaire developed by Moran (1992) as a pre-deployment instrument to be completed by American managers before going aborad to work on a foreign assignment. Both the substance and style of Moran's instrument were dramatically altered to change the questionnaire from use in the corporate world to the academic setting. The tone and scope of the survey was also changed due to the fact that our survey was designed for use by students developing a cross-cultural awareness, rather than being aimed at executives readying themselves for an imminent tour of duty in the chosen country.

Students work in groups of three or four for the entirety of a semester completing the "Big Country" Survey. Researching the project via the Internet, the library, country consulates and embassies, and personal interviews, students develop a great understanding of and hopefully an appreciation for the chosen country and its culture. The questionnaire totals one hundred items, and in truth, it has been rare for the student groups to be able to fully answer one hundred percent of the items. What might be an acceptable number of questions addressed or level of attention to each question may vary from campus to campus and from instructor to instructor. However, professors are advised not to have pre-set parameters for either the minimum number of questions to be addressed or the length of the total report. Each country, and indeed each group, may produce unique circumstances that both should be considered in grading and should not in any way preclude the students' maximum effort on the project.

At the conclusion of the semester, the student groups make presentations to the class on the results of their work. In this manner, they can share the cross-cultural knowledge that they have gained on a specific country with their classmates in order to heighten the learning experience of all involved. Often, these presentations evolve into festive occasions, incorporating food, beverages, music and other media from the target culture. The student-led groups are required to compile handouts summarizing some of their key findings in each of the eleven areas for distribution to their classmates. Thus, depending upon the total enrollment in any given section of the course, students in an international management course at our university may be exposed to between five and fifteen countries through the mechanism of the "Big Country" project.

While the authors whole-heartedly endorse the usage of the entire "Big Country" Survey as a group project pedagogy based on personal experience, they can also envision that parts of the project may prove very helpful to educators in other settings both across the university and at the secondary level as well. At the university level, the project format could be utilized successfully in any international business course (e.g. marketing, management, economics, etc.). It could also be utilized across disciplines as part of foreign language, political science, and education courses in which professors seek to improve cross-cultural understanding. Similarly, it is envisioned that the "Big Country" Survey could be successfully utilized in the secondary environment as well. It would be particularly well-suited to country-or-culture- specific courses, specifically linguistic courses (e.g. French, German, Spanish, etc.).

While at the university level, professors will likely find that the project is "doable" as a group project in its entirety, secondary instructors may be well advised to have students work on only parts of the survey. Whether in groups or on an individual basis, secondary teachers may find it best to break the project format into its component parts and perhaps even pare these portions down to the "bare essentials" - only those questions deemed specifically relevant to the class in question or the topic at hand. Secondary instructors may also find the "Big Country" Survey useful as a project for the entire class to work on - asking students to each find answers to only a narrow portion of the whole questionnaire.

In each of the following sections, we will overview the specific focus of each section of the "Big Country" Survey and the type of cross-cultural awareness that can be elicited through the various questions.

PART 1: THE BASICS ON THE COUNTRY

The first portion of the "Big Country" Survey centers on the fundamental information - the who, what, and where type questions - about the country the students' chose to investigate. These questions, given in their entirety in Table 1 below, ask students to learn about the country's geographic location and landmarks, its major cities and its major industries and natural resources. The questions also force students to construct a brief history of the country and to know what the political subdivisions of the country are. In looking at the country's commercial structure, Part 1 asks students to identify the country's natural resources and its major industries. Further, the "Big Country" Survey format demands that students both recognize the largest companies based in the chosen country and look into the nature of foreign investment in the country's economy.

In essence, this section represents an effort to make certain that the students have a good grounding in the basic identifying characteristics of the country. While largely encyclopedic in nature, Part 1 establishes that the students have completed the foundational work necessary to know the nature of the country and the economy with which they are dealing.

TABLE 1 - PART 1 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
THE BASICS ON THE COUNTRY

1. When did the country become an independent state? What is the history of the country (in brief, "Cliff's Notes" form)?
2. Do you know the geopolitical divisions of this country? Is the country divided into states, provinces, counties or some other way? How many? Name them (and illustrate on a map).
3. What is the population of the country?
4. Can you name the principal cities? Where are they located within the country? What are their population levels? What are their distinguishing characteristics (capitol city, major ports, resort cities, etc.)?
5. What are the principal natural resources possessed by the country? What geographic characteristics are particularly favorable or unfavorable to the country and its economy?
6. What are the country's major industries? What are the country's ten largest companies and what do they do?
7. What countries and what companies hold the largest foreign investments in the country? What areas of the economy are foreign companies most active in?

PART 2: THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE COUNTRY

This section begins the students' investigation into the systematic qualities of the country that make it unique. Part 2 of the survey commands students to make an inquiry into the nature and operations of the chosen country's political system. The questions in this portion of the questionnaire ask students to delve into the nation's political system to be able to describe its institutions and how they work and to identify the major parties and players in the country's political life. Going further, the students must face the question of the role women play in the political process (if there is equality of the sexes in the process). Also, students are asked to investigate the part that bribery and corruption play in both the political life and commerce of the country.

Part 2 of the "Big Country" Survey often raises as many questions in student's minds as it answers about the country in question. Students come to gain an understanding that not all democracies are the same, and further, that how a country's political system operates is often a matter of tradition, influence, and nuance.

TABLE 2 - PART 2 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE COUNTRY

8. Are you able to describe the political process or system of government?
9. Can you identify current, prominent political leaders and their titles?
10. Do you know the names of the political parties and their beliefs, functions, and symbols?
11. Do you know the name of the parliament or legislature? How long are members' terms? How are members' elected? How often?
12. Do you know if there is a form of chief executive in the country? How is this person elected? How often?
13. Is political power delegated in the country (i.e. federal vs. state, legislative vs. executivevs. judicial)? How do these various levels/entities function?

14. Do you know who the major "interest groups" are in their political process and how they express their concerns?
15. Is the payment of special fees (bribery) a part of the political and/or business process? If so, is it done on an overt or covert basis?
16. Are women allowed to vote and hold public office?
17. Is politics an appropriate topic for conversation?

PART 3: THE RELIGIOUS LIFE OF THE COUNTRY

The third component of the "Big Country" Survey asks students to delve into the role that religion plays in the culture of the chosen country. Beyond identifying the basic demographics of religious practice in the nation, the questionnaire commands students to learn a little bit about the basic tenets, beliefs, and customs of the religion. Moreover, the survey asks students to answer an important question - just how big a role does religion play in the daily lives of people and in the workings of the country.

TABLE 3 - PART 3 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
THE RELIGIOUS LIFE OF THE COUNTRY

18. Is there a state religion? Are other religions tolerated? If so, how many religions are there, what are the demographics of these religions, and what are some of the major beliefs and practices?
19. Do you know how religion influences the people?
20. Do you know what the religious holidays are?
21. Are they any "peculiarities" about the religious practices and/or beliefs of people in this country that might surprise an American?

PART 4: THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF THE COUNTRY

Part 4 of the questionnaire compels students to investigate another systemic element of the nation's culture. This is the nature of the country's educational system. Students are asked to both identify how the nation's education system works and what the products of that system are (i.e. the literacy rate, education level, etc.). Students often find that a foreign country's system of primary and secondary education will differ substantially from their own (e.g. the school year, educational methods, etc.). This section will thus often make students introspectively evaluate how the American educational system that they are likely most familiar with differs from that of the target country.

TABLE 4 - PART 4 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF THE COUNTRY

22. Do you know the educational level and practices there? Is education free? Compulsory? How many years of attendance is required? What is the literacy rate?
23. Are you able to compare their educational system to yours? What are some advantages and disadvantages between their system and that found in the U.S.?
24. How and by whom are children disciplined? Is corporal punishment a part of the equation in education?

PART 5: THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE COUNTRY

The fifth portion of the "Big Country" Survey covers a wide-range of topics that give students an insight into the basic social structure of the country. It starts with a question asking students to identify the basic demographic characteristics of the nation's population. Moving beyond the statistical realm, students are then asked to look at what these numbers mean in terms of any inter-group friction that might be present in the country - either between ethnic groups within the country or against foreigners entering the nation. Students are also compelled to learn about the nature of familial relationships in the culture - which may be very familiar or dissimilar to their own. Several questions deal with matters of respect in the culture: what is the role of the elderly; who is the head of the family; and who do people turn to for advice. Students are also asked to investigate the standard dress worn in the country by men and women and whether or not there is any social significance attached to particular garments or styles.

This section of the questionnaire often delineates some very concrete cross-cultural differences for the students to investigate and to ponder. Particularly when studying very traditional and Eastern cultures, students must often confront stark cultural differences between the country in question and the United States.

TABLE 5 - PART 5 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE COUNTRY

25. What is the demographic breakdown of the population of the country? Do you know if and what the class or caste divisions are?
26. Do you know if people generally employ servants? (And what their place is?)
27. Is discrimination recognizable in the social structure? (If so, against whom?)
28. What is the common dress for women and men in the country? Does dress reflect social or economic status? If yes, how so?
29. Do you know what the nature of social mobility is in the country? Are people in the host culture able to move up in social class?
30. Has the experience of colonialism or foreign domination affected the country's class structure? (or their attitude toward foreigners?)
31. Is there intergroup friction in the country? If so, is it serious enough to be a danger to you and/or your family? What precautions have Americans or other foreign national taken while doing business in the country?
32. Do you know what the major occupations of people are?
33. Do you know what the size of the average family is?
34. Is there an "extended" family? If so, what are the roles of the various members? Who (if anyone) is considered the "head" of the family? Is the culture patriarchal, matriarchal, or neither? How so?
35. Is the "group" more important than any "individual" member of that group?
36. Do you know to whom people go for advice regarding their problems (role of clergy, elders, therapists, etc.?
37. Is family planning widely practiced? Are there government policies on population control? Are male and female children equally desired?

PART 6: COMMUNICATION BASICS IN THE COUNTRY

The sixth part of the questionnaire asks students to learn the basics that an American would need to know about how to communicate in the target country. Among these questions are how does one greet people in that country (both verbally and with one's body) - knowing that an improper greeting can often be interpreted as a cultural offense. The questionnaire also forces students to investigate how to properly make use of gestures and space in the culture.

Beyond these basics on proper verbal and non-verbal behaviors, students are also obliged to investigate the gift-giving norms of the culture and the significance of flowers in the culture. Students are often surprised at how much standards for these will vary between the culture they are studying and their own.

TABLE 6 - PART 6 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
COMMUNICATION BASICS IN THE COUNTRY

38. Do you know how people greet each other in the country? (include both verbal and non-verbal greetings) Is it different for foreigners? Do you know how people say "good-bye"?
39. Is hand-shaking deemed appropriate? Are there any different standards for men and women?
40. Do you know what some routine courtesies are that you should observe?
41. Are there any non-verbal behavior patterns you use that may be interpreted as "offensive" in this country (e.g., the A-O.K. gesture is obscene in Brazil)?
42. Do you know what the appropriate speaking distance is between persons who are getting to know each other in a social context? In a business context?
43. How does their culture view the public expression of emotions? Do you know when it is appropriate to cry in the country? Are standards different for men and women?
44. Do colors connote certain meanings? What about the color of flowers? Is there a particular significance to a certain number of flowers?
45. Do you know if gift-giving is a custom? What kind of gift is appropriate for what particular occasion? Are gifts opened in the presence of the giver or later in privacy?
46. Do you know what kind of humor is understood and appreciated in the country? When is humor appropriate or inappropriate in social and business settings?
47. Do you know of any good folk tales, songs, myths, stories, etc. that are native to the culture?

PART 7: FOOD & LEISURE IN THE COUNTRY

This component of the survey often is quite fun for the students to investigate, as it asks them to investigate the gastronomic habits and leisure-time activities of the target country. The seventh part of the survey first asks students to investigate what people in the culture eat and drink and what their standards are in regards to each. It compels students to answer health and etiquette questions in regards to each and also, whether or not the "American" standards they are used to will be available in the foreign land.

Part 7 of the "Big Country" Survey also asks students to delve into the leisure time activities of the culture. Just what do people in that country do with their time away from the job? Students often find surprising answers in regards to the relative importance of the arts, sports, and other forms of entertainment across cultures.

TABLE 7 - PART 7 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
FOOD & LEISURE IN THE COUNTRY

48. Do you know what kinds of food are eaten in the country? What would typical meals consist of in the country? Could these foods pose any potential health hazards for Americans?
49. What American" foods are available in the country (i.e. the Golden Arches)? Are these foods and/or American chain restaurants considered delicacies there?
50. What are the local beverages of choice (non-alcoholic)? Are there any unique qualities to them? Will you be expected to drink it?
51. Are you familiar with their dining practices? Are you expected to eat all foods (is cleaning your plate rude or complimentary)? Is cooking considered an art?
52. What rules govern dining at a restaurant? What determines who pays in a social or business setting? What is their cultural stance on tipping and gratuities?
53. Is alcohol permitted in the culture? In what forms is alcohol consumed and when? What about alcoholic vs. non-alcoholic beverages and their place in the business and social environment? What is their view on drinking in public? on public intoxication? on drug usage?
54. What are their principal recreational or leisure-time practices? How do individual or groups of people tend to spend their free time in the country?
55. What are their major participative sports? What are their major spectator sports?

PART 8: MASS COMMUNICATIONS IN THE COUNTRY

In the "Information Age", going abroad can be quite a shock for Americans accustomed to the vast amount of information and entertainment we have at our fingertips on a daily basis. Part 8 of the "Big Country" Survey requires students to seriously examine what the media situation would be if they were to be in the target country.

The questions force students to look into the present state of the media - and the regulation of the media - in the chosen country. If I am in the country, would I have access to reliable information - and would it be in English? These are huge questions to be investigated. From a personal standpoint, if one were to be working as an American expatriate in that country, it would be important to know if you would be able to enjoy some of the same television shows and movies one would have access to in the United States. Also, with the advent of the Internet, it would be important - perhaps critical - to be able to have access to the Internet in order to conduct business and to communicate with colleagues, customers, and family in the United States. Can the country's telecommunications infrastructure at present even allow you to have Internet access? Students will be surprised that in 1997, there are still many, many countries from which it would either be impossible or prohibitively expensive to even access to the Internet - at any speed. Thus, while the questions also address political questions such as media censorship, they also address media issues for the "Information Age".

TABLE 8 - PART 8 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
MASS COMMUNICATIONS IN THE COUNTRY

56. Are you familiar with their mass communication policies? Is censorship practiced? Which newspapers are the most popular? Would you be able to obtain English-language newspapers? What are their most popular, recent books? Are books of all subject matters generally available?

57. Are you familiar with the media situation? Is television available? Movies? If so, what kinds of each? Are they available in English-language versions and do American-made vehicles appear? Again, if so, what are the most popular recent television shows and/or movies in the country?
58. Are you familiar with the popular music in the country? What forms of music are popular there (and in what language do they perform)? What have been the most popular recent musical acts and the titles of their songs or albums? Is dancing permitted?
59. Has the country developed a presence on the World Wide Web (if so, give some sample sites)? Can their telecommunications system handle Internet access? at what speeds? What percentage of the population and/or businesses (or in recent raw numbers) have Internet access at present?

PART 9: SERIOUS ISSUES FOR AMERICANS IN THE COUNTRY

The ninth part of the questionnaire addresses some very serious issues for any American to consider if they were wishing to travel to and/or to live and work in a foreign country. Beyond the questions of how long it would take to travel to the country and what health concerns might be present, the students are asked to seriously examine how the people of the country feel towards foreign travelers and workers in general and American visitors and managers in particular. Students will find that countries are reported to have varying degrees of warmness towards Americans, they will have to weigh both the stereotypes and the evidence and make their own judgments. In investigating what it would be like to live and work in the country, students examine how Americans and other expatriates reside in the country and whether or not their families typically accompany them on such assignments.

The questions that comprise this part of the survey are often eye-openers for the students. They often find that either they would have well-placed concerns over the health and safety of they and their families if they were to chooses to live and work in the target country or that many of the predispositions they had about the country and its people were unfounded - or at least substantially inaccurate.

TABLE 9 - PART 9 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
SERIOUS ISSUES FOR AMERICANS IN THE COUNTRY

60. Do you currently know what the relationship is between this country and the United States at present? In the past (i.e. have we ever invaded them, saved their skin in wartime, killed their leader, etc.)?
61. Are Americans generally liked in the country? If generally disliked in this culture, what are some reasons?
62. Is there a large expatriate group in the country? What approximate percentage come from America?
63. Do expatriates generally live in the common community or in a self-contained colony? Do families typically accompany expatriate workers? Are their job opportunities there for spouses? Do dependent children typically go to community, private, or even "special" private schools set-up for expatriates?
64. Do you know what medical facilities are available? How does the country fare in terms of modern medical practice? How does its medical community compare to that of the U.S. (in terms of training, equipment, etc.)?
65. Do you know what preventive measures are necessary to maintain good health in the country? What injections and/or health practices must you observe in the host culture to maintain your health? (for example, is the country a malaria area? can you drink the water?, etc.)
66. How long would it take to travel from this country to your present home (via air and any other necessary means - actually check with an airline, travel site on the Internet, etc.)?

PART 10: BUSINESS CUSTOMS AND PROCEDURES IN THE COUNTRY

This part of the "Big Country" Survey contains the most business-related questions in the questionnaire. Some of the questions in this section are indeed specifically constructed to address the concerns of students of international business and management (i.e. how do you motivate workers, what makes someone successful in business). Still, the questions do help paint an important part of the cultural mosaic of the target country and as such, the questions in this section will be quite useful to any setting in which the survey could be used. Students will discover that abroad, many familiar American precepts about how and when work is conducted and how business is transacted may prove unreliable. What the work day is and what it means to be "on-time" is a culturally-determined reality.

Question "80" is a catch-all question for the students to consider as a group after all their research has been completed on the target country. This question asks the students to weigh all the evidence, all the information, and all the insights they have gathered on the country and simply decide, given what you have learned, would you want to live and work in that country as an American expatriate. Often, this question draws dissenting opinions within the groups (and they are encourages to include all the factors they consider in making this decision). Overall though, students do tend to want to have such a cross-cultural experience in their future after conducting such an intensive investigation on the country in question and express an openness towards doing so.

TABLE 10 - PART 10 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
BUSINESS CUSTOMS AND PROCEDURES IN THE COUNTRY

67. Are you familiar with their work practices? How many days per week do people work? What days? What hours? Do they have any unique features to their work day (i.e. particularly long or short hours, siestas, etc) that are different from America?
68. Do you know the time customs for appointments? Should you be "on time" or "late" for a business or social occasion? Should invitations be specific as to time and day or general?
69. How should you address a superior in both oral and written communications? a colleague? a subordinate?
70. Are there any special protocols for business meetings, functions, or meals? Are business and social conversations allowed to mix?
71. Do you know if it is customary to invite business colleagues to your home? Will such an invitation be reciprocated? Are thank you notes to be written after a dinner invitation? For other occasions?
72. Are there differences between male and female roles in business? Do women participate in all professions and have positions at all levels of responsibility?
73. Do you know what are regarded to be the most important signs of success in the culture (e.g., salary, title, power, etc.)?
74. What seems to motivate workers in the host country? What have managers done to successfully motivate workers?
75. Is there a strong "task orientation" in the country (e.g., work is more important than other relationships)?
76. Do you know what some of the dominant business values are (e.g., competition, courtesy, self-reliance, etc.)
77. Do you know what determines whether you will succeed or fail in business (e.g. role of familial and governmental relations)?
78. What are some success stories of expatriates succeeding in the country (for their companies and/or themselves)? What about Americans specifically?
79. What are the tax implications of working in that particular country for Americans? monetary implications (e.g., an unstable currency, high rents and tuitions, etc.)?
80. Would your group likely consider working in that country? In sum, what would be the principal advantages and disadvantages of working, conducting business, and living in ______________?

PART 11: CONVERSATION STARTERS

One of the best ways to flatter a host in a foreign nation or to enliven a conversation with a foreign national is to demonstrate that you truly do know a few things about the culture. Odds are that American media have penetrated the target country to a much greater extent than vice versa. Thus, you may be going to a country where you have could have little idea about their cultural icons (both current and historical). Who is their Michael Jordan? Who is their John Grisham? Who is their Madonna?

The final portion of the "Big Country" Survey allows students the chance to learn just who these cultural figures are for the target country. The students will often be amazed to find that indeed, each country does have its own unique cultural icons. They will discover legendary figures and superstars they have never heard of, but who are important historical and contemporary figures in their own sphere of influence.

TABLE 11 - PART 11 OF THE "BIG COUNTRY" SURVEY
"CONVERSATION STARTERS"

For a final series of questions, every country has its own rich culture with its own unique history. This produces historical figures and current cultural icons with whom you may be very unfamiliar. Please try and identify both a contemporary and a historical figure in each of the following areas and give a sentence or two on what each is principally known for (that way you could be a "name dropper" in that country!).

81&82.	Political leaders
83&84.	Business leaders
85&86.	Religious leaders
87&88.	Philosophers or other intellectuals
89&90.	Inventors
91&92.	Writers or Poets
93&94.	Artists
95&96.	Actors/actresses or television/radio personalities
97&98.	Musicians
99&100.	Sports figures or athletes

CONCLUSION

Is this "Big Country" Survey" the answer"? By no means is one survey, one project format, any activity - in one class - the answer to the cross-cultural experience problem. The only true answer is giving more and more students the opportunity to actually have such experiences living, studying, traveling, and even working in foreign countries. However, this is neither utopia where we have vast resources to provide such opportunities to all or a totalitarian country where we could command students to engage in such experiences. All that we can do as educators is try to provide good learning experiences in the small slice of our students' total educational experience to try to enhance their cross-cultural awareness and to promote critical thinking on such matters.

As such, the "Big Country" Survey has a role to play. In internationally-focused courses, it can be utilized to prompt students to use the new technologies (such as the Internet) and the old-fashioned ones (such as the library and actually talking to people) to think about and to investigate a single culture. By doing so in such an in-depth manner, they will discover countless ways that Americans are both similar and dissimilar to peoples around the world. When used as a small-group class project format, a class has the opportunity to share their discoveries with one another about a number of countries. Hopefully, by raising both one's sensitivities and interests about other cultures, we can help

prompt students both to perhaps think a bit more "out of the box" and to consider engaging in future cross-cultural experiences - traveling, living, and even working abroad - after they have left our particular classroom for the final time.

A FINAL NOTE

Those educators interested in obtaining copies of the "Big Country" Survey in its entirety for classroom use - (either in a hard copy or WordPerfect File), please contact the lead author at the address shown below. Also, we consider this document a continual work-in-progress. If you should have any comments on the survey (and especially if you could share your experience using the whole - or part - of the "Big Country" Survey), please provide the feedback to us by contacting the lead author. We welcome your input and suggestions and look forward to hearing from you!

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Hill, C.W.L. (1997). *International Business: Competing in the Global Marketplace (second edition)*. Boston: Irwin.

Moran, R.T. (1992). *So You're Going Abroad - Are You Prepared?* Reprinted in *Managing Cultural Differences (fourth edition), Instructor's Guide*, by P.R. Harris and R.T. Moran (1996). Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Co.

Wyld, D.C. (1995). Where in the World Is Any City West of San Diego?: Addressing Geographic Illiteracy in the International Business Curriculum. *College Student Journal*, *29*(1): 77-85.

BUSINESS SCHOOL GRADUATES: REQUISITE ABILITIES AND SKILLS FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

Harry G. McAlum, Lander University
Faruk Tanyel, University of South Carolina Spartanburg
Mark A. Mitchell, University of South Carolina Spartanburg

ABSTRACT

Prior studies have identified the skills and abilities employers expect graduates of business schools to possess when entering the workplace. Results of these studies illustrate that as the business environment changes, the skills and abilities desired of business school graduates change. As the 21st century approaches, we surveyed prospective employers to determine their perceptions of the skills and abilities business school graduates should possess in order to contribute effectively in their organizations. The results indicate some significant changes in the skills and abilities expected of business school graduates when compared with earlier studies.

INTRODUCTION

As the 21st century approaches, the business environment may be characterized as keenly competitive, global in nature, technology-intense, and dynamic. These and other competitive forces are constantly exerting pressure on business school educators to respond with a curricula which produce graduates with the skills and abilities to add value in their respective organizations. *Moore* (1997) predicts many business school will not survive given that many corporations are assuming larger roles in the education of their employees. The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) is in the forefront of efforts to make Business School education responsive to the needs of the business community. In fact, current AACSB accreditation criteria have been modeled after the Malcolm Baldridge Quality Award, with a significant portion of the process addressing the need for customer responsiveness. This mission-driven accreditation process is very effective in that most Business Schools profess a commitment to employer needs in their mission statements. The current accreditation process requires demonstration of such outcomes as well as stakeholder (i.e., employer) input into the strategic planning processes.

Accounting education has been examined with many changes implemented as a result of the Accounting Education Change Commission and the American Institute of Certified Public Accountant's requirement that candidates complete 150 hours of instruction to be eligible just to sit for the Uniform CPA exam. Other functional areas of business management education are under scrutiny for ways to deliver a better educational experience. Still, the business environment responds to change faster than colleges and universities because of the cumbersome processes in place at most institutions.

The purpose of this manuscript is to identify the skills and abilities necessary for today's business school graduates to contribute effectively as newly-hired entry-level employees in today's business environment. Many of the skills and abilities previously provided by Business School education and believed to lead to career success may not be applicable in an increasingly dynamic environment. The critical attributes needed by Business School graduates (and those desired by employers) change as business adapts to changes in the operating environment. Thus, the critical attributes expected of Business School graduates must be continually examined to insure that the curriculum reflects the current environment and that graduates are able to contribute effectively upon completion of their degree programs. This study examines those attributes as we prepare to enter the 21st century and beyond.

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Various studies have attempted to identify the skills and abilities Business School graduates need to possess to enter the workplace and contribute effectively (see Davison, Brown, and Davison (1993); Raymond, McNabb, and Matthaei (1993); Theeke, Sprague, and Como (1993); Aiken, Martin, and Paolillo (1994); Sheetz (1995); and Kryder (1997). Additionally, Michigan State University conducts an annual study of newly-hired college graduates in business and governmental sectors and publishes the output through their Collegiate Employment Research Institute. A chronological review of the literature is provided below.

Davison, Brown, and Davison (1993) surveyed personnel officers seeking their opinions regarding the strengths and weaknesses of Business School graduates hired during the prior three years. Eleven areas of greatest satisfaction (i.e., desired characteristics) were identified, including punctuality, honesty, professional grooming, ethical behavior, and dependability. Five areas of greatest dissatisfaction (i.e., lacking or deficient characteristics) were identified, including desktop publishing background, realistic expectations about advancement, realistic expectations about starting salary, computer graphics background, and writing effectiveness.

Raymond, McNabb, and Matthaei (1993) surveyed both students and employers for perceptions of the most important skills and attributes desired by employers in their entry-level employees. Employers ranked (in order of relative importance) oral skills, dependability, interpersonal skills, written skills, self-starter/motivation as the top five requisite skills. Interestingly, student respondents ranked oral skills, interpersonal skills, dependability, motivation, and written skills as the top five skills and abilities perceived as necessary for their ultimate success.

Theeke, Sprague, and Como (1993) conducted phone interviews with representatives from business, government, and nonprofit organizations to assess the desired skill-set in newly-hired employees. The student characteristics mentioned most frequently, in decreasing order of importance, were communication skills, applicable work experience, educational performance, and interpersonal skills.

Aiken, Martin, and Paolillo (1994) reported "the ability to communicate and get along with others is perhaps the most important skill for graduating business students." Other desirable attributes included dependability, initiative, problem-solving ability, and creative thinking.

In *Recruiting Trends 1995-96*, Scheetz (1995) identified the skills and competencies possessed by the best new college graduates and competencies new graduates needed to be successful. The skills and competencies of the best new college graduates included a high level of energy and enthusiasm, quick learner, working knowledge of computers, good to excellent written and oral communication skills, strong organizational skills, team-oriented, and an attitude of willingness to learn all aspects of the business from menial to challenging tasks. Computer literacy, leadership abilities, analytical thinking and problem-solving skills, foreign language competency, and flexibility/adaptability were listed as the competencies necessary for new graduates. Deficiencies noted among new college graduates were marginal oral and written skills, a text-book orientation, lack of career focus, inability to work on teams, arrogance, an unwillingness to start at the entry-level, and difficulty with transition from campus to corporate life.

Kryder (1997) identified and recommended five core skills necessary for accounting [and business] graduates: written business communication, oral business communication, team orientation, computer competency, and multi-cultural communication.

The above literature review shows common ingredients believed for success include the ability to communicate, dependability, and a team orientation. Further study of this empirical data illustrates fewer consistencies than intuitively expected. Clearly, the skills and abilities desired in recent Business School graduates continue to change in response to the dynamic marketplace. As we prepare to enter the 21st century, managers must identify the desired skills and abilities of entry-level Business School graduates and actively seek out those prospective employees. As such, the remainder of this manuscript attempts to identify what skills and abilities prospective employers currently desire in their newly-hired business school graduates for entry-level positions in their organizations.

METHODOLOGY

Following a review of the empirical literature, a self-administered questionnaire was developed and pre-tested with selected human resource professionals. The instrument was then mailed to 1,054 organizations selected from the statewide manufacturing directory and Chamber of Commerce directories in a five-county region in the southeast

United States. This judgment sample was selected to include manufacturing, merchandising, and service firms. Additionally, the attempt was made to include a mix of large and small firms in the sampling frame. It must be noted that the sampling frame includes an extremely great concentration of foreign-owned companies. The effort was made to reflect this area characteristic in the sampling frame. It should be further noted that institutional research at both sponsor universities indicates that a high percentage of graduates (approximately 80%) tend to remain in this operating region upon completion of their degree programs.

The Human Resource Director was identified as the proper contact person for this study. The survey instrument contained a list of likely attributed to be desired. The respondent was asked to rate the relative importance of each attribute within a given range: 1 = very important and 5 = less important. A total of 151 usable responses were received, yielding a 14.3% response rate.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The respondents were asked to rate the relative importance of the attribute list within a given range: 1 = very important to 5 = less important. Table One presents the mean scores in order of their relative importance (i.e., first listed is perceived as most important). The data should be interpreted in relative terms; that is, items of lesser importance or not necessarily unimportant. Rather, they lack the importance ascribed to other attributes presented for consideration.

According to the respondents, the most important attributes to be possessed by newly-hired Business School graduates include: RESPONSIBILITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY, ETHICAL VALUES, INTERPERSONAL SKILLS, ORAL COMMUNICATIONS, TIME MANAGEMENT AND PUNCTUALITY, THE ABILITY TO WORK IN TEAMS, AND DECISION-MAKING AND ANALYTICAL ABILITY. It is interesting to note those attributes believed to be less important include (presented in order of increasingly relative importance): GLOBAL AWARENESS, PERSUASIVE ABILITY, COMPUTER SKILLS, AND PRESENTATION SKILLS.

Table One: Skills and Abilities Desired By Employers in Their New Business Graduates
THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY

Skills and Abilities	Mean Score (1-5 Scale)
Responsibility and Accountability	1.24
Ethical values	1.26
Interpersonal skills	1.34
Oral communications	1.40
Time management and punctuality	1.48
Ability to work in teams	1.56
Decision-making and analytical ability	1.57
Written communications	1.58
Creativity and creative thinking	1.64
Ability to assimilate new technology	1.97
Project management	2.05
Presentation skills	2.11
Computer problem-solving skills	2.19
Computer word processing skills	2.27
Persuasive ability	2.29
Global awareness	2.73

1 = Very Important to 5 = Less Important

Additionally, respondents were asked to list the three most important skills/abilities desired of Business School graduates. These results were tabulated by identifying the rank frequency of each item (ranked 1, 2, or 3 by each respondent). The results to this portion of the study are presented in Table Two. Here, respondents showed a preference for (in order): (1) INTERPERSONAL SKILLS, (2) ETHICAL VALUES, and (3) RESPONSIBILITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY. Comparison of Tables 1 and Table 2 reveals that the top 3 skills/attributes maintain their relative importance when the respondents were asked to list the three items of greatest importance desired of Business School graduates.

Table Two
Three Most Important Skills Desired of Recent Business School Graduates

	Rated 1	Rated 2	Rated 3
Interpersonal Skills	26% (40)	15% (22)	21% (32)
Ethical Values	24% (36)	14% (21)	15% (22)
Responsibility and Accountability	12% (18)	11% (16)	10% (16)

INTERPRETATION AND CONCLUSIONS

Prior research suggests that the skills/abilities prospective employers desire of Business School graduates change as the business environment changes. The business environment has changed significantly in recent years because of globalization, new technologies, and intense competition at home and from abroad. These changes necessitate a different set of skills/abilities Business School graduates need to acquire in order to satisfy prospective employers . The results from this study show some changes in the skills/abilities desired of Business School graduates over prior studies. The skill/ability most desired by prospective employers is responsibility and accountability -- which has not been reported in prior studies. The question for the academic community is obvious: can we teach responsibility or accountability or is this a skill we must develop in our students by structuring the educational experience in a manner that fosters the development of such skills?

Most surprisingly, the skill/ability ascribed least importance (in comparison to other attributes presented) by prospective employers is global awareness. The business press as well as Business School curricula put great emphasis on the global perspective of business. The findings in this study indicate prospective employers currently do not rank global awareness as high in importance, at least in terms of their entry-level employees. A possible explanation of this result is that prospective employers may view global awareness as important, but not for an entry-level Business School graduate. As the graduate/employee progresses to greater levels of responsibility, global awareness would become increasingly important, possibly mandatory.

A possible interpretation of the data is that there may be certain minimum requirements necessary to secure an entry-level position upon graduation from Business School: RESPONSIBILITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY, ETHICAL VALUES, and INTERPERSONAL SKILLS. The enlightened graduate should develop these skills by whatever means possible. Further, the market-driven Business School should assume responsibility for the development of these skills and abilities in their graduates.

As one's career progresses, other skills such as analytical thinking, the ability to work in teams, project management, persuasive ability, or even global awareness may become increasingly important as the nature of the work changes. Remember, the focus of this study is the newly-hired entry-level Business School graduate.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The empirical process seeks to improve our collective understanding of the subject matter. One problem in identifying trends in the literature base is the lack of uniformity is word usage. For example, does "dependability" equal "accountability" or "competency"; or, does "intuition" mean the same thing as "creative thinking?" Various researchers appear to be using different terminology in the identification or description of similar skills/attributes. A standard set of terms to describe skills/attributes would enhance the comparability of research results as well as permit the identification and analysis of changes in skills/attributes over time.

Another area for future research relates to how the academic policies of universities and Business Schools prepare graduates for the business environment. For instance, do policies which 'forgive' students for irresponsible behavior really serve the needs of the students and prospective employers? Or do these policies, intentionally or unintentionally, teach students behaviors which are not desirable in the business environment? A review of Business School policies in light of skills/attributes desired by prospective employers to determine consistency may be very valuable indeed!

Finally, comparison studies comparing the perceptions of students-employers, students-faculty, faculty-employers might reveal interesting results. For instance, are we really teaching what is desired by the prospective employers of our graduates? Or, can we even teach what is desired or is that a value that is better developed through other social institutions, such as the family or church?

A CLOSING THOUGHT…

Recent research results have attempted to identify the desired "skill set" of Business School graduates. A dynamic marketplace continues to change the conditions for success, thus changing the attributes believe to lead to success. These research results are time-specific; that is, they identify the skills and abilities desired today. In order to improve our collective understanding of this area of research, a uniform set of attributes must be identified for review over time. Certainly, this list can be expanded or contracted as needed. (For instance, who would have envisioned the importance of computer skills in the mid 1960s). However, establishing a base allows for easier analysis of time-series data.

Business organizations are the customers of Business Schools in that most graduates seek employment with these organizations. Business Schools should continually be in sync with the current skills/attributes desired by prospective employers in order to best serve the mutually-shared interests of the student, the university, and the business community. As such, this study lays the groundwork for future replications and the ability to analysis time-series data for valuable trends. Toward this end, this manuscript makes its greatest contribution to our knowledge base.

REFERENCES

Aiken, Milam W., Martin, Jeanette S., Paolillo, Joseph G. P., (1994). Requisity Skills of Business School Graduates: Perceptions of Senior Corporate Executives. *Journal of Education for Business*, 69(3), 160.

Davison, Leslie J., Brown, James M., Davison, Mark L., (1993). Employer Satisfaction Ratings of Recent Business Graduates. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 4(4), 391.

Kryder, LeeAnn., (1997). Communication Skills: What You Need To Succeed. *New Accountant*, 12(4), 12-13.

Moore, Thomas E., (1997). The Corporate University: Transforming Management Education. *Accounting Horizons*, 11(1), 77-85.

Raymond, Mary Anne, McNabb, David E., Matthaei, C. Frederick, (1993). Preparing Graduates for the Workforce: The Role of Business Education. *Journal of Business Education*, 68(4). 205.

Scheetz, L. Patrick., (1995). *Recruiting Trends 1995-96*.

South Carolina Department of Commerce (1996), Division of State Development, *1996 South Carolina Industrial Directory*.

Theeke, Herman A., Sprague, David A., Como, Vivian M., (1993). Recruiters Reaffirm Their Need for Specialized Business Generalists. *Journal of Career Planning and Employment* (Fall), 45.

EMPLOYING THE MAJOR FIELDS ASSESSMENT TEAM IN A SEMESTER CONVERSION PROJECT: REFLECTIONS ON CONCURRENT PROGRAM REDESIGN AND ASSESSMENT

Charlotte Stephens, Columbus State University
Stephens_Charlotte@colstate.edu

ABSTRACT

Assessment was made part of the review process for a semester conversion project at a regional university. The chair of the Major Fields Assessment Team reports on this concurrent curriculum redesign and assessment activity, emphasizing method used and results achieved.

INTRODUCTION

The University System of Georgia will convert from the quarter to semester system effective Fall 1998. The conversion necessitated a review of every major program at each school. At Columbus State University, a unit of the University System, the Major Fields Assessment Team was tasked with reviewing all major-specific courses and all major programs under semester system. Each school presented program learning outcomes for each major, course descriptions and proposed syllabi, learning outcomes by course, and a description of how these outcomes would be achieved. The university coordinator for the conversion issued sample documents along with instructions. The Major Fields Assessment Team then reviewed each school's programs and courses, issued a report detailing suggested revisions, and met with Deans, Associate Deans, and individual professors to resolve questions and disagreements concerning revisions. The team's responsibility was to report to the Assistant Vice President of Academic Affairs, the university curriculum committee, and the Vice President of Academic Affairs that each program had learning outcomes to which each course was linked. In addition, the conversion coordinator requested other review items since the team was the only review process between each college and the university curriculum committee. The author of this paper served as the chair of the Major Fields Assessment Team, a group composed of nine faculty members, two from each of the four schools and a chair appointed by Academic Affairs. The team reports to the Assistant Vice President for Academic Affairs.

The review of major curriculums under the semester versus quarter system was an extraordinary activity for the assessment team. Annual activities for this team include activities such as authorizing purchase of assessment instruments, annual reporting on assessment results, annual reporting on improvements made to major programs both as a result of assessment and independent of assessment, reviewing linkage of major program learning outcomes to required courses in the major, and investigating assessment methods. The team's work is sensitive, since professors from outside a major field, outside their own knowledge domain, often find themselves making recommendations concerning changes to programs. With the extra work load semester conversion caused the entire campus, suggested revisions were often viewed in a very practical way, as additional time burdens. Furthermore, each faculty member serving in this massive review process was at the same time involved in redesigning a curriculum, proposing new courses, writing new syllabi, etc. This paper describes the methodology used for the review, a methodology which helped to reduce the time while insuring unbiased and careful review. We then reflect on the results achieved on this concurrent redesign and assessment process. While combining the two efforts made sense theoretically, we may have hampered curriculum redesign because of the time constraint of also providing assessment documentation. We were able to avoid the "mind your own business" or "you're meddling" dilemmas inherent in our committee work mainly because of our methodology, which capitalized on the interdisciplinary nature of our team. Lessons learned may benefit other assessment teams in their annual work as well as assist those involved in a similar conversion effort.

REVIEW METHODOLOGY

The team was charged with reviewing all Area F courses, or first two years courses required for a major, and major field courses. Each major program, its learning outcomes, and all courses in the major were to be reviewed. Our task would involve reviewing over 600 courses and over 50 major programs, most of which had undergone significant redesign for the conversion to semester. Our team, consisting of nine faculty members, had two quarters in which to complete our work. Participation of all nine members in this service function was essential. We agreed that meetings must be focused and must not exceed one and a half hours if we expected good attendance. Our meeting time goal was forty-five minutes. Each meeting had an agenda issued prior to the meeting. Meetings would be used to review controversial results and come to a consensus. No team member would be asked to review courses or programs from his/her own school. However, each team member could comment on and clarify questions concerning review outside the school. We formed two groups of four faculty members each to review courses and programs. We set deadlines for completion, presentation, and for the final report's presentation to each school.

The following plan was proposed by the team leader, who would compile the work of each team and incorporate the group discussion of that work. The team voted unanimously to implement this plan.

1. Each individual member of the two teams will conduct a review of programs and course proposals using review forms (Appendix A). These review forms will serve as documentation for our review process.

2. Review teams will share recommended and required revisions to grids and course proposals via e-mail or meet to compare findings.

3. Teams will summarize their agreement on required and recommended revisions prior to meeting with the Major Fields Team.

4. This summary, along with other significant findings, will be presented to the entire Major Fields Team at a meeting scheduled for that purpose. Meetings will take place on the following two Wednesdays at 3pm and last no longer than 4:30pm.

5. A report on each school will be prepared by the Major Fields chair and delivered to the curriculum committee of each school. The chair will follow up with each school to obtain required revisions and explain recommendations

6. The Major Fields Team may have to call special meetings if schools disagree with us on required revisions. Whenever possible, the chair will negotiate any such disagreements with the review team and school.

7. The Major Fields chair will prepare a report for the University Curriculum Committee on all recommendations, required revisions, and results obtained. The chair will present that report to the University Committee.

With Area F courses, we were also asked to look for hidden prerequisites as well as linkage to the major's learning outcomes. We began our work with Area F during the fall quarter and continued with major fields during the winter quarter. After our review of Area F, we issued a six page report detailing unspecified prerequisites and courses which did not show linkage to major field outcomes. We were then charged with working with each school to insure that revisions corrected problems specified. Each school's Major Fields team members were asked to meet one-on-one with faculty members to explain course revisions, if necessary. Further, the Major Fields chair met with Associate Deans, Deans, and school curriculum chairs where necessary. Then, the team had to review the revisions. It was clear to us by the end of fall quarter that our task with major courses and programs had to be more restricted. As a result of our work with Area F course proposals, we recommended some measures for improving linkage with program outcomes. We ask that each course proposal list program outcomes achieved in that course. Further, we asked that course proposals state how these program outcomes were to be achieved in that course. Each program

completed learning outcomes grids with outcome numbers listed vertically and courses listed horizontally. If a course addressed an outcome, an X was placed in the appropriate outcome column. This grid provided an overview of a program's learning outcomes and their achievement through course work.

In the winter quarter when we began our review of major courses, the requirement to check for hidden prerequisites was dropped. We were tasked with linkage to learning outcomes only. We again used the same methodology for review: interdisciplinary teams with individual members reviewing, comparing results with the team, reaching a consensus and then presenting results to a larger group containing faculty from the school under review.

Review Teams

School of Arts and Letters (to be completed by Wednesday, February 19, and presented at meeting scheduled for 3:00pm on that same day. Report to be delivered to school no later than Friday, February 21)

School of Education (to be completed by Wednesday, February 26, and presented at a meeting scheduled for 3:00pm on that same day. Report to be delivered to school no later than Friday, February 28)

Members:
Zeki Al-Saigh, School of Science (department chair)
Sandra Hortman, School of Business
Gary Kundey, School of Business (department chair)
Tim Howard, School of Science

School of Business (to be completed by Wednesday, February 19, and presented at meeting scheduled for 3:00pm on that same day. Report to be delivered to school no later than Friday, February 21)

School of Science (to be completed by Wednesday, February 26, and presented at a meeting scheduled for 3:00pm on that same day. Report to be delivered to school no later than Friday, February 28)

Members:
Shirley Brumbaugh, School of Arts and Letters
Dan Ross, School of Arts and Letters (department chair)
Mike Taylor, School of Education
Carol Rutland (or substitute member), School of Education

RESULTS ACHIEVED

We were able to review for linkage but only "loosely." We raised more questions than could be answered in the time available. Some programs clearly needed to rewrite outcomes entirely. Some course proposals and their accompanying syllabi did not seem to support learning outcomes listed. Even though each school had reviewed its own majors before submitting them to our team for outside review, many course proposals were missing and many sections were missing from course proposals submitted (Appendix B). We continued to receive programs for review well after the deadline. Our team voted unanimously to request that no review would be made of programs received more than two weeks late. The Assistant VP of Academic Affairs in turn requested that we continue our review, but we would not be held responsible for following up on revisions recommended. Instead, the four Deans would be given that charge.

Our campus was overwhelmed with the paper work involved in the task of curriculum redesign. Although assessment should have been an integral part of curriculum redesign, it was a battle to insure even loose linkage of courses to program outcomes. One important result was achieved by installing an assessment review panel for

curriculum redesign, however. Learning outcomes and their assessment was considered in the initial stages instead of provided for as an afterthought. Each school was cooperative with our team, and because of the presence of team members from each school, each school was sensitive to the difficulty of our task. We were able to avoid an adversarial position.

LESSONS LEARNED

Theoretically, a redefinition of learning outcomes would come before curriculum redesign. However, our faculty found this process to be an iterative one with a reciprocal relationship between the two tasks. Those of us on the Major Fields team learned a great deal about how to improve our own program outcomes and course proposals. In fact, we made recommendations on redesigning the course proposal and program description package so that other faculty members had a clearer task definition. We also came to believe that the best way to improve program design and outcomes linkage was to allow faculty to serve as an outside reviewer. Finally, we concluded that the viability of learning outcomes needs to be tested by specifying some assessment method, either qualitative or quantitative, and further, specifying what results one would expect to see if that outcome had been achieved. While curriculum redesign must involve learning outcomes and the integrity of these outcomes throughout a program, even a new curriculum design will not achieve this goal on the first iteration. The process is a dynamic, continuing one. Using the Major Fields Assessment team as a review panel for significant curriculum redesign did serve to emphasize the importance of the assessment process on our campus. Further, the review for linkage of program outcomes to course proposals insured faculty involvement in program assessment.

Appendix A

Major Fields Team Semester Conversion Review

Please make comments on these review forms only. Copies of program packages will be passed on to the University Curriculum Committee after revised pages are replaced.

School: ___Arts and Letters
___Business
___Education
___Science

Program Reviewed: ________________________

1.0	Outcomes Grid Review

1.1 Comments (including questions, issues which need to be discussed with group):

1.2 Recommended Revisions

** 1.3 Required Revisions

Reviewer's Signature:________________________________ Date: 2/____/97

Please complete one Course Proposal Review Form for each course in the program under review.

Course Number:_________Course Name: ____

2.0	Course Proposal Review

2.1 Do course learning outcomes agree with those indicated on the program's outcomes grid? ___Yes ___No
Comments:

2.2 Do course learning outcomes link adequately with proposed syllabus and methods to achieve outcomes? ___Yes ___No
Comments:

2.3 Recommended revisions to course proposal

** 2.4 Required revisions to course proposal

Reviewer's Initials: ___________ Date: 2/___/97

Appendix B

Linkage to Major Fields Outcomes
Excerpts from Exception Report

- The Criminal Justice courses could not be evaluated using the current program outcomes. Learning outcomes must be revised. Major field outcomes as stated require detailed knowledge of the CJ curriculum. Since curriculum is constantly changing, and outcome achievement is often evaluated by those outside the university, "stand alone" outcomes are needed. These outcomes, for example, might specify what constitutes the general knowledge from the common core.

- History courses are tied to general education outcomes. Area F courses need to be tied to major field outcomes. Of course, we could see a relationship between general education outcomes and major field outcomes, but major field outcomes were not involved save in one instance.

- A linkage to major field outcomes needs to provided and/or outcomes revised for the Physical Education course proposal, Emergency Care and First Aid.

- We have one set of program outcomes, Theatre Arts, but two majors are offered, one in fine arts and one in education.

- The following courses were listed as Area F requirements, but no course proposal was received. Therefore, we were unable to evaluate linkage.

  Exercise Science Medical Terminology
  Ex Sc & PE Human Anatomy I & II
  Mental Retardation General Psychology
  Intro to African & American Cultures

- We have neither outcomes nor course proposals for the general studies major.

- We understand that a uniform Area F will be adopted for all music majors; therefore, we did not review the course proposals submitted. We understand that the entire area will be resubmitted.

Recommendations:

- All education majors take some common courses. Each education major's outcomes should clearly include the outcomes for this common core as well as the area of specialization.

- Likewise, all business majors take a common business core. Business core outcomes should be developed and included in each business major's outcomes.

- General education outcomes should be included in major field outcomes as a subset of these major field outcomes.

- Course proposals for all courses required for the major should include the complete list of current major outcomes. Outcomes addressed by the course should be indicated clearly.

- The form for course proposals may need revision. Many steps have been added to course proposal review, and outcomes have become more important. We may wish to include sections on the form for indicating linkage to outcomes. Our team suspects that many errors of omission might be prevented by form redesign.

Concerns:

- Many members of our team expressed concern about the number of courses which seem to assume that students know how to use the computer for research, word processing, and other tasks. We were not comfortable with adding a prerequisite every time computer applications were included in a course. However, as one team member wrote, "I just can't tell whether sufficient computer literacy will be gained in English 101 and 102." And even if sufficient literacy were gained in the Area A and B courses, students are not required to take these courses first unless, of course, these courses are made a prerequisite.

- Our team reviewed the content of course proposals carefully, and expressed concerns about course content which were beyond the scope of our team's assignment. We believe that the course approval process is not well understood.

FUTURE BUSINESS EXECUTIVES: AN EXPERIMENT IN INCREASING DIVERSITY

Linda Upshaw Hadley, Columbus State University
Hadley_Linda@colstate.edu
Charlotte S. Stephens, Columbus State University
Stephens_Charlotte@colstate.edu

ABSTRACT

A program to increase enrollment diversity in the business college of a regional university, and, at the same time, foster diversity among upper management is described. Some important lessons have been learned from this eight-year experiment involving high school students.

INTRODUCTION

Can business schools successfully implement programs to increase diversity both in their own schools and in the executive ranks of corporate America? One might argue that attempts to cultivate executive talent from those women and minorities already in the workplace fail to recognize that the selection and cultivation process of potential executives begins long before the executive candidates reach the workplace. Recognizing that they can only train and graduate those students who enroll, does it become incumbent upon business schools to employ aggressive strategies to seek to increase the enrollment of women and minority degree candidates? If such strategies are employed, how will they impact the level of diversity of business school graduates and the business executive candidate pool? This paper describes a program designed to address these issues.

The Abbott Turner College of Business (ATCOB) at Columbus State University started a pilot program called the Future Business Executives. The primary purpose was to increase diversity in its own enrollment and long-term, to increase diversity in the executive suites of regional corporations. The program sought to identify black students entering high school expressing an interest in business careers. These students were provided with employment opportunities, career development opportunities, mentoring, and educational financial assistance. After nearly eight years, some rather unexpected outcomes have been achieved. What lessons can we draw from this pilot program to aid other business schools seeking to similarly demonstrate their commitment to increasing diversity in enrollment and in the executive suite?

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Begun by the business school dean in 1990 as a community outreach service, the program's mission was to increase the minority enrollment in business degree programs at Columbus State University, thereby increasing the pool of minority executive candidates in the region. The program was publicized through junior high school counselors who recommended rising freshmen. Criteria employed by counselors included the following:

- sound scholastic ability
- self-motivation
- an expressed ambition to pursue a business career.

In addition to the school counselor's recommendation, two character references were required for each applicant. Students meeting these criteria and whose limited family financial resources might prevent full development of business aptitude and motivation were selected.

A steering committee of local business leaders was formed to provide input to the ATCOB concerning program direction. The Committee was also used as a resource for placement opportunities for these students.

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

The students were introduced to the program by their junior high school guidance counselors. After securing a counselor's recommendation, the steering committee selected the final program participants. Each student was interviewed by the committee and their record reviewed. The size of the FBE group was limited only by the number of appropriate part-time job opportunities the program director was able to secure. Key components of the program included

- appropriate employment
- mentoring
- educational financial assistance.

Each student was placed in a position with a local company where they were exposed to the professional atmosphere of business. More specifically, students did not work in fast food restaurants, but were instead placed in the corporate office of the franchise owner assisting in the clerical duties related to human resources, payroll, etc. Students were permitted to work no more than two hours per day while school was in session, but could work any mutually agreed upon hours when school was not in session.

Program sponsors were a select group of representatives from the University and the business community who contributed a great deal of their time to monitor, mentor, and train the students. Part of the students' work assignment was to attend a seminar on the first and third Friday afternoons of each month. Students were paid for the two hour sessions by their employers, but the students were required to attend developmental seminars at the University.

These Friday sessions were planned by the program sponsors and designed to supplement their high school curriculum and reinforce the need for study, hard work, and achievement. Each session consisted of an informal sharing of the students' work experiences with each other and the program sponsors. The informal "mentoring" sessions were followed by a more formal presentation by University faculty, business leaders, and other community experts. Programs were designed to develop and enhance student/employee skills and perspectives. Examples of program topics include public speaking, business etiquette, personality testing, and interview techniques. In addition, local executives and business owners were recruited to share their personal experiences with the students. This component of the program proved to be very rewarding for the program sponsors as well as the students.

Workplace supervisors also served as mentors. Each student was assigned a supervisor at the work site. The supervisors were required to regularly evaluate the students' performance in several categories: performance of assigned duties, timeliness, office deportment, and work habits. Students were given appropriate feedback on their job performance by their workplace supervisors, and any problems were addressed individually during or after the Friday program sessions.

An innovative program was implemented to provide educational financial assistance. All students, their employers, and parents were required to agree that 25% of the students' net earnings would be held in an escrow account with the Columbus State University Foundation. Individual account balances were maintained at all times, and all funds and earnings were to be held in escrow to be applied toward the students' tuition and fees upon college matriculation. In the event a student were to leave the program, whether by his own will or by mutual consent, all funds in the escrow account were payable upon request. Upon graduation from high school, escrow balances were available to be used at any post secondary institution. Although, the college did not volunteer to do so, students (or their parents) could legally demand distribution of their escrow accounts at any time.

Students who enrolled in business degree programs at Columbus State University were given priority in evaluation for federal grants and/or scholarships. The College of Business and the University administration committed to their FBE students that after the student's escrow balance was depleted, the student would be given every consideration possible to assure that funds were available for tuition throughout the degree program, as long as satisfactory progress was being made toward degree completion.

OUTCOME ANALYSIS

Over the years, practical considerations gave way to some of the loftier intentions, and as a result, some concessions were made that were not in full keeping with the initial objectives:

- gender bias
- age of participants

- "at risk" criteria
- time to administer the program.

Unexpectedly, the design of the program produced a gender bias. Students accepted to the FBE program are virtually forced to forego all after school extracurricular activities to accommodate their work schedules. Many male students reported a conflict with sports activities. For whatever reason, there are no males currently enrolled in the program. Of the sixteen program graduates, only two have been male.

The program was originally designed to accept entering high school freshmen so that four years of working and saving (25% of net earnings) could produce a significant contribution to college expenses. After encountering significant difficulty over the first three years, the steering committee chose to have students begin the program in their second year of high school. Delaying admission until the students had reached sophomore level was not merely expedient. The steering committee stated that it was essential to the continued viability of the program. Not only had it proven to be difficult to detect and assess "informed" interest in business careers in the entering freshmen group, but the committee encountered substantial reluctance from a number of employers who were not comfortable having students as young as 13 and 14 working in their businesses.

The earliest objectives emphasized the selection of “at risk” students. The term “at risk” merely referred to those students who were not necessarily the highest ranked students in their classes or students, who for other reasons, would have many opportunities to complete post secondary programs and gain entree into the business world. Once again, we found that in order to retain the support of the business community, the committee was forced to select students who did not meet the "at risk" criteria. We found that the "at risk" students whose needs were best served by our program, often lacked reliable transportation and adequate parental support to meet minimum employer requirements.

In seeking students who could thrive and/or excel in the corporate positions they were given, the committee began to limit the programs to students with very strong academic records. Having also experienced difficulty in finding students in this age group who had both definitive and realistic career plans, the committee began to accept students who, although expressing interest in business, had not fully committed to pursuing business degrees and/or enrolling in Columbus State University. These concessions seemed warranted given the age and maturity level of these students. The ultimate result, however, proved detrimental to the program’s mission.

The program has had no impact on the minority enrollment in the School of Business. FBE has produced sixteen graduates, only two of whom are enrolled at CSU. Of these, only one is currently indicating plans to become a business major. Although a full cost/benefit analysis could not be performed with current records, it is clear that the costs in terms of University resources and volunteer effort are enormously high relative to the number of students the program has been able to impact. During the first three years, 15 quarter hours teaching release time had been allocated to administer the program. Continued viability would require that the substantial administrative costs be spread over a larger group of students. Program growth was limited, however, due to the scarcity of employment placement opportunities for such young students. This limitation makes it highly unlikely that the program, as currently structured, could continue.

LESSONS LEARNED

Given the University's commitment to diversity in hiring and enrollment, every effort was made to continue the program in some form. However, in light of the outcomes outlined above, a critical assessment of the program was certainly warranted. Some involved parties argued that the program had been a failure and should be abandoned. Others argued that we should drop the employment opportunities and the college savings, and keep only the mentoring portion of the program. Of the many possibilities discussed, the most promising course of action was a modification of the program’s mission to focus on entering college freshmen rather than entering high school freshmen. This option would retain the mentoring and employment opportunities. There would obviously be no escrowed savings since the students would already be incurring college expenses.

The modified program is scheduled to begin this fall. Not all of the details are complete, but the program policies are being guided by a new mission:

> The Future Business Executives Program, sponsored by the Abbott Turner College of Business of Columbus State University, will seek to recruit and identify minority students entering Columbus State University who are willing to consider pursuing a business degree. Those students will be offered instructional assistance, career development opportunities, employment opportunities, and mentoring aimed at promoting their success as business professionals and executives. In so doing, the program simultaneously seeks to increase the minority enrollment in business degree programs at Columbus State University.

This mission may serve not only to improve the quality of the program, but also its acceptance by potential employers. Equally important is the fact that altering the population served could improve the compatibility of the program's mission with those of both the University and the College of Business.

FORCED COUNSEL: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF MANDATORY ADVISEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

Robert McConkie, Brigham Young University
wrm4@email.byu.edu
Charles Stowe, Sam Houston State University
fin_crs@shsu.edu

ABSTRACT

In late 1996, Sam Houston State University (Sam) began a program of forced academic advisement. Students could not register until the campus computer received notification that the student in question had been "advised." Students were given the name of their advisor (generally faculty members were assigned as the advisors). Most of the undergraduate students had to participate in this program of "Mandatory Advisement."

There were several reasons (or criteria) that the university used when identifying students who had to be advised. This study focuses on two of those criteria. The first was that a student had not yet taken any classes from Sam. This included students who were transferring to Sam from other colleges, and High School graduates who had yet to take any college course. The second were the students at Sam who had GPA's less then 2.50.

A priori, it was not obvious whether the students would appreciate their advising experience. Either group might be grateful that they had an advisor with whom to meet one-on-one. On the other hand, the time to receive the advisement and inability to register until it had occurred might generate resentment.

To gauge student feelings, the authors distributed a survey across campus in early 1997 (after improving upon a preliminary survey of late 1996). On a 1-to-5 scale from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree," students responded to whether they thought advisement should be voluntary rather than mandatory, whether they planned to follow the advice they received, etc. Over 500 surveys have been received and their data electronically recorded.

The relevance of the student's feelings comes from the university's desire to make the college experience a positive one for the student, and to know if its programs are working. For instance, suppose low GPA students are found to appreciate the advising process, and yet do not plan to follow the advice they received. Was their advisor polite? Did the advisor tell the student things he or she did not already know? Analysis of the data will help answer these questions.

Or, suppose the transfer students that have not yet completed courses at Sam feel advisement should be voluntary rather than mandatory. A finding like this might be reason to experiment with making advising voluntary for these kinds of students, particularly since they may already understand when and how to seek help.

In general, analysis of student feelings is likely to improve the advising process for the students, faculty and university.

THE TRANSFERABILITY OF LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES FROM BUSINESS TO EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Georgia M. Hale, Arkansas State University
gahale@cherokee.astate.edu
Roger D. Roderick, Arkansas State University
roderick@cherokee.astate.edu
George Foldesy, Arkansas State University
gfoldesy@pawnee.astate.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on leadership in higher education and is based on the premise that many of the challenges in planning, strategy, and day-to-day management in higher education demands more and improved leadership of the type found in business organizations. The purpose of this study is to examine lessons learned regarding leadership in business environments for their applicability to leadership in educational institutions.

Questions to be pursued are:

1. Are there differences in the roles which leaders play in business organizations vis-a-vis those which leaders play in educational institutions?

    a) If so:

        (1) What are those differences and what are the reasons for their existence?

        (2) How do those differences affect leadership selection, development, reward and effectiveness?

        (3) Should the two sets of roles be more closely aligned?

    b) If not:

        (1) Are there systematic differences in business organizations vis-a-vis educational institutions, leadership selection, development, reward and effectiveness?

        (2) Should the roles be more differentiated than they are now?

2. How can both the quantity and quality of leadership for educational institutions be improved?

The intended potential impact/interest of this paper emanates from the increased imperatives for change which exist in higher education and the leadership that is necessary to bring about such changes.