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STRUCTURING LEARNING ACTIVITIES FOR STUDENTS OVER THE AGE OF SIXTY: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION IN BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

The large, healthy group of baby boomers may seek additional education after they pass traditional retirement ages. Business faculty wishing to deliver educational programs to older citizens should not assume a learning process identical to that of young people. Instead, professors will need to tailor the learning environment to the particular ways older people learn. This paper reports on the results of interviews with 12 people over age 60. One pattern which emerged dealt with the respondents' ideas about the best ways to structure learning activities for older people. Business faculty faced with the task of delivering educational programs to the elderly may want to structure learning activities with these ideas in mind.

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

The age cohort born during the 15 years following World War II is large, with a birth rate greater than those which preceded and followed it. The leading edge of this big age cohort will soon reach traditional retirement ages. And these Baby Boomers are biologically younger than their parents and grandparents at the same chronological age. While their predecessors retired at 65 and died within five to 15 years, Baby Boomers can expect to live in good health for 20 to 30 years after retiring.

These days older people--those in their 60's, 70's, 80's, and 90's--strive to keep their minds and bodies active and alert as they age. Some need to remain in the workforce. To remain active and retrain for jobs, many will choose to participate in formal learning activities after retirement (Alexander, 1998).

Professors faced with delivering education to older learners apparently shouldn't assume that older and younger people learn the same way. Evidence exists that the most effective educational methods for youth do not work well for older learners (Bolton, 1990). What, then, is the best way to structure learning activities so that individuals 60 and older can obtain the most from them? The purpose of this qualitative study was, first, to examine this question for people who have passed their 60th birthdays, are physically and mentally healthy, and are younger biologically, psychologically, and socially than their predecessors. Second, I discuss the implications of the study for business educators. The data obtained and conclusions drawn may prove useful to business teachers needing to educate aging baby boomers.

I audio taped three, 90 minute interviews with 12 individuals over the age of 60 who fit the above criteria. The respondents included three people in each of four age groups: 60's, 70's, 80's, and 90's. After transcribing the tapes I analyzed the data for patterns and themes. See Alexander (1996) for a complete discussion of the methodology and biographies of the interviewees.

STRUCTURING LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Of the patterns which emerged, one concerned the respondents' ideas about the best ways to structure learning activities for older people and the most appropriate methods to use. Within this pattern 10 major themes arose. I discuss these themes below.

When they were young, the respondents did not view older people as learners in the same way they viewed themselves as learners. When Mrs. Nelson, age 65, was young she could not imagine older people as learners. She commented, "When I was in my 20s, I thought a 60 year old . . . person was pretty old. And maybe there wasn't even learning going on. I don't think that I was aware of the fact that they were probably learning something." At age 25, Mrs. Quadney, now 71, believed anyone over 40 was "over the hill" and "on the skids." She stated, "Poor feeble minded folk I mean I don't, I don't know what I thought all these people who were earning all these fabulous livings and taking care of me and all this stuff I don't know what I thought they were doing it certainly wasn't learning anything." And 84-year-old Margaret Fitzgerald recalled education classes she took 60 years earlier which also enrolled practicing teachers in their 50's and 60's. "We ignored them kind of," she stated. "I think the young ones are so intent on their own path that they are just unconscious of what's going on with the older people." Reverend Fitzgerald, also 84, stated that as a youth he believed learning was neither necessary nor possible for older people. "Older people don't go to school, they don't learn, and I think that was probably my reaction." At age 25, Mrs. Bridgman thought learning existed to prepare young people for jobs. She returned to college at age 47 for vocational purposes and the experience changed her mind about older learners. At age 84 she considered education valuable to acquire job skills and for entertainment.

Older people learn differently than younger counterparts. According to Father O'Brien, 78, although learning for both can occur through formal classes, for the latter learning occurs more often through reading books while the former learn more from their experiences. Mr. Groneski, 74, agreed and reasoned that demonstrations help the aged to learn where lectures or reading prove less effective. "We can't comprehend as, the written word as, good as we could when we were young." He proposed that the elderly needed to associate the new with the old in order to learn best while reading and listening worked best for youth because attempting to associate new with old material took too much effort. He also stated that "When I was 25 if we had something new, uh my dad would ask me to read the instructions first then show him how to do it." He now learned the way his father did 50 years earlier. Older people don't learn as quickly as younger ones, observed Mrs. Quadney. Mrs. Leach, 96, and Mr. Scribner, 96, agreed. "Uh our body has slowed down I imagine our brain has too," noted Mrs. Quadney. "It's hard for me to concentrate . . . you try to concentrate all of a sudden it's gone. And you feel kinda [*sic*] silly when you're holding a conversation and sometimes it leaves you what you're gonna [*sic*] say, you know." And Mr. Scribner mentioned that young children can learn one or more languages, often at the same time, quickly and effortlessly. "But . . . an old person never gets [language acquisition] just right. He can, learn it in a way but not very well." However, Mrs. Singer, 93, dissented. Older people are "the same people, just older. And I think they, they learn and respond and act, much the same as we have always done." But she found that as she aged she experienced difficulty retaining new material.

Older people do not want to work for a college degree. Mrs. Nelson thought most older people wouldn't want to complete the course work necessary to earn a bachelors or masters. In any event, her extended family kept her too busy. Although Mike Podolak, 66, knew two women who returned to college and earned degrees after retiring from business careers, he had no desire to attend classes himself. All three respondents in the 70 to 79 group agreed that although some older individuals might want to earn a college degree, they weren't interested. Mr. Groneski stated that "I always thought a degree was something that . . . enabled you to get a better job. Where, if I go to college at, 75 and then 76 I fall over dead that really hasn't done me much good." Mrs. Fitzgerald's said "I wouldn't have the pep enough to do a dissertation." Reverend Fitzgerald agreed and noted that people are not much interested in obtaining a degree unless it leads to a better job and he wasn't interested in another job. Mrs. Leach admitted that some older people yet have the drive to earn a college degree even though she did not. Mr. Scribner wondered about the value of a college degree. "You know it's surprising, how little some people know, that are supposed to be educated," he offered. Mrs. Singer might have worked on a degree when in her 60's, but not at 93. She estimated that death would overtake her before she could complete a college degree.

Older people would enjoy taking age segregated classes on a college campus. Mrs. Nelson stated "I rather enjoyed going over I just, like being around, Moraine State. I even like going out to the Tech School and seeing all the things, that these college kids are doing out there." Mrs. Quadney also liked attending college classes with younger, typically aged college students and would sign up again if not for mobility limitations. But she asserted that other over 60 would not want to mix with younger students. Father O'Brien, Mr. Groneski, and Reverend and Mrs. Fitzgerald concurred with the assertion that older people prefer learning situations with others their own age. Mr. Groneski noted that some 65 and older drivers taking a "55 Alive" safe driving program felt intimidated by younger participants 55 to 65 years old. Mrs. Fitzgerald commented, "I'd love to go back to college. It's a different atmosphere, more electric." But she said she couldn't keep up with the work, walk far, nor had transportation. Reverend Fitzgerald said, "I think one of the strengths . . . of Elderhostel is the fact that . . . one is with people of similar age." He also postulated that people don't take classes because "[any] native curiosity which they have was used up or subdued by the method of instruction when they were in school or in college." He cited the Elderhostel program as proof that older people can and do learn and that they will do so on a college campus in an academic setting. Mrs. Bridgman emphasized, "Now I'm sure there are people here that love all this higher education. I don't!" She held that younger students would just think old people stupid and dumb if they mixed together in a class. And Mrs. Leach also did not want to attend college with younger people. "I'd feel so inferior I don't think I'd, I'd learn very much." Mrs. Singer did not object to sitting in a class with younger people, but "they wouldn't be conscious of the fact that I was there. And I would feel that I couldn't keep up, with the younger people. I think oftentimes teenagers, don't really look at older people as being a person," she observed. Mr. Scribner also thought that while he could stand to attend classes with young college students, other elderly would not want to do so.

The ideal teacher for the elderly is older, patient, enthusiastic, and knows the material. The ideal teacher, according to Father O'Brien, was "an older person that you respect." Mr. Podolak's ideal teacher would be about 40 and would "Give you some sort of a, a, class you know wit [*sic*] a joke you know and dat's [*sic*] interesting too you know. It doesn't get boring you know." Mrs. Nelson's ideal teacher would understand the ways older students differ from younger and make allowances for these differences. In addition, this teacher can give quizzes, but not major exams. Mr. Groneski required expertise, patience, and compassion from his ideal teacher. Also, he or she must not be annoyed by repetitive questions and can explain material using several methods. Mrs. Fitzgerald's perfect teacher was bursting with enthusiasm, fascinated with the topic, and an expert in his or her field. Reverend Fitzgerald's ideal was "someone who is young in thought if not, not necessarily in years, who encourages people to participate in discussions and really thinks that he can learn something from the exchange, from teaching that course." Mr. Scribner's model teacher exhibited patience, repeated questions several times for the hard of hearing, and realized that older people often forget and have to be reminded. The best teacher for Mrs. Singer was patient and understanding. Her ideal did not presume prior knowledge of the topic and worked with her individually.

> Older learners want educators to organize the learning environment around their needs and interests. To structure teaching and learning for older citizens, Mr. and Mrs. Nelson, Mr. Groneski, and Mrs. Quadney would first determine their interests then choose a method most suitable for the topic. Mrs. Quadney would also ascertain the best source of materials to teach the topics and the most appropriate ways to use the materials. And Mr. Podolak organized his own learning environment. He purchased a home-repair book through the mail, one page at a time, and studied the pages as they arrived. He reflected that a class might help, especially if the teacher demonstrated the repair techniques. Mrs. Bridgman, Mrs. Leach, and Mr. Scribner agreed that teachers must first determine older learner's interests before designing instructional methods. "If you can see that they're not interested, don't waste their time, find something else that they are interested in," Mrs. Bridgman observed. Mr. Scribner stated "There's no use in trying to teach, somebody something that . . . he isn't interested in."

Older learners prefer educational activities which link new information to an existing knowledge base. Father O'Brien stated, "You build on, on what you've uh, accumulated during the years." Mrs. Fitzgerald would question older students to determine what they already know about a subject then build on their prior knowledge. Material which fits into prior knowledge is inherently easier to learn than unfamiliar data, she believed. Mrs. Bridgman agreed and also suggested that teachers attempt to tie new material to stored information. On the other hand, Father O'Brien admitted older learners could internalize new information for which they had no prior knowledge base. Mr. Podolak provided an example for he knew little about diet yet learned enough to control a diabetic condition. Mrs. Nelson and Mrs. Leach noted that while older women do not know how to care for their finances, they can learn this new material. "Well, a widow needs to know how to, take care of her, money," stated the latter.

Group discussion, lectures, reading, visual aids, and experience with the new material comprise appropriate teaching and learning methods for the aged. To teach older people Mrs. Nelson, Mr. Podolak, and Mrs. Fitzgerald would utilize lectures and small group discussions in a classroom context. The former especially liked group discussions, because they allowed people to share different perceptions of the same phenomena, and short lectures with an outline to follow along. Mr. Podolak also enjoyed interesting lectures, "And uh I tink [*sic*] [discussions are] very good too because each [person] got a different idea." Mr. Scribner liked the lecture because older people with visual and physical problems don't need to read or write when teachers lecture. Mrs. Quadney, however, would utilize a "question and answer" format over a "lecture only" one. And Reverend Fitzgerald observed that older people don't learn very well using the straight lecture method "where the professor comes and delivers his lecture and departs." Mrs. Fitzgerald found video tapes useful in teaching older people, but preferred live teachers. Mrs. Quadney also liked videos but Father O'Brien complained, "Aw [*sic*] you can learn from video tapes and things like that I'm sure. But it isn't the same as having a, a real teacher there," he commented. Visual aids combined with a limited amount of lecture worked best for Mr. Groneski. But older people need "to read that text book five or six times before they'd comprehend on what they're reading," he suggested. On the other hand, as an older person Mrs. Singer learned more from reading because she had the time to read slowly and review. As a young student in school, "I was always in a hurry," and didn't have time to understand the concepts. Mrs. Bridgman read to improve her mind. She watched television as well and discovered the educational channel useful as a learning tool. Older people learn more by doing, concluded Mrs. Leach. As an older person she learned things better because she has lived longer and seen more. Mr. Groneski and Father O'Brien agreed and the former stated, "Well I'm a firm believer that experience is the best teacher." Mr. Scribner concluded that "There's a, a high priced school, eh called the school of experience. It's very high priced but, you generally remember what you learnt [*sic*] there." Mrs. Leach observed that experiences gained from travel provide opportunities to learn. Reverend Fitzgerald argued that experiences gained outside the formal classroom provided learning opportunities. "I think there's a great deal to be learned outside classrooms by uh being alongside people in daily life." He offered the Peace Corps and his denomination's mission program as examples of this type of learning environment.

In an academic setting, older learners do not want to take exams. Testing made Mrs. Nelson nervous to the point where she could not think. She stated unequivocally, "I hate them." Mrs. Quadney and Reverend Fitzgerald also disliked taking tests. On the other hand, Mr. Groneski felt rather more neutral about exams. He recognized the need for some methods of evaluation, such as driver's tests. And though Mrs. Fitzgerald feared that she might not do well on an examination, she wanted the challenge exams offered. In contrast, Mr. Podolak did not mind the few tests he had experienced as an adult: the written and behind-the-wheel parts of the driver's licensing exams. "A lotta [*sic*] people get cold feet when they sit beside a patrolman you know and . . . and that didn't bother me at all."

People over the age of 60 learn complicated material best by reading instructions and/or from a demonstration. Reverend Fitzgerald would first read the instruction manual. Then he would ask an expert to walk him through the operation of the equipment. As a youth he might have skipped the instruction manual and learned through trial and error. Mr. Podolak also read instructions. He read the instructions for building birdhouses, built them, and memorized the dozens of dimensions peculiar to each bird species. When younger, he also skipped the instructions. Mr. Nelson read instructions more as he aged but complained that he had to refer to them each time he programmed his VCR. However, he remodeled his basement den by reading instructions and remembering them. Mrs. Quadney would first read the instructions. She believed young people learn to operate such machinery, VCRs for example, without them. Mr. Groneski would have read the instructions to something complex when he was younger. As an older person he needed someone to show him how to operate a VCR, for instance, and work with him until he learned it. Given a complex task to learn, Mrs. Fitzgerald would break it down into its component parts and rank order them. Mrs. Bridgman would want to read about it first, then "be by myself with it for a while, see what it did for me. And then I'd like to have someone teach me." Mr. Scribner would try to learn a little bit every day, using the instructions provided, until he mastered the subject. Mrs. Singer found learning from hearing and doing easier than from reading. Were she to set up a teaching-learning situation for something as complex as a computer, she would find a very patient teacher who would not presume prior knowledge and would allay her fears. Then the teacher "would have to sit beside me and say 'okay Virginia, now you put your hands here, and you first turn this button, and then you do this and have me do it while he's supervised me doing it." Father O'Brien also stated that in order to learn how to use something as complicated as a computer or VCR, he would ask someone to tell him what to do. And Mrs. Nelson said "Uh whereas before [when younger] I may have been able to read directions and figure it out but, now I seem to have to have someone show me."

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION IN BUSINESS

Many colleges and universities are fighting to keep enrollment up (Spiegler, 1998). To compensate for declining numbers of traditional-age students, business programs may want to recruit older people. But business faculty must structure learning activities for older people differently than for traditional-age students. Unlike youth, older learners do not want to earn a college degree. However, as humans live increasingly longer and the retirement age advances, people in their 60's and 70's may need to retrain for new jobs in business and want the degree as proof of new skills. Moreover, they have no objections to taking the retraining on college or university campuses but prefer that their classes contain people their own ages. They want older teachers who are patient, enthusiastic and know the material. The respondents suggested that faculty should assess their interests, then provide what they wanted to know. They also stressed that education for people 60 and over should build on prior knowledge, a position which agrees with traditional educational principles (Dewey, 1916/1966).

The interviewees mentioned group discussion, visual aids, lectures, and experience with the new material as appropriate for older learners. Business teachers are familiar with all of these methods and most professors use them. Faculty can provide experiences through cases, experiential exercises, and plant visits. However, faculty should be warned that their lectures must be interesting. Remember also that older learners do not like exams even when they realize exams are necessary in some situations. And last, printed instructions and demonstrations by others helped the aged to learn complicated material. In the classroom business teachers can utilize acetates to demonstrate procedures and concepts in a discipline.

In summary, learners over the age of 60 possess definite opinions about how educators should structure learning activities for them. Business teachers who wish to provide education to older people should attempt to utilize the information from them to create a learning environment which maximizes their learning potential.

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AN ATTITUDE STUDY ON INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS: A NEW ADAPTATION OF AN EXISTING ETHNOCENTRICITY SCALE

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the problem of ethnocentricism by U.S. undergraduate business students through the development of a suitable and reliable measurements attitude scale. The instrument is adapted from a landmark ethnocentrism scale developed by Adsorno, Frenkle-Brunswic, Else, Levinson, and Sanford, published in 1950. It is a self-reporting 6-item questionnaire made up of 22 psychographic questions relating to ethnocentrism. It contains both positive and negative questions and 6 demographic factors. The questions have six possible answers from strongly disagree to strongly agree with no neutral response. Forty undergraduate male and female business students of various ages were given a preliminary survey to assess the questions for clarity and meaning. One hundred usable responses were gathered from the revised instrument. Directions were printed on each questionnaire and explanations were given to the respondents as to the importance of the survey to further the understanding of international business. After developing the questionnaire and doing the preliminary study, the final assessment yielded a reliability of 75 alpha. The reliability finding compared favorably with past research using the original scale and subscale (Adorno et al. 1950). The study has provided the first step in the development of a useful measuring instrument with which to screen respondents in international business courses as to their ethnocentric bias. These results could be beneficial to instructors in the classroom. The questionnaire and reliability coefficients demonstrate that further research is merited. Most specifically, pragmatic validity assessment is needed. In addition, future studies could compare first and second year students with juniors and seniors, undergraduate with graduate students and numerous others based on demographic differences.

INTRODUCTION

As we approach the new century, international business is continuing to grow in importance. “Every American company is international, at least to the extent that its business performance is conditioned in part by events that occur abroad” (*Business Week*, May 23, 1994 p. 24). The emphasis placed on the global marketplace and economy in business schools is also increasing, as higher percentages of business students and graduates go abroad to study and to work for foreign (and U.S.) firms (*Time*, September 19, 1994). They are also more likely to work for American companies involved in some aspect of international business, as the volume and value of overall world trade has mushroomed in the last twenty years (World Economic and Social Survey 1997). These students' perceptions and pre-conceptions concerning such areas as foreign cultures, public policy affecting international business and international business education can affect their learning attitudes and abilities, and their competitiveness and effectiveness in the work force. Therefore, it would be beneficial to develop an ethnocentric scale in order to assess business student attitudes towards various aspects of global business.

ETHNOCENTRISM

The term ethnocentrism was first introduced and used descriptively by Summer (1906) and had the general meaning of cultural narrowness and a tendency in one to be rigid in his acceptance of the culturally "alike" and in the rejection of the "unlike" (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford 1950, p.102). One current international business text defines ethnocentricity as considering one's culture or society superior to all others (Ball and McCulloch 1996).

PURPOSE

The primary purpose of this study is the development of an ethnocentric attitude scale suitable for measuring business students' attitudes towards foreign cultures, public policy affecting international business, living and working abroad, and international business education, and to establish the instrument's reliability, thus providing the first step towards screening or measuring American business students' ethnocentrism and, where appropriate, addressing it in the business academic environment.

SCALE-DEVELOPMENT

There is no one correct approach to the development of psychological tests. Instead, it depends on the goal of the instrument (Aiken 1985). The goal of this instrument is to measure ethnocentrism. This instrument was derived from the "Ethnocentric Scale: Suggested Final Form" by Adorno, Levinson, Frendel-Brunswik, and Sanford published in their work, *The Authoritarian Personality* (1950). This landmark study in the development of social psychology (Smith 1950) used four Likert-type scales measuring anti-Semitism, ethnocentrism (focusing on American minorities and cultures), political and economic conservatism, and implicit anti-democratic trends (Roiser and Willig 1995).

The authors based their approach on earlier work in the 1920's from psychologists who "saw attitude as a measurable variable mediating the relationship between an attitudinal stimulus object and an individual's evaluative responsive" (Roiser and Willig 1995, p. 79). The scale measures (pseudo) patriotism in the context of international relations and prejudice against American ethnic minorities and cultural groups. The approach was intentionally global (Roiser and Willig 1995).

Their final instrument was developed using a series of earlier scales and subscales which demonstrated reliability levels ranging from .79 to .91. These forerunner scales were of various lengths and categories and were given to various random samples, including American psychology students (Ordorno et al.). The study reported no reliability tests on the final suggested scale, but the patterns of intercorrelations of the various subscale groups of the final scale obtained in a later study compared favorably to those reported in *The Authoritarian Personality* , suggesting reliability in the .80's (Christie and Garcia 1951). The final scale has been cited in over 1800 publications (Rubinstein 1995).

The “suggested final ethnocentrism scale” contained 20 negatively phrased questions in three separate subscales: A. Jews (6), B. Negroes (6), and C. other minorities and patriotism (8). (See Exhibit 1.)

The scale developed for this study was directly predicated on the 1950 instrument, which was adapted to reflect foreign cultures and updated to reflect 1990's issues. The updated instrument contains 22 questions, 8 of which were taken directly from the previous scale. Questions 16 and 12 were taken from questions 3 and 6 of subscale A. Questions 13 and 5 came from questions 2 and 4 of subscale B, and questions 6, 8, 4 and 1 came from questions 2, 3, 6 and 8 of subscale C. 8 questions were positively phrased and 13 questions were negatively phrased. The new instrument was not divided into subscales. In addition to the updating and adaptations stated above, there were minor changes in the wording of some questions. (See Exhibits 1 and 2.)

Fourteen additional questions were formulated. Questions 3, 9, 10, 11, 14, 18 and 20 were in the context of attitudes towards foreign cultures, continuing in the vein of the previous scale’s questions regarding Jews, Negroes, and other minorities. Questions 15, 17, and 19 measured attitudes toward public policy issues affecting the international business environment, and were in the vein of the previous study’s questions on the first type of (pseudo) patriotism,” imperialism,” while questions 2, 7 and 21 involved studying or working abroad and international business education, which related to questions from the second type of (pseudo) patriotism, “isolationism” (Ordorno et al., p. 147). (See Exhibits 1 and 2.)

METHODOLOGY

A survey of upper level undergraduate business students was determined to be the population for collecting primary data. Since the purpose of this research was to develop a scale suitable for measuring ethnocentrism in college business students, and assess its reliability, a sample based on researcher judgment and convenience was chosen The sampling frame was all business students at Athens State University. Although the sampling frame is not random in this research, it is appropriate in early descriptive research of an exploratory nature. This research and its findings are useful as a source of information that can contribute to the decision making process concerning the direction of future research.

A preliminary survey was administered to forty students so that the survey questions could be assessed for clarity and meaning. This survey led to the deletion of one question that did not lend itself well to a Likert-type scale since it was more appropriate to a dichotomous scale, a simple “yes” or “no”. After dropping this question, reliability of the scale was determined to be .77 using Cronbach’s alpha method of assessment. The revised survey instrument was administered to 121 business students of which 110 usable surveys were selected based on completeness and accuracy as directed.

The survey instrument was a self-reporting 6-item Likert-type questionnaire made up of twenty-two psychographic questions relating to ethnocentrism and six demographic questions. The demographic questions were useful in determining if demographic factors were also related to ethnocentric beliefs. The ethnocentrism questions had six possible answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree with no neutral answer. Directions were printed on each survey instrument and respondents were cautioned not to sign their name so as to protect their privacy. An explanation was included as to the importance of the survey to further the understanding of international business, and how valuable their opinions were in this research.

In order to develop a useful survey questionnaire, the goal of the instrument must first be determined. It was determined that this instrument would assess the level of ethnocentrism and be suitable as a screener to detect a strong ethnocentric bias. By following the procedures outlined by Churchill (1991) for questionnaire development and testing the instrument for reliability using Cronbach's (1946) alpha, a reliable questionnaire can be developed for use in inferential research when administered to a random sample. This study is therefore a necessary first step in this process. After developing the questionnaire and doing the preliminary study the final assessment of the 110 usable responses yielded a reliability of .75 alpha. (See exhibit 3 in Appendix) In this final administration of the survey instrument, a question was dropped during the analysis. This question , again was better suited for a dichotomous scale rather than a likert-type scale. Future studies may require additional purification of the scale, but no further changes are warranted at the present time. The reliability finding compared favorably with past research using the original scale and subscales (Adorno et al. 1950). Nunnally (1978) suggests that for scholarly research a reliability of .70 is necessary. However, although reliability is necessary for validity, it is not sufficient for validity (Peter, 1979). The logical next step in future research is the assessment of validity by the use of a larger sample taken randomly from the population or sub-population of college business students. By using a totally random sampling frame with a larger administration of the survey instrument will constitute an inferential study that can be used to make generalized assumptions concerning the ethnocentrism of college business students.

DISCUSSION

The primary goal of this study was to develop an instrument to measure ethnocentric attitudes of business students. Although confidence in a new scale cannot come from a single study (Faber and O'Guinn 1992), several factors provide initial positive support for this instrument.

First , the scale is based on a previous landmark study. This instrument is an updated adaptation which includes 8 questions derived directly from the earlier ethnocentrism scale and 14 questions derived indirectly therefrom.

Second, the instrument reliability coefficients from the survey were .75, which is higher than Nunnally's minimum standard.

In past literature, the development of a new or revised scale followed the standards outlined by Gilbert A. Churchill Jr. This procedure is known as Churchill's paradigm (1979). The following five steps outline this procedure: (1) Specify Domain of the Construct; (2) Generate Sample of Items; (3) Collect Data: (4) Purify Measure; and (5) Assess Validity. This study primarily focused on steps one through four of the process. Specifically, the development process that required eliminating items that seemed to create confusion among respondents and items that did not discriminate between subjects with fundamentally different positions of ethnocentricity. The basic method used to eliminate items is how each item goes together with the other items. If all the items are drawn from the same domain of the construct, ethnocentrism, all the items should be highly correlated. If they do not, then this is evidence some of the items were not drawn from this domain and are producing error and unreliability.

Reliability of the ethnocentricity scale was assessed using the most widely accepted method by scholars of business research. This method is Cronbach's alpha or coefficient alpha. This method has a direct relationship to the most accepted and conceptionally appealing measurement model, the Domain Sampling Model. This model holds that the purpose of any particular measurement is to estimate the score that would be obtained if all the items in the domain were used. This would be the errorless true score over the entire domain that a respondent would have. Since this was not possible, the use of coefficient alpha was by far the most appropriate method of assessment. Coefficient alpha provided a summary measure of the inter-correlations that existed among the items in the scale. "Coefficient alpha routinely should be calculated to assess the quality of measure. It is pregnant with meaning because the square root of coefficient alpha is the estimated correlation of the k-item test with errorless true scores." (Gilbert, 1991 p. 498)

If coefficient alpha is low it indicates some items are not part of the domain, in this case, the construct, ethnocentricity. The easiest way to find and eliminate these items is to calculate the correlation of each item with the total score and to plot these correlations by decreasing order of magnitude. Items that produce low reliabilities should be eliminated. (See Exhibit 3.) By following the before mentioned guidelines the scale was developed, refined and purified.

The preliminary survey's reliability assessment showed that one question, "The French tend to be rude by nature" unduly influenced the reliability level. It was the most blunt and blatantly ethnocentric question in the original scale and was better suited to a "yes" or "no" response. The question was dropped from the final instrument and the survey. In addition, the question " I would like to work and live in a foreign country at some point in my career" was also inappropriate for a Likert-type scale since it too tended to solicit a "yes" or "no" response and was dropped from the survey responses. No other administration of the survey was made after this assessment.

Since this study's primary goal was to develop a scale useful in measuring student's level of ethnocentricity, purification and refinement of the scale was appropriate at both the preliminary administration and the subsequent final administration. Other purification measures may be necessary as future research in this area progresses.

Future research is needed to assess the pragmatic validity of this new instrument. However, the favorable reliability analysis does indicate content validity. The scale does appear to be measuring ethnocentricity as developed. As in all psychographic research, construct validity may never be fully determined.

Also, this early effort does not indicate how much each scale question or item contributes, outside of these two survey administrations, whether they are all necessary, or whether this is the most predictable set of discriminating variables (Faber and O'Guinn). Future studies could compare first and second year students with juniors and seniors, undergraduate with graduate students, and any number of comparisons based on demographic differences. It could also be used for other segments of the population.

The development of this scale could eventually produce a device for screening respondents as to their ethnocentric bias. It will also be necessary in future research to use a more random sampling frame in order to infer causal relationships.

Ethnocentric attitudes by business students could possibly correlate to ethnocentric attitudes towards American ethnic minority cultures. That is, “people are notably consistent in acceptance or rejection of general ethnocentrism” (Ordorno et al. p. 145).

The continued movement towards international business and a global economy, along with contemporary public policy issues such as NAFTA, the IMF, and the WTO make it of practical interest that ethnocentric attitudes of business students be recognized by business instructors, as individual students, the learning environment, and the students’ success in the workplace could be affected by such attitudes. A greater understanding of the degree and level of ethnocentrism in business school students is needed, and the development of useful measuring instruments is an important first step.

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Exhibit 1: The Authoritarian Personality (Ordorno et al., p. 142)
ETHNOCENTRISM SCALE: SUGGESTED FINAL FORM

A. Jews
1. One trouble with Jewish businessmen is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition.
2. I can hardly imagine myself marrying a Jew.
3. There may be a few exceptions, but in general Jews are pretty much alike.
4. The trouble with letting Jews into a nice neighborhood is that gradually they give it a typical Jewish atmosphere.
5. To end prejudice against Jews, the first step is for the Jews to try sincerely to get rid of their harmful and irritating faults.
6. There is something different and strange about Jews: it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick.

B. Negroes
1. Negroes have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with whites.
2. It would be a mistake ever to have Negroes for foremen and leaders over whites.
3. Negro musicians may sometimes be as good as white musicians, but it is a mistake to have mixed Negro-white bands.
4. Manual labor and unskilled jobs seem to fit the Negro mentality and ability better than more skilled or responsible work.
5. The people who raise all the talk about putting Negroes on the same level as whites are mostly radical agitators trying to stir up conflicts.
6. Most Negroes would become overbearing and disagreeable if not kept in their place.

C. Other Minorities and Patriotism
1. Zootsuiters prove that when people of their type have too much money and freedom, they just take advantage and cause trouble.
2. The worst danger to real Americanism during the last 50 years has come from foreign ideas and agitators.
3. Now that a new world organization is set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.
4. Certain religious sects who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else be abolished.
5. Filipinos are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with white girls.
6. America may not be perfect, but the American Way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.

7. It is only natural and right for each person to think that his family is better than any other.
8. The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the secret of the atom bomb.

Exhibit 2: Ethnocentric Attitude Scale (J. Mark Anderson, 1998)

General instructions: Complete the questionnaire in the order presented. Please answer every question and be as honest as you can. Do not sign this survey. It is completely confidential and will be one of many taken. Do not complete this questionnaire if you have already done so in another class. Remember: there are no right or wrong questions. We are interested in your opinions. This study will contribute to increased understanding of American business students' world view.

Instructions: For each of the following statements, please indicate your agreement or disagreement using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6
STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE

_____1. The best guarantee of American interests is to protect American business and jobs from foreign competition
_____2. I would like to study abroad for a quarter or semester, if it were practical for me to do so.
_____3. Developing African countries have much to offer American business.
_____4. America may not be perfect, but the American Way has given us the best society in the world.
_____5. Skilled and very responsible work seems to fit the Mexican mentality and ability better than manual labor and unskilled jobs.
_____6. The worst danger to American business in the last 20 years has come from foreign counties and their unfair trading practices.
_____7. Though English is becoming the international language of business, American business majors should be required to learn a foreign language.
_____8. Now that international organizations like the World Court and regional trading groups like NAFTA have been set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.
_____9. The Japanese are good business people but, as history has shown, they can not be trusted.
____10. There should be more American values and less foreign values in our own country.
____11. In general, one is a lot safer traveling abroad than in America.
____12 There is something different and strange about the Chinese; it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick.
____13. If I had to work in a foreign country, I would prefer a foreign boss to an American.
____14. South America seems to be more interested in selling illegal drugs to America than legitimate trade.
____15. America should trade with foreign countries who trade with our enemies.
____16. There may be some exceptions, but in general Arabs are pretty much alike.
____17. America should never give "most favored trade status" to countries whose culture violates our laws and values.
____18. Canada's culture is pretty much the same as ours.
____19. America should contribute substantially to the International Monetary Fund to help bail out other countries who are in danger of defaulting on their loans.

____20. I believe in freedom of religion, but some of the Asian religions are pretty far out.
____21. An international business course should be an elective, but not necessarily a requirement in business schools.

Please Circle the Correct Category:

Level in School:	Junior	Senior	Graduate School Other	
Major:	Business	Other		
Age:	18-24	25-39	40-59	60 and over
Sex:	Male	Female		
Nationality:	American	Other		
Race/Ethnicity (if you are American):		African American	Caucasian	
		Asian American	Hispanic	
		Native American	Other	

Exhibit 3

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

N of Cases = 110.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	Variables
Ethnocentrism Scale	82.6636	166.9409	12.9206	21

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
VAR00001	78.1182	151.5731	.4041	.3695	.7367
VAR00002	78.4091	157.1430	.1603	.3338	.7551
VAR00003	78.9364	158.2436	.2031	.3486	.7498
VAR00004	77.8818	160.3621	.1627	.3681	.7518
VAR00005	78.4000	156.2239	.2522	.3667	.7467
VAR00006	78.6636	152.3537	.4320	.4136	.7360
VAR00007	78.1545	161.8933	.0895	.3653	.7572
VAR00009	78.0273	157.0176	.2067	.3907	.7501
VAR00010	79.6182	149.7978	.4723	.5155	.7324
VAR00011	77.9182	157.6354	.2157	.3189	.7491
VAR00012	79.1091	149.1623	.3732	.5003	.7378
VAR00013	79.2091	148.7540	.4266	.5984	.7341
VAR00014	78.8909	150.9238	.3112	.5463	.7429
VAR00015	79.1818	148.7923	.4067	.4434	.7354
VAR00016	79.4091	153.3632	.2408	.5618	.7489

VAR00017	79.6091	149.2862	.4154	.3963	.7350
VAR00018	78.2545	151.3108	.3693	.3151	.7385
VAR00019	78.2545	159.8245	.2210	.2982	.7484
VAR00020	79.3364	154.8675	.2141	.5898	.7508
VAR00021	79.0545	144.5842	.4997	.5006	.7275
VAR00022	78.8364	146.1014	.4056	.5110	.7348

Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Sum of Sq.	DF	Mean Square	Chi-square	Prob.
Between People	866.5026	109	7.9496		
Within People	4997.1429	2200	2.2714		
Between Measures	703.8909	20	35.1945	309.8891	.0000
Residual	4293.2519	2180	1.9694		
Total	5863.6455	2309	2.5395		
Grand Mean	3.9364				

Coefficient of Concordance W = .1200

Reliability Coefficients 21 items

Alpha = .7523 Standardized item alpha = .7542

FINANCE FACULTY--A PORTRAIT

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides the results of a questionnaire survey of finance faculty. The results describe finance educators' backgrounds, and their teaching and examination practices, and permit finance faculty to compare their own teaching and examination practices with those of their peers.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Questionnaires were sent to 295 finance faculty randomly selected from Hasselback (1995). 37 responses were received, a response rate of 13%. Respondents included:

RANK	NUMBER	PERCENT
Professor	17	45.9%
Associate Professor	15	40.5%
Assistant Professor	4	10.8%
Other	1	2.7%

Twenty-nine (78%) of the respondents are tenured.

SCHOOL SIZE (NUMBER OF STUDENTS)	NUMBER	PERCENT
Under 5000	6	16.2%
5 - 10,000	9	24.3%
10 - 20,000	11	29.7%
20 - 30,000	7	18.9%
Over 30,000	4	10.8%

HIGHEST DEGREE OFFERED	NUMBER	PERCENT
Doctoral	9	24.3%
Masters	17	45.9%
Bachelors	11	29.7%

It appears for finance faculty, professional certification is the exception and not the rule. Only 4 respondents, or 10% had obtained CFA certification.

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATION	NUMBER	PERCENT
CFA	4	10.8%
CFP	1	2.7%
CMA	1	2.7%
CPA	2	5.4%
Other	4	10.8%

REWARD STRUCTURE

Respondents were asked their perception of the percentage weight their institutional reward structure places on research, service, and teaching. For research, responses ranged from zero to 80 percent.

REWARD STRUCTURE PERCENTAGE WEIGHT PLACED ON:				
	RESEARCH		TEACHING	
PERCENTAGE WEIGHT	NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT
Less than 40%	14	37.8%	16	43.2%
40% to 50%	11	29.8%	13	35.2%
More than 50%	12	32.4%	8	21.6%

As might be expected, the percentage weight placed on service was substantially less than the weights placed on research and teaching. 60% of respondents stated that the weight was from 10% to 20%.

The percentage of the respondents' time allocated by them to the research, service and teaching activities differed substantially from the reward structure weights placed on those activities:

PERCENTAGE OF TIME ALLOCATED TO:				
	RESEARCH		TEACHING	
PERCENTAGE WEIGHT	NUMBER	PERCENT	NUMBER	PERCENT
Less than 40%	29*	78.3%	8	21.6%
40% to 50%	5	13.5%	13	35.1%
More than 50%	2	5.5%	15	40.5%
No Response	1	2.7%	1	2.7%

The percent of time respondents' allocate to service activities is somewhat greater than the reward structure percentage weight.

Two-thirds of the respondents believe that the reward structure at their institutions places 40% or more of the weight on research. Nevertheless, 80% of them allot *less* than 40% of their time to research. Conversely, while only 21% of the respondents believe that their institutions' reward structures place 50% or more of the weight on teaching, 41% allot more than 50% of their time to teaching activities.

Twenty-two respondents (63%) state that they are available to students for ten or fewer hours per week, outside the classroom.

HOURS AVAILABLE PER WEEK	NUMBER	PERCENT
Fewer than 5 hours	3	8.6%
5 - 10 hours	19	54.3%
10 - 20 hours	9	25.7%
More than 20 hours	4	11.4%
No Response	2	5.4%

Twenty-seven respondents (73%) have no research assistant, and 32 (87%) have no teaching assistant.

COURSES TAUGHT AND CLASS SIZE

The courses primarily taught by the respondents are Principles of Finance, Investments, Financial Analysis and Financial Institutions.

COURSES TAUGHT	NUMBER	PERCENT
Principles of Finance	16	43.2%
Investments	12	32.4%
Financial Analysis	8	21.6%
Financial Institutions	7	20.0%
Financial Planning and Control	5	13.5%
Insurance	4	10.8%
Money and Banking	4	10.8%
International Finance	7	18.9%
Other courses	7	18.9%

For their most frequently taught course, average class size is 30 or fewer students for 40% of the respondents, and 40 or fewer students for 67% of the respondents. For two respondents, the largest class size ranged from 70 to 180 students.

AVERAGE CLASS SIZE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Thirty or fewer students	15	40.5%
31 to 40 students	10	27.0%
More than 40 students	8	21.6%
No response	4	10.8%

TEACHING METHODS AND BASIS FOR COURSE GRADES

Lectures and problems are the dominant instructional methods used by respondents, but no one method totally predominates. Twenty-five respondents (68%) spend more than forty-percent of their class hours on lectures in their most frequently taught course. Nine of the respondents spend 25% or more of their class hours on problems. However, 84% of those responding spend 25% or less of their class hours on discussion. Twenty-one (68%) devote 10% or less of class hours to cases.

PERCENT CLASS	LECTURE		PROBLEMS		DISCUSSION		CASES	
TIME USED:	NR.	PCT.	NR.	PCT.	NR.	PCT.	NR.	PCT.
Less than 10%	1	2.7%	10	27.0%	11	29.7%	25	67.6%
10% to 25%	6	16.2%	16	43.2%	20	54.0%	5	13.5%
26% to 40%	3	8.1%	6	16.2%	2	5.4%	1	2.7%
More than 40%	25	67.5%	3	8.1%	2	5.4%	4	70.8%
No Response	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%

Examinations have been and continue to be the most commonly used basis for course grades. For their most frequently taught course, nearly 78% of the respondents base more than 40% of the course grade on written examinations. (Forty-one percent base more 60% of the grade on examinations.) Three-fourths or more of the respondents base 20% or less of the course grade on written papers, computer assignments, and group projects and assignments.

Percent of Grade:	EXAMS NR.	EXAMS PCT.	PAPERS NR.	PAPERS PCT.	COMPUTER ASSIGNMTS NR.	COMPUTER ASSIGNMTS PCT.	GROUP ASSIGNMTS NR.	GROUP ASSIGNMTS PCT.
0 - 20%	5	13.5%	19	51.4%	30	81.1%	25	67.6%
21 - 40%	1	2.7%	10	27.0%	3	8.1%	7	18.9%
41 - 60%	14	37.8%	3	8.1%	2	5.4%	3	8.1%
61 - 80%	8	21.6%	1	2.7%	0	0%	0	0%
81 - 100%	7	18.9%	2	5.4%	0	0%	0	0%
No response	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%

EXAMINATION POLICIES AND CONTENT

Eighteen (48%) give either three or four examinations in the course they teach most frequently. Despite some fears that examinations are becoming all-multiple choice, this is clearly not the case for this group of respondents. Multiple choice questions make up no more than 40% of the examination points, for nearly 68% of the respondents. Problems, on the other hand, make up more than 40% of the examination points for nearly 57% of the respondents. Essay questions account for 40% or fewer of examination points, for nearly 62% of the responding faculty.

NUMBER OF EXAMINATIONS	NUMBER	PERCENT
Zero	2	5.4%
One	2	5.4%
Two	9	24.3%
Three	13	31.5%
Four	5	13.5%
Five	4	10.8%
No response	2	5.4%

PERCENT OF EXAM GRADE BASED ON	MULTIPLE CHOICE NR.	PCT.	ESSAY NR.	PCT.	PROBLEMS NR.	PCT.
None	18	48.6%	11	29.7%	4	10.8%
1 - 20%	4	10.8%	8	21.6%	5	13.5%
21 - 40%	3	8.1%	4	10.8%	4	10.8%
41 - 60%	3	8.1%	6	16.2%	12	32.4%
61 - 80%	3	8.1%	2	5.4%	3	8.1%
81 - 99%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	4	10.8%
100%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	2	5.4%
No response	2	5.4%	2	5.4%	3	8.1%

CONCLUSION

Based on responses to this survey, finance faculty are a diverse group, and a teaching and student-oriented group. Half of those responding devote more than half of their time to teaching activities. Nearly 40% are available to students outside the classroom for ten or more hours per week. Average class sizes are forty or fewer students for 67% of those responding. Lectures and problems are the predominant teaching methods, and problems account for the largest percentage of examination points.

COURSE REDESIGN TO MAXIMIZE STUDENT AUTONOMY: THE IMPACT ON CURRICULA CHARACTERISTICS, AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES, SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AND COURSE OBJECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed the efficacy of course redesign efforts intent on maximizing student autonomy. Data were collected on core curricula characteristics, critical psychological states, affective student outcomes, student skills development, and course objectives. Results indicated that the course was well designed, stimulated critical psychological states, generated high levels of student satisfaction and motivation, helped develop critical skills, would be useful to students' careers, and attained a high level of achievement for the class objectives.

INTRODUCTION

A unique opportunity during the First Summer Session of 1998 afforded considerable discretion in the design and delivery of an Organizational Behavior class. Specifically, with an enrollment of less than ten students, the course could be taught as an independent study, a seminar, a traditional lecture/discussion format, or any combination thereof. With the Department Chair's consent, the course was redesigned to reflect an extremely open architecture maximizing student autonomy. To assess the efficacy of the redesign efforts the core curricula characteristics, affective student outcomes, student skills development, and course objectives were analyzed. This technical report presents the results of the study conducted during the First Summer Session of 1998 to assess the MGT377.002 curricula. The report presents and overview of the relevant literature, a description of the research methodology, a graphic presentation of results, and a discussion of the findings.

BACKGROUND

The background for this study includes the nature of the course, requisite student skills, and task design methods.

Organizational Behavior

From the University's General Bulletin, the course is described as: "The study of human behavior in organizational settings; the interface between human behavior and the organization; structure and process of the organization itself." Since the prerequisites for the course require only Junior standing, it is a popular elective for forestry, human sciences, hospitality and criminal justice majors.

Department teaching objectives for the course include: Understand theories, tools, and insights found in the field of Organizational Behavior; Analyze theories in light of their practical application in an organizational setting; Show understanding of how knowledge is advanced in Organizational Behavior as a behavioral science; Demonstrate the ability to articulate present or past organizational experiences that bear on topics addressed in class and in the text; Demonstrate familiarity with international aspects of Organizational Behavior.

The redesigned course syllabus presented the aforementioned objectives and further explained that the course would survey the major aspects of human behavior in organizations, as well as the roles and responsibilities of managers. The intent of the course was described as a three pronged approach to help students develop an understanding of organizational behavior concepts, refine this knowledge by the analysis of relevant practices, and apply what was learned to "real world" situations.

In lieu of the traditional lecture/discussion/experiential sessions, this course was designed to maximize student discretion. Students were required to meet as a class on only one of the five scheduled weekly class periods. The Professor was, however, on call during all five class periods (and greatly extended office hours) to confer with students. The weekly meeting typically started with the collection of students' learning assessment exercises, then addressed specific points of difficulty encountered with the assigned material not clarified in one-on-one conferences, next came an overview of the forthcoming text assignment, and finally a discussion of team project progress.

"Learning assessment" exercises were substituted for in-class examinations. The learning assessments were completed outside of class and constituted approximately forty essay questions per week per student drawn from the discussion questions at the end of the assigned text chapters. The learning assessments were graded and available for pickup by the students within forty eight hours.

In addition, students had the opportunity to thoroughly explore aspects of interest through a team-based project. The three teams of three students each were responsible for one team presentation of 40 to 60 minutes on their chosen topic. While the presentation format was at the discretion of the team, the content was required to focus on a topic of current relevance to organizational behavior. The content of the presentation was assessed in terms of its management significance, practical relevance, completeness of coverage, and adequacy of information. The style of the presentation was judged in terms of its organization, professionalism, clarity, appropriateness, and effectiveness. Although no written report was required to accompany the presentation, students were to have available for inspection a copy of any material used to develop the presentation.

Skills Development

Project-oriented courses help develop student skills by requiring a practical application of theoretical concepts learned in the classroom (Ater & Coulter, 1980). The process of integrating theory and practice under "real world" conditions appears to enhance students' technical and interpersonal skills (Lawrence, 1990). To assess the effectiveness of SBI programs in developing desirable workplace skills Hoffman, Fontenot and Viswanathan (1990) constructed a skills/usefulness scale to measure student perceptions of skills and knowledge acquired in the SBI class for quantitative versus non-quantitative student majors. A modified version of this instrument was later used by Fontenot, Haarhues and Hoffman (1991) to compare the skills and knowledge acquired in SBI courses and Business Policy courses. In absolute terms, both courses were perceived as useful in developing analytical skills, interpersonal skills, operational skills, and career usefulness. Continuing this stream of investigation, Watts and Jackson (1994) studied the value of combining SBI and Policy into a singular curriculum. Their results suggested that the combined format met or exceeded the outcomes of the traditional Policy course.

Task Design

The challenge faced by the Professor is how to best configure course activities to maximize student related outcomes. Conceptually, configuring course activities is similar to designing jobs for enhanced performance. Research suggests that job analysis and design techniques developed for work environments can be used successfully in an educational setting (Watts & Hudnall, 1991; Watts, 1992; Watts & Jackson, 1994; Watts & Jackson, 1995).

The Job Characteristics Theory is a comprehensive framework of task design processes developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976; 1980). The Job Characteristics Theory is an outgrowth of Job Enrichment and seeks to explain how work can be redesigned so as to intrinsically motivate employees. It is in this intrinsic motivational construct that Job Characteristics Theory is believed to be appropriate in the redesign of course work for the typically self-motivated non-traditional learner. At the center of the theory are three critical psychological states. These states are seen as primary determinants of personal and work outcomes. That is, to the extent there is experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of results, there should be high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high job satisfaction, low absenteeism and low turnover. The rise of these critical psychological states is, in turn, predicated on the presence of five core job characteristics. The theory further recognizes the moderating role of individual differences by including individual growth need strength.

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) translates the Job Characteristics model into a practical tool for diagnosing jobs before re-design and then evaluating the effects of the re-design effort. The JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) measures perceptions of core job characteristics, critical psychological states, growth need strength, internal work motivation and job satisfaction. The JDS is a refinement of the earlier Yale Job Inventory (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), and was designed specifically to measure each of the variables in the Job Characteristics model.

METHOD

The subject population for this study included nine junior and senior level undergraduate students enrolled in one section of undergraduate Organizational Behavior during the First Summer Session of 1998. The six females and three males in the class had a cumulative grade point average of 2.16 on a four point scale. The rather low grade point average for the students in this class reflects not so much the inherent abilities of the students, but rather the results of being non-traditional students attempting to balance the demands of job, family and formal education. The non-traditional student is becoming an important constituent of many campus populations and even at a residence school there are increasing demands for service from this frequently under served population. As will be seen in a later section of this paper, new pedagogical approaches, reflecting the serious time constraints of the non-traditional student can be effective. The respondent population included five females and two males with a cumulative grade point average of 2.2. The nonrespondents included one female and one male with a cumulative grade point average of 2.05.

The JDS was used to collect perceptions of core job characteristics, critical psychological states, growth need strength, internal work motivation and job satisfaction. Only minor changes in the wording of the JDS were made to adapt the instrument to the classroom setting. The skills/usefulness instrument used by Fontenot, et al. (1991) was administered to collect perceptions of skills and knowledge acquired in the classes. Minor changes in the wording of the questionnaire were made to adapt the instrument to the research setting, and a seven point scale was used to maintain consistency with the JDS. A seven point scale was used to assess how much progress students thought they had made in achieving the five course objectives.

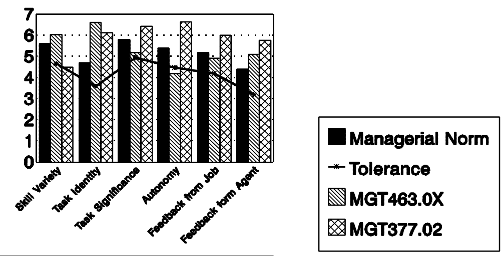
To capture the influences of course related activities, the instrument was administered on the last day of class. Participation was voluntary with no rewards or inducements offered. The professor announced in class that they had been asked to participate in an important study and administered the questionnaire.

As prescribed by Hackman and Oldham (1980), the JDS scores were compared with norms calculated by Oldham, Hackman and Stepina (1979). No significant difference is indicated if the scores fall within approximately one standard deviation of the normative mean. If, however, the scores are two or more standard deviations from the norm a significant difference is indicated suggesting action to remedy the discrepancy is appropriate. Of the job families presented by Oldham, Hackman and Stepina (1979), the managerial classification was deemed the most suitable for comparative purposes. The same prescription for analysis was applied to the skills development/career usefulness scores. These scores were compared to Policy student norms reported by Watts and Jackson (1994). A copy of the test instrument is available from the senior author.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for all variables are depicted in Table 1. The following six figures present graphically the results of the aforementioned comparative analyses. With respect to Core Job Characteristics (Figure 1), the MGT377 curricula consistently exceeded managerial norms and MGT463 norms for task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, and feedback from the agent. Skill variety was lower than the managerial and MGT463 norms. This is reasonable considering that instructional methodologies were truncated in favor of autonomy and parsimony.

Summer I 1998
Core Job Characteristics



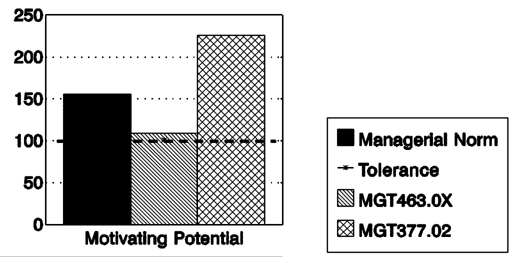
Managerial Norm	5.6	4.7	5.8	5.4	5.2	4.4
S.D.	0.94	1.1	0.85	0.92	1	1.2
Tolerance	4.66	3.6	4.95	4.48	4.2	3.2
MGT463.0X	6.04	6.61	5.19	4.21	4.92	5.11
MGT377.02	4.5	6.14	6.42	6.64	6	5.78

Source: Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

TABLE 1
MEASURED VARIABLES

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max
SKILL	7	4.500000	0.957427	3.0	6.0
IDENTITY	7	6.142857	1.180194	4.0	7.0
SIGNIFIC	7	6.428571	0.534522	6.0	7.0
AUTONOMY	7	6.642857	0.377964	6.0	7.0
FEEDBACK	7	6.000000	0.645497	5.0	7.0
MPS	7	226.244048	25.641565	178.7	252.0
MEANING	7	5.928571	1.239239	4.0	7.0
RESPONS	7	6.214286	0.487950	5.7	7.0
KNOWLED	7	5.928571	0.534522	5.0	6.5
GENSAT	7	6.238095	0.686221	5.0	7.0
WORKMOT	7	5.428571	0.812843	4.5	6.7
GROWTHN	7	5.357143	1.241372	3.8	7.0
ANALYTSK	7	5.500000	1.040833	3.6	7.0
INTERPSK	7	5.178571	1.359490	3.2	7.0
OPERATSK	7	4.678571	1.161126	3.5	7.0
CAREERUS	7	6.500000	0.569275	5.6	7.0
FEEDBKAG	7	5.785714	1.035098	4.0	7.0
UNDERSTD	7	6.142857	0.377964	6.0	7.0
ANALYZE	7	5.428571	0.534522	5.0	6.0
KNOWADVD	7	5.428571	0.786796	4.0	6.0
DESCRIBE	7	6.142857	0.690066	5.0	7.0
INTERNTL	7	5.571429	0.786796	4.0	6.0

Summer I 1998
Motivating Potential Score

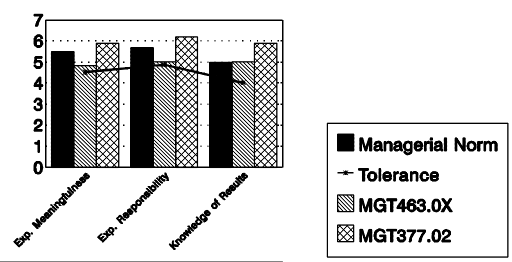


Managerial Norm	156
S.D.	55
Tolerance	101
MGT463.0X	109.03
MGT377.02	226.24

Source: Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

As to Experienced Psychological States (Figure 2), experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results far exceeded managerial norms and MGT463 norms. For Affective Outcomes (Figure 3), MGT377 closely replicated the norms for internal work motivation and exceeded the norms for general satisfaction. Understandably, the Motivating Potential Scores, as shown on Figure 4, far exceeded both managerial and MGT463 norms.

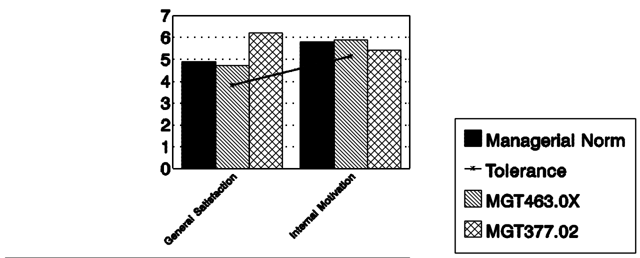
Summer I 1998
Experienced Psychological States



Managerial Norm	5.5	5.7	5
S.D.	0.96	0.81	0.97
Tolerance	4.54	4.89	4.03
MGT463.0X	4.83	5.02	5.04
MGT377.02	5.92	6.21	5.92

Source: Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Summer I 1998
Affective Outcomes

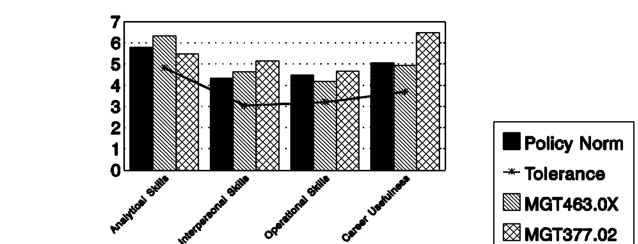


Managerial Norm	4.9	5.8
S.D.	1.06	0.64
Tolerance	3.84	5.16
MGT463.0X	4.73	5.89
MGT377.02	6.23	5.42

Source: Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

In terms of Skills Development/Career Usefulness (Figure 5), MGT377 exceeded, or mirrored, Policy norms and MGT463 norms in analytical skills, interpersonal skills, operational skills, and career usefulness.

Summer I 1998
Skills Development/Career Usefulness

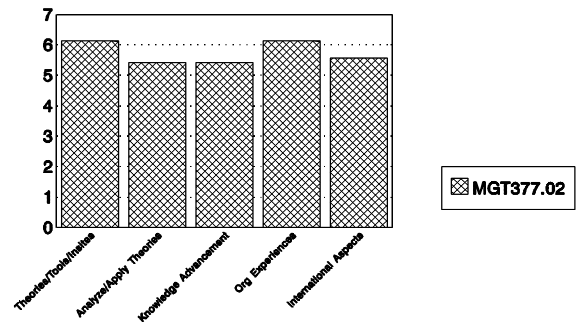


Policy Norm	5.8	4.35	4.49	5.06
S.D.	0.96	1.29	1.27	1.35
Tolerance	4.84	3.06	3.22	3.71
MGT463.0X	6.34	4.66	4.21	4.96
MGT377.02	5.5	5.17	4.67	6.5

Source: Watts, L. R. & Jackson, W. T. (1994). The SBI program and student outcomes: A study of business policy classes. Journal of Small Business Strategy, 6(1), 93-103.

As shown in Figure 6, students uniformly indicated a high level of personal achievement with respect to the class objective of: Understand theories, tools, and insights found in the field of Organizational Behavior; Analyze theories in light of their practical application in an organizational setting; Show understanding of how knowledge is advanced in Organizational Behavior as a behavioral science; Demonstrate the ability to articulate present or past organizational experiences that bear on topics addressed in class and in the text; Demonstrate familiarity with international aspects of Organizational Behavior.

Summer I 1998
Course Objectives



MGT377.02	6.14	5.42	5.42	6.14	5.57
S.D.	0.377	0.53	0.78	0.69	0.78

CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicate that the MGT377.002 curricula was well designed and produced desirable student outcomes. The similarity of its core curricula characteristics with managerial norms for skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, and feedback from agents indicates that the course replicated the managerial work context. Furthermore, the high levels of experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility and knowledge of results indicates the curricula successfully stimulated critical psychological states. The outcome affects of the curricula also generated high levels of student satisfaction and motivation. Additional measures of outcome affect indicated that students believed the course helped develop analytical skills, interpersonal skills, operational skills and would be useful in their careers. Other measures of outcome affect indicated that the students uniformly attained a high level of achievement with respect to articulated class objectives.

With the apparent success of the curricula it is tempting to interpret the design as broadly applicable. However, the context was somewhat unique and the students were not "typical." Much like being hung in the morning serves wonderfully to focus one's attention, a five week session allows slight opportunity to meander. The class was also more mature and more experienced than our typical student population; two had military experience, four were married, all had full time work experience, and all were currently working at least part-time.

Within aforementioned boundaries, it would seem that the experience holds promise for the design of non-traditional classes. First, the course design would appear to be directly applicable to executive degree programs. Their course schedule is typically condensed, and the "students" are mature experienced adults. Beyond this, the approach would also seem applicable for learning partnership arrangements with businesses that provide off-campus classes. It is appropriate to note that one of the common criticisms one hears about distance education is the loss that students presumably suffer from not having immediate, close contact with a "live" instructor (Jones, 1998). As a rejoinder to this common platitude, it should be noted that this course design, with only 20% "normal contact," yielded striking results in terms of satisfaction and overall learning.

A major concern that needs to be considered prior to initiating this type of course design is the impact on faculty. While the design was workable with only nine students, administrative pressures to increase class size would rapidly overwhelm individual capacity to teach such a class. As a rough guideline to maximum upper class size, it is reasonable to assume that the same constraints on size that one sees with World Wide Web (WWW) classes probably apply here. Twenty five students is the maximum that one instructor can reasonably handle without special accommodation for WWW classes according to Vickey Philips (personal communications, July 1998). Thus it is reasonable to assume that twenty five is probably a good upper bound on enrollment for this type of class.

In conclusion, the opportunity to design and execute a class that maximized student discretion was a challenging and fulfilling experience. Particularly gratifying was the realization that for a small group of students the Organizational Behavior class was singularly meaningful, stimulating, satisfying, motivational, developmental, useful and efficacious.

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EMPOWERING TEAMS TO PROMOTE CHANGE: THE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGE

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ABSTRACT

Empowered employee teams are frequently used in both education and business arenas to improve quality and facilitate organizational change. However, teams do not always achieve their goals due to a lack of preparation/training and leadership support. The purpose of this paper is to discuss four effective leadership strategies for empowered teams. Vignettes of the experiences and outcomes of two organizations' use of empowered employee teams are also included.

INTRODUCTION

Two topics of interest today in education and business are quality management and organizational change. Quality management can be defined as meeting or exceeding customers' needs or expectations, and organizational change is the adoption of a new idea. A common link between these two topics is empowered employee teams as they are frequently used to achieve or accomplish change and improve quality. Deming (1982), for example, emphasizes the use of employee empowerment and teamwork to improve quality, and Thompson (1982) states that quality is solving problems through teamwork and improving channels of communication. In addition, Coovert and McNelis (1992) believe quality management is small empowered teams discussing, analyzing, and proposing solutions for problems.

Quality teams are also called upon to improve public services (Osborne & Gaebler, l992), including education. The American Association of School Administrators (1992, p. 3) states in their handbook on quality schools: "Total quality management is a philosophy and a set of principles that uses leadership, quantitative methods, systems thinking, and empowerment to improve continuously an organization's capacity to meet current and future customer's needs."

Organizational change is another topic where the use of empowered employee teams is being emphasized. As the world becomes more complex, the need for change within organizations continues to grow. The utilization of empowered teams is one way to focus attention on both the creation and the implementation of new ideas (Daft, 1998).

Although teams have helped generate quality services and change outcomes, they do not always achieve their goals. Teams fail when they are asked to perform with little or no preparation or training. In these circumstances, the opportunity for gain as well as the financial resources that were allocated to the activity are lost. Costs of team meetings alone (the salary of each group member multiplied times the hours spent) can amount to a large sum. Another reason teams fail is a lack of leadership support (Beck & Yager, l993). Leaders are often the invisible force which facilitate or undermine a team's efforts (Semler, 1989). Hence, the linkage between teams and leadership is an important study area. The purpose of this paper is to discuss effective leadership strategies for empowered teams.

LEADERSHIP

For purposes of this manuscript, leadership is defined as the ability to help move an organization to a higher level. Bennis and Naanus (1985) state that leaders are people who do the right thing, whereas managers are people who do things right. Covey (1997) describes a quality leader as an individual who manages time, prioritizes goals, leads through example, and inspires others to perform at skill levels beyond the limits of their job descriptions. The thesis of this paper is that teams within organizations need leaders to inspire them, mentor them, and coach them (Geber, l992). Without this support it is difficult for teams to be successful in moving their organizations to a higher level. Roger Smith, a former CEO of General Motors, described the frustration of adapting his leadership style to promote team efforts:

Working through the corporation for 40 years under the autocratic system was a lot easier, particularly when you wanted something done quickly and you are convinced you knew the right way to do it. It is a lot easier to say, "Okay, boys we're going to Chicago tomorrow," rather than sit down and say, "All right, first of all, do we want to go out of town? And where do we want to go--east or west? And if we're going west, which of seven cities do we go to?" And we finally narrow it down and go to Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and I really didn't want to go there. I spend a lot of time working at participative management. But I have to be honest and say that I think we get better decisions out of it. (Business Month, October, l989, p. 78).

Many supervisors may lack the training or necessary experience to provide effective leadership of working teams (Klein, l984). Organizational consultants estimate that for every 100 organizations which move to a team-based approach, approximately fifty percent fail (Fisher, 1993). Attributing to the success or failure of a team-based approach is management commitment to the change process and impatience with the teaming process.

Over the past four years, the Building Effective and Successful Teams Project (BEST) has provided self-directed training to educational organizations in the Northwest. Over 100 teams have completed the training. Further support has been provided to supervisors within these programs to assist them in the transition from management to leadership of teams. Through this work, extensive qualitative data and some quantitative data on the characteristics of leaders who have achieved positive results in their organization through effective teaming have been gathered. As a result, several key points associated with successful leadership of empowered teams are presented below.

Strategy One: Assist Teams in Recognizing Change as a Constant. Although the future is uncertain, the last decade has taught the lesson that the only thing we can depend upon is change. Tom Peters (1992) describes the future as a "constant white water" in which decisions must be made and innovation implemented. Educational and business organizations are in a constant process of reform and transition in response to new research, evolving best practice, and consumer needs. Leaders are now being called upon to support their employees or teaching staff rather than direct them. As such, leaders of teams need to act more like facilitators who coach and train rather than traditional hierarchical managers who plan, organize, and control. A team approach is the natural vehicle for applying such skills.

Strategy Two: Empower Teams through Resources, Information, and Training. "The idea of liberation and empowerment of the work force (as self-directed work teams) is not enlightenment - it's a competitive necessity" (Renesch, l991, p. 42). Empowerment is the function of four variables including authority, resources, information, and acceptability. To feel empowered, teams need (a) formal authority, (b) resources such as budget, time, equipment, and (c) training to accomplish their task. In addition, they need timely, accurate information to make good decisions (Fisher, l993). When leaders tell teams to make recommendations or decisions without providing access to critical information, time to meet, and the necessary training, a prescription for failure exists. When these resources and information are available, the leader sends the message that empowerment is real.

Strategy Three: Maintain a Vision-Driven Direction. The work of teams must be closely correlated with the vision and long-term goals of the organization. For example, when the mission of the organization can be better accomplished through decentralized service delivery, leadership can promote independence of work groups in varying locations. As the teams work towards achieving the vision of the organization, the need to address customer needs is also relevant. The needs of internal (employees) and external (customers) consumers often emerge as a topic that the team is best suited to explore.

A secondary effect of maintaining a vision-driven direction is the clarification of the vision among staff/employees. Heifetz (1993) discusses the change cycle as a series of stages. During the stage where teams set goals, Heifetz believes the vision is clarified based on what success will look like. Teams who envision success can then be more committed to the use of resources and time in achieving goals that make the mission a reality.

Strategy Four: Model Teamwork at the Management Level. Practice what we preach is an old adage. Administrators may find an effective tool for creating change in their organization's central office is through the creation of work teams. Relevant to the central office, teams can be formed to examine the workflow, consider current consumer needs, and discuss issues relating to overall organizational culture. The CEO of Johnsonville Foods expressed his feelings regarding teamwork when he reported: "When I started this business of teams, I was anxious to get it done and get back to my real job. Then I realized that, hey, this is my real job" (Dumaine, 1990, p. 60).

The strategies presented above are the result of four years of close contact with administrators who implemented change through empowering teams. The following two vignettes describing the experiences and outcomes of two organizations depict the day to day implementation of success through work teams.

Organization A is an educational organization employing nearly 100 staff. It serves a county adjacent to a large metropolitan area in the northwest where several small communities with varying consumer concerns have been incorporated. One staff concern was a lack of communication between central office and the local settings. Staff felt decisions were made which were inconsistent with the strengths or issues facing their individual communities. The flow of information from central office to local sites and back again was also an issue.

In response to these concerns, the administrator effectively used strategies two and four: (2) empower teams through resources, information, and training and (4) model teamwork at the management level. The primary goal of team development was to empower teams to be independent of the central office and to provide services that were responsive to the customers in various communities across the county. To do this, the administrator (a) initially provided resources to train teams on skills corresponding with independent decision making, (b) further empowered teams by increasing the flow of information to the local level, and (c) finally gave responsibility for decision making in particular areas to teams at the local level. In addition to providing the support for service teams at local settings, the administrator engaged in team development at the management level. The major outcome was that central office services changed from being fragmented to being highly integrated and responsive to the needs of their internal customers, the staff at the local sites.

Organization B is a large educational organization serving a tri-county area. The major concern facing this organization was a lack of cooperation among professionals who formed the service delivery teams. Poor team interactions were impacting the quality of service delivery. In response to this concern, the administrator effectively utilized strategies one and three: (1) assist teams in recognizing change as a constant and (3) maintain a vision-driven direction. First, the administrator met with all teams to (a) reviews the mission and goals of the organization, (b) remind the staff of the constancy of change, and (c) discuss the ongoing need for continuous improvement. Inherent to the organization's mission was the delivery of quality services to children and families through cooperative teaming. Hence, the administrator and the staff together discussed the necessary qualities of service delivery teams that would exemplify this mission. If teams felt their work was not consistent with these qualities, they were asked to consider team training. In addition, teams were asked to volunteer to engage in continuous improvement steps towards the mission and goals. In the first year, two teams volunteered to participate in team development training, and the improvements they made were shared with the entire organization. In the second year, other teams completed team development training, partially in response to the progress made by the initial teams.

In conclusion, these administrators experienced the positive application of team development and team decision making as a result of their effective leadership. Empowered teams at each organization improved services and increased communication among all staff. Overall the culture of the organization changed. To paraphrase the words of one administrator: "There is a sense of purpose now which permeates the entire culture of our organization. Teams now use best practice strategies in decision making and conducting effective meeting. Staff view change as an ongoing process and they feel empowered to adapt at the individual team level. There is a change that is visible and it releases energy throughout the organization."

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ARE BUSINESS DECISION MAKERS STILL UNETHICAL ESPECIALLY COMPARED WITH ONESELF?

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates the perceptions held by others of the ethics of business decision makers. Undergraduate business students, studying to be business leaders/decision makers, and MBA's most of whom are business decision makers were surveyed in 1988-1989 and again the students in similar classes during 1996-1998. The undergraduates in the latter study seem to see business decision makers as more ethical than did the undergraduates in the earlier study though the 1996-1998 undergraduates themselves appear to express less ethical choices for themselves. There was not much change in MBA perceptions either in what the decision maker would do or what MBA's would themselves do. There were more similarities in the 1996-1998 study in perception of what the decision maker in the scenario would do with what the respondent felt he/she would do if he/she were the decision maker. Yet, perceptions of the respondents in the earlier study and now are that business decision makers for the most part are an unethical lot especially compared with oneself. There is a critical need for an alignment to the degree that incorrectly held negative perceptions of ethical behavior of others may encourage others to be less ethical as well as serving as the basis for distrust of ones colleagues and others.

THE ETHICAL SETTING

Business schools have responded to the business environment of the 70's, 80's, and 90's with textbooks, courses, and scholarly articles on ethics (Hosmer, 1988; Sims & Sims, 1991). The International Association for Management Education, the major accreditation body for business schools, has brought increasing pressure on business schools to cover ethics in the common body of knowledge (AACSB, 1980; Evangelauf, 1991). And, from the academic to the business and the professional communities, there is an increasing emphasis on ethical standards in business and community activities (Baumhart, 1968; Brenner & Molander, 1977; Martin, 1982; Schoenfeldt, McDonald & Youngblood, 1991; Weber, 1990).

Prior studies have looked at ethical values of students and business practitioners. It appears that there are differences, with business students being less ethical than business practitioners (Arlow, 1991; Arlow & Ulrich, 1980; Brown, 1995; Hollon & Ulrich, 1979; Jones, 1989; Piper, Gentile & Parks, 1993; Stevens, 1984).

In fact, undergraduate business students are potentially less ethical compared with other majors and various constituent groups and according to themselves (Stephenson, Galbraith & Grimm, 1995). They have expressed less ethical positions and have a reputation for being the "biggest cheaters" (McCabe & Trevino, 1995).

Studies have reported that individuals believe they are more ethical than others (Brenner & Molander, 1977; Ferrell & Weaver, 1978; McDonald & Zepp, 1988; Pitt & Abratt, 1986; Stephenson et al., 1995; Tyson, 1990, 1992). Michalos (1990) reviewed seven studies including two of his own and concluded that one consistency across all of the studies was that "most people think most people are not as nice as they themselves." Others are not viewed as trustworthy or as ethical. Alternatively, self-ratings are higher than ratings provided by others (Morgan, 1993). If individuals believe that others are less ethical, there is concern that they might rationalize unethical behavior for themselves. . . after all, if everybody else does it, why shouldn't I? For this study the expectations were:

1. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of undergraduates and MBA's of business decision makers in the 1996-1998 study compared with the 1988-1989 study.

2. There is no significant difference between what undergraduates and MBA's said they would do and what they should do in the 1996-1998 study compared with the 1988-1989 study.

3. There would be no difference in alignment in perceptions of what the decision maker would do compared with what respondent him/herself would do in the 1996-1998 study than in the 1988-1989 sample.

METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire used in the present study was adapted from scales developed by Clark (1966). (Secure modified Questionnaire from authors.) Data on validity and reliability are reported by Clark. The appropriateness of the questionnaire for this use was further demonstrated in research by Arlow and Ulrich (1980), Stevens (1984), and Stephenson et al. (1995).

In this study, the respondent was requested to assess what the person in the scenario would do, what the respondent him/herself would do if he/she were the decision maker, and what the person felt he/she *should* do if he/she were the decision maker. A typical scenario is:

1. Virginia Stone, a member of the Board of Directors of Scott Electronics Corp., has just learned that the company is about to announce a 2-for-1 stock split and an increase in dividends. Stone personally is on the brink of bankruptcy. A quick gain of a few thousand dollars can save her from economic and social ruin. She could purchase the stock now to sell in a few days at a profit.

a. Do you think Virginia Stone would purchase the stock to sell at a profit?
yes____ no_____

b. What would you do if you were Stone?
buy ____ not buy ____

c. What should you do if you were Stone?
buy_____ not buy_____

In 1988-1989, the study included senior undergraduate business students and MBA students. The undergraduates were business leaders "in training." The MBA's were business decision makers themselves--many business leaders in fact. All 106 graduating seniors in their final year (winter and spring quarters) in an AACSB accredited university participated in the study. One half the students had had an ethics course. Sixty-five MBA students in 3 elective courses (out of 700 total enrolled in total MBA program). Most of the MBA's had taken a required ethics course.

In the follow-up study during 1996-1998, there were 378 undergraduate business students which represented 75% of all graduating seniors all of over a two year period in the same accredited business school in the same business policy/strategy courses. Only 36 out of the 378 or 11% had not had at least one ethics course. There were 164 MBA's (out of 1,000 enrolled during the two years) from 7 different courses taken at the latter stages of one's MBA. Of the 164 MBA's only 39 or 24% had not had an ethics course. The MBA's are "working MBA's" in an evening program in which 80% are employed full-time.

The data was run on SPSS with chi-square appropriate for this data analysis. Significance at .05 was the accepted cutoff.

FINDINGS

The undergraduate business students in the current study expressed belief that DECISION MAKERS are more ethical than the undergraduates thought in previous study with four out of eight of the scenarios being significant at .01 or higher. For the MBA's, although there were increases in five out of eight of the questions, there was only one question that had a significant increase.

When asked what the respondents themselves WOULD do if they were the decision maker, for the undergraduates, there seems to be a lower percentage of ethical responses of what they would do with five scenarios getting lower scores--two significantly so. Three scenarios increased ethical choice with one being significant at .03. For the MBA's, there were no significant differences in any direction with four questions declining in ethical responses, three increasing and the last staying the same.

When the undergraduates were asked what they SHOULD do if they were the decision makers, seven of the scenarios received fewer ethical choices by the follow-up group with two scenarios significantly fewer. For the MBA's, there were three questions receiving fewer ethical responses but none significant. The ethical responses to three other scenarios increased and two remained the same.

There has not been much change in MBA perception either of decision maker, what the MBA's themselves would do, or what they feel should be done. However, in the 1996-1998 study, undergraduates tended to view the decision maker as making more ethical choices with increases in six scenarios out of eight with four of those being significant. There was a decline in their self-professed ethical position of what they would do in five out of eight scenarios with two of these being significant. They also expressed lower ethical beliefs about what should be done in seven out of eight of the scenarios. There are differences in undergraduates' perceptions compared with MBA's with ten out of a possible 24 observations being significantly different at .02 to .000.

Though there are differences between undergraduate perceptions compared with MBA perceptions, one constant holds for responses to all questions by each group: The other person is perceived as not very ethical, especially compared with the respondent. The respondent would certainly be more ethical than the decision maker or other person, and yet, the respondent may well act less ethically than he/she believes he/she should.

SUMMARY

For the research expectations:

The perception of the 1996-1998 undergraduates and MBA's seems to be that business decision makers are more ethical than the respondents believed in the 1988-1989 study.

Fewer undergraduates indicated that they would do the ethical thing in the 1996-1998 study, and there was a decrease in ethical responses in what the undergraduates thought they should do. For the most part, the MBA's seemed to either not change or make a few less ethical choices than did the earlier sample.

The expectation was that in the 1996-1998 study compared with 1988-1989, the perceptions of what the decision maker would do would be in closer alignment with what the respondent felt he/she would do if he/she were the decision maker. The undergraduates difference in perception points went from 290% to 186% total to a decrease between the first and second study of 104 of the percentage points with the differences in perception being lessened in seven out of eight of the scenarios.

The MBA's perceptions likewise became more closely aligned. In their case, the total difference percentage went from 225 to 188 with an improvement of 37 of the percentages.

DISCUSSION

This study tends to corroborate past research--the undergraduates did express less ethical position than the MBA's (Arlow, 1991; Jones, 1989; McDonald & Scott, 1997; Piper et al., 1993, p. 15). As for the phenomenon of expecting others to be less ethical than ourselves, it is not unique to business students; it is a phenomenon any educator, decision maker, or leader or follower is faced with. In this case, it is particularly odd, though, that students having just spent four years studying to become a business decision maker could hold such low ethical expectations from business decision makers. It is further unclear why the practitioner, decision maker MBA's have as much if not more distrust of other business decision makers as the undergraduates who have less experience and should be more vulnerable potentially to negative press.

The data indicate a lack of agreement on what is ethical behavior--what should be done. This could indicate that the questionnaire itself is not adequate.

These results are to be taken seriously as an indicator that regardless of potential weaknesses in methodology, sample size, and generalizability, there is obviously a big difference in perception, at least in these four samples, which could be exacerbated by the general tendency of the press to paint a negative picture of business.

Further, there is some uncertainty or agreement on what is ethical behavior. This is a societal issue as well as an educational issue. As a society are there certain ethical values that are needed to have a society? As a business, educational institution, not for profit, are there certain ethical values that are needed to have a viable organization? What is the actual cost in loss of trust, in encouragement/tolerance of unethical behavior, of believing the other is less ethical than oneself.

This study indicates that there may be less misperception than previously about others ethics versus one's own. However, at least on this sample and using these questions, business decision makers, those who are now and or studying to be, may not be more ethical today than a few years ago when the increase focus on improving ethics really came to a head in the late 1980's and early 1990's. There are some clear indications that there may be little agreement on what is ethical behavior, and still, when it gets right down to it, the other person is definitely not as ethical as I am! There is a need to deal with issues of ethics in the educational environment and continue to decrease the disparity in perception between the "I and Thou."

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS

SUPPLY AND DEMAND STUDY FOR SECONDARY MARKETING TEACHERS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR PRE-SERVICE DISTANCE EDUCATION COURSES

Richard F. James, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

ABSTRACT

The number of higher education institutions offering a teacher education program leading to certification in marketing education has declined from 150 in 1989 to less than 50 in 1993. Only about 409 marketing teacher education programs graduate at least one or more marketing teachers. Enrollment in marketing teacher education programs has also dropped by 38 percent from 1982 to 1992. This study sought the opinions of state supervisors of marketing education to determine if telecommunications (distance education) is a viable strategy to offer pre-service marketing teacher education for those states without a bonafide marketing teacher education program. This paper reports those state supervisor's opinions with recommendations for implementing such a program.

EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION: AN INTEGRATED BUSINESS CORE

Maggie Forbes, Western Carolina University

ABSTRACT

The integrated core brings a working knowledge of procedures, functions, group intervention, communication, and the ethics needed to survive in the business world. Learning by doing, allows for expansion of the mind through research and repeated efforts.

OUR EXPERIENCE

The subjects covered in this class differ in only one respect from those of the traditional core classes. The difference is, we were required to learn only the pertinent information needed for the subject addressed. By eliminating non-essential information, we were able to focus on the tasks at hand. At the same time, the instructors provided an avenue to research should we need to tap into additional information at a later date.

The saying "Two heads are better than one" expresses peer teaching and team based learning. Working in groups or teams gives a broader view and understanding of each topic and forces research to achieve the overall objective. Most teams consist of individuals who bring a wide variety of ideas, whether negative or positive, to the project. With this in mind, all concerned can weigh the pros and cons and collectively make decisions or come up with solutions. Discussion creates new ideas, expands the mind and creates a better understanding of the issue under review.

Mastery grading gives the individual a better chance to fully understand the topic. Testing based on one test per topic does not ensure the student will retain the information for future use. However, mastery grading holds a better chance for retention.

Being able to create different companies gave me a better view of the business world through presentations and work involved. The diversity of each group's business created in this class certainly covered a wide array of information, most of which will surge to the front lines of our minds when the need arises. Having only one business would eliminate the competitive spirit and group enthusiasm necessary to achieve goals in class and in the workplace.

Using companies as a vehicle for structure to venture creation, management, and growth, distinguishes and details pertinent/major areas and gives us the opportunity to explore others. Knowing the feasibility, market being addressed, seasonality, mission, profit margin, and distinctive competencies, as well as, the legal, moral and ethical concepts of a business broadens the overall understanding and brings a sense of reality to the creation of, and conflicts surrounding a business.

SPECIFIC LEARNING EXPERIENCES

This has given me the tools and knowledge necessary to research any additional information I may need in business. It has shown me WHY I need the information, WHERE to find it, WHEN to use it, WHAT it will do, and HOW to apply it in the workplace.

Specific things I have learned are as follows: the importance of the **resume** and the information contained within, such as what to look for in the resume when screening an applicant. Does the applicant have experience and/or skills in the job for which s/he is applying, is s/he over or under qualified, and is the educational background consistent with the needs for the position?

I have learned that you do not **promote** someone based on past history and that you need to be able to recognize when an employee has reached his/her highest potential. Communication with employees on a continual basis will give the employer the information necessary to make judgements regarding promotions. Making sure someone is not promoted to the point of incompetence is the **Peter Principle.**

Hiring is another area about which I have learned a lot. How many people do I need? For what positions do I need them? What type of person will fit the position and will that person fit into the organization? In the **recruiting** process you need to define the sources, make sure the terminology is understandable such as, customer oriented, or enthusiastic individuals wanted.

The **company manual**, **on-the-job training,** and **socialization** (the way the company presents itself) are just a few of the areas that show me how **culture** plays a big role in hiring. There are steps to link hiring to culture by defining cultural priorities and is done by specifying what the firm requires from its employees. The way of life/doing things and the beliefs, values and assumptions people have of individual firms can be transferred in several ways; the company manual is one.

Within this manual we have included **compensation**, both direct (salaries) and indirect (vacations, sick pay, retirement plan). This spells out to the employee all that is or could be available to them while working for the firm.

Policies and procedures are also necessary in the manual. Policies are general broad statements that give the employee an indication of how things will be handled in areas such as personnel, confidentiality, harassment, etc. **Procedures** are the specific results of stated policies. It indicates that if someone violates a particular policy, this is what will be done.

The **Bylaws** of a corporation can range from general to specific and specifies the purpose of the corporation and how the firm intends to achieve that purpose. It includes the officers and management of the firm and the duties each member will perform within the firm.

Stocks have been interesting and somewhat confusing at times. I know that **common** stock has voting rights, carries dividends and may or may not have face value, while **preferred** stock carries no voting rights, has a face value and receives dividends. This helps me to make decisions on how to invest personally, as well as business decisions regarding how I would offer stock in my company.

In planning for the set-up of production in our business, we learned about **PERT** which is the program evaluation review technique. A pert chart tells us the optimistic, pessimistic, and most likely time of completion for each phase of the project. The **critical path** represents the degree of certainty for task completion and the longest path to completion. **Beta distribution** is the expected duration time of an individual activity.

Manufacturing we learned is the process of converting raw materials into usable products. **Subassemblies** are components used in the production of other finished products and that a **job order system** means that no two units of production are the same. We found out that the virtual elimination of tracking inventory can be accomplished with the **just in time** method. This means you order, as you need it for each job. We found out that **quality control** is a management process that maintains the level of product performance required by the company. Other areas include **outsourcing** which is like sub-contracting, **plant layout** which gives the details and fabrication steps needed to produce the product, and **bill of materials** which lists the items and quantities needed to produce one unit.

In developing our **financial statements** we needed to determine our **production costs** by determining the **number of units produced and sold**, **direct material costs, direct labor costs, administrative and general costs, selling costs,** and **overhead costs** for the year. We then figured **capital expenditures, financing** and calculated **interest and dividends.** Finally we entered the transactions in a **general journal,** prepared a **trial balance** then the financial statements containing, **cost of goods mfg., income statement, cash flow statement, and balance sheet.**

Financial analysis converts the financial statements into graphs and plots the course of the company. This tool is invaluable to a firm. It can disclose trends in **sales, assets and liabilities, liquidity (can the firm meet its obligations), profit margin, working capital, returns, debt, management, cash flow**, and a variety of other information.

Sexual harassment is another topic about which we learned. It is the responsibility of any organization to know what is going on within the firm. Sexual harassment policies need to be defined and made known to everyone in the firm. Everyone should know to whom to report if a situation arises. The consequences need to be spelled out. There is 180-day limit of time to file claims of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is about **power** not **sex** and it is vital that all people respect the policies set forth in this subject.

HOW MY CLASS KNOWLEDGE WAS APPLIED IN THE REAL WORLD

Many things learned in the Integrated Core, have not only been applied in the classroom, they have guided me through the start-up of a business. The decisions one must make in consideration of opening a business are vast and can be overwhelming. Every move one makes in the business world must be carefully planned and documented. I have found that recording my every move while dealing with those I would have contracted, has become a most valuable asset. The fact that this class allows us to have hands-on experience has been the most helpful tool for me. The business world utilizes on the job training as a form of teaching employees the skills necessary to perform a job. This class and the teaching approach it uses needs the recognition it deserves for preparing individuals for the real world. I have learned about the rewards, concerns, problems, advantages, disadvantages, and reasons that relate to the applications needed in the business world. I have found in this class that confidence, desire, and teamwork are necessary to obtain success in any field.

I praise the concept of experiential learning and admire those who dare to create new paradigms. I came up with an idea for a business this year while attending Western Carolina University. The idea was based on the announcement that Harrah's would start construction of a new

82 million-dollar casino in Cherokee, NC. in June 1996. At that time I lived in Cherokee. The idea was to open a daily shuttle service to the casino from Atlanta, GA, Knoxville, TN, Asheville and Charlotte, NC and all areas in between.

I immediately started on a business plan for Win-$um Coach, Inc. The encouragement, support, and guidance I received from my advisor, instructors, and several faculty members were overwhelming. I have been told by several people that the plan is one of the most detailed and complete they have ever seen.