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ANTECEDENTS IN THE WORKPLACE WHICH LEAD TO THE EXACERBATORY FACTORS OF CHRONIC FATIGUE, UNCERTAINTY ABOUT THE FUTURE AND DEPRESSION IN INDIVIDUALS WITH MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS

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ABSTRACT

Much in the organizational behavior literature has been written about the nature of work and its effects on employee health issues. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) has also provided an impetus for study of these issues. A two-phase study was conducted which hopefully contributes to this research stream by studying the effects of factors in the workplace that lead to exacerbations in individuals diagnosed with Multiple Sclerosis (MS). This paper will detail the first phase of this study in which forty four individuals were interviewed in order to identify and validate constructs which address cognitive, behavioral and affective stressors in the workplace which lead to the exacerbatory factors of chronic fatigue, uncertainty in the workplace and depression in workers who are either still in the workforce or who have become too ill to work due to their condition. The findings and implications of this research for the second phase of this study as well as the relevance of this study for employees diagnosed with MS, employers of these individuals, and coworkers will be discussed.

A LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK: THE EFFECT OF LEADERS' BEHAVIORS ON FOLLOWERS' SELF-CONCEPT

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ABSTRACT

It is widely accepted that leadership effective is a function of the interplay between the leader, the follower, and the situation. In fact, research has followed parallel, often non-intersecting paths attempting to define the important variables in each of those realms. For example, research into leadership behaviors defined the type of behaviors exhibited by effective leaders. Situational models attempted to define the variables that should be used to measure a situation in order to determine the best leadership style for that situation. Another approach to leadership dealt with the follower's perceptions of the leader and of themselves. What has not happened sufficiently in the leadership research is the intersection of streams of research to sufficiently explain WHY certain leadership behaviors result in certain reactions by the followers.

Lord, et al., have undertaken a stream of research that applies social information processing to the relationship between leaders and followers. This research demonstrates that the strength of that relationship is determined by how well the schema of a leader matches the followers' (individual and collective) schemata of themselves and the prototype of "leader" held by the followers.

Additionally, the charismatic leadership literature proposes that transformational leaders are effective at changing behaviors and attitudes because they change the followers' views of themselves.

Sagie (1997; 2002) proposes and tests a loose-tight model of leadership, which characterizes leadership styles as participative decision making (loose) and leader directiveness (tight). Sagie proposes that the leader behavior possibly affects attitudes through cognitive or motivational processes of the followers. This research tests the attitudinal outcomes of followers due to the use by leaders of each of the styles independently and in combination.

The goal of our paper is to combine the leadership style literature with the leadership prototype literature to better understand the theoretical reasoning for follower reactions. We propose that the leadership style used will have an impact on the followers' schema. This research will be in interest to people attempting to continue building the mosaic of leader/follower relationships.

DIFFERENCES IN VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION STYLES OF MILITARY AND NONMILITARY PERSONNEL: A COMPARISON OF TWO POPULATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Individuals in the military are trained in both verbal and nonverbal communication skills. Many people, in fact, believe that they can identify those who have served in the military on the basis of communication skills.

The current study was conducted to determine if differences in both verbal and nonverbal communication skills do indeed exist between those who have served in the military and those who have not. Results indicate that differences in verbal and nonverbal communication skills are not readily apparent; however, both military and civilian respondents believe that nonmilitary individuals tend to show their emotions more readily than military individuals.

INTRODUCTION

Military training handbooks, such as the *Marine Battle Skills Training Handbook* (1995) and the *Air Force Handbook* (1997), typically include communication skills; specifically, carriage/posture, appearance, listening, gestures, and eye contact.

In the *Marine Battle Skills Training Handbook* (1995), military personnel are admonished to sit erectly, to dress appropriately for the occasion, to employ good listening skills, to maintain eye contact, and to use hand gestures and facial expressions appropriate to the subject matter and situation. Marine training also includes the importance of using positive language, being tactful in dealings with others, demonstrating exemplary personal conduct, and being unselfish as it relates to providing for one's own comfort and personal advancement at the expense of others (*Marine Battle Skills Training Handbook*, 1995). Likewise, the *Air Force Handbook* (1997) provides communication instruction that addresses verbal and nonverbal communication as well as listening. Verbal communication includes rate, volume, and pitch as well as articulation and pronunciation. Nonverbal communication topics covered in the Handbook include eye contact, facial expressions, gestures, and posture. Attention to personal appearance, including dress and grooming, are other nonverbal communicators that are addressed. In addition, Air Force training includes suggestions for improving listening skills. After military training in oral and nonverbal communication, are differences between the oral and nonverbal communication skills of military and nonmilitary personnel readily apparent? The current study attempts to answer this question.

In an earlier study, Chaney and Van Waus (2003) developed a 20-item questionnaire designed to determine perceived differences in oral and nonverbal communication styles of military and nonmilitary personnel. The questionnaire was administered to 211 persons in the Mid-South --109 were military personnel and 102 were nonmilitary. The conclusion, based on mean responses to the 20 statements related to differences in oral and nonverbal communication styles of military and nonmilitary personnel, was that those surveyed did not perceive great differences in the communication styles of the two populations. Only two statements were in the *Agree* category with means of 3.50 and above (using a five-point scale with five representing *Strongly Agree* and one representing *Strongly Disagree*); these statements related to showing emotions and interrupting during conversations. In both cases, the perceptions were that nonmilitary personnel are more likely to show emotions and to interrupt than are military personnel. Since the statement with the lowest mean response (2.27) was related to punctuality for appointments, the conclusion was drawn that military personnel are perceived as being more punctual than nonmilitary personnel. Although ANOVA results revealed statistical differences ($<.05$) between all four demographic factors and responses, results were rather inconclusive. Results did not clearly show, for example, that females, military persons, or those of a specific culture or age group were in greater agreement with specific statements than males, nonmilitary personnel, or those of another culture or age group.

The current study was undertaken at the suggestion of conference reviewers following the presentation of the initial study. The reviewers suggested that the same questionnaire be administered to a student population, specifically upper-division and graduate students, after they had received training in oral and nonverbal communication. The assumption was made that after such training students would be in a better position to distinguish between the oral and nonverbal communication skills of the two populations than were the military and nonmilitary persons who participated in the earlier study.

A search for additional studies did not reveal any research that specifically addressed differences in verbal and nonverbal communication styles of military and nonmilitary personnel.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND SURVEY PROCEDURES

The primary purpose of this research was to determine students' perceptions of the differences between the oral and nonverbal communication styles of military and nonmilitary personnel. A secondary purpose of the research was to compare mean responses of the current student population with results of the earlier nonstudent population.

The 20-item survey developed for the study by Chaney and Van Waus (2003) was administered in the fall of 2003 and the spring of 2004 to selected upper-division and graduate business students at a Mid-South university. The assumption was made that students enrolled in graduate courses would have received instruction in oral and nonverbal communication in their undergraduate program. Students were also asked to indicate their age, gender, culture, classification, and military background. Over half of respondents were female, more than two-thirds were below the age of 25, and over half were white U. S. Americans. Of the 412 students surveyed, 94% had no military background, and two-thirds were business majors who were classified as juniors or seniors.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statistical analysis was run using SPSS, Version 10. Mean responses and standard deviations were determined for each of the 20 statements. The statement with the highest mean response (3.90) was: *Nonmilitary personnel reveal their emotions when conversing more than military personnel*. The statement with the lowest mean response (2.19) was: *Nonmilitary personnel are more punctual for appointments than military personnel*.

To determine the influence of demographic factors of gender, age, student classification, and major, a series of ANOVAs was performed. Significant differences ($p < .05$) existed between four of the five demographic factors and 13 of the 20 statements. Five of the statements differed by military background, four differed by gender, two differed by culture, and three differed by student classification. None differed by age.

Mean responses were compared to the earlier study by Chaney and Van Waus (2003) that used military and nonmilitary persons. As shown in Table 1, results of the student and nonstudent populations were quite similar. The two statements with the highest mean responses by both students and nonstudents were: *Nonmilitary personnel reveal their emotions when conversing more than military personnel* (mean of 3.90 students vs. mean of 3.70 nonstudents) and *Nonmilitary personnel interrupt more often than military personnel* (mean of 3.58 students vs. mean of 3.50 nonstudents). The statements with the lowest mean responses by both populations were: *Nonmilitary personnel make more direct eye contact while conversing than military personnel* (mean of 2.46 for both students and nonstudents) and *Nonmilitary personnel are more punctual for appointments than military personnel* (mean of 2.19 students vs. mean of 2.27 for nonstudents). The statement showing the greatest difference between the two populations was: *Military personnel are more likely to offer a verbal greeting to others than nonmilitary personnel*. The nonstudent population (mean of 3.48) showed greater agreement with the statement than the student population (mean of 3.08).

ANOVA results revealed statistical differences ($<.05$) between four of the five demographic factors and student responses. The five statements showing significance by military background were: *Nonmilitary personnel interrupt more often than military personnel* (mean of 4.04 military vs. mean of 3.55 nonmilitary); *Military personnel are more polite and considerate during conversation than nonmilitary personnel* (mean of 3.69 military vs. mean of 3.18 nonmilitary); *Military personnel are more critical of other people than nonmilitary personnel* (mean of 3.81 military vs. mean of 3.10 nonmilitary); *Military personnel are better communicators than nonmilitary persons* (mean of 3.65 military vs. mean of 3.00 nonmilitary); and *In conversations with others, military personnel are more patient than nonmilitary personnel* (mean of 3.23 military vs. mean of 2.76 nonmilitary). In all cases, military personnel showed greater agreement with the statements than nonmilitary persons.

The four statements showing significance by gender were: *Nonmilitary personnel tend to apologize more than military personnel* (mean of 3.48 male vs. mean of 3.27 female); *During conversations, military personnel stand closer than nonmilitary personnel* (mean of 3.23 male vs. mean of 2.93 female); *In conversations with others, military personnel are more patient than nonmilitary personnel* (mean of 2.90 male vs. mean of 2.69 female); and *Nonmilitary persons are*

more assertive in meetings/classroom settings than military personnel (mean of 2.76 male vs. mean of 2.55 female). In all cases, males indicated greater agreement with the statements than females.

The two statements showing significance by culture were: *Nonmilitary personnel are more effective than military personnel in their use of body language* and *Military personnel are more critical of other people than nonmilitary personnel*. However, Scheffe's post-hoc analysis revealed no significant difference between any two cultural groups.

Of the three statements showing significance by student classification, *Nonmilitary personnel reveal their emotions when conversing more than military personnel* showed significance at the .05 level; junior/senior business majors, showed greater agreement with the statement (mean of 3.97) than junior/senior nonbusiness majors (mean of 3.54). While the two remaining statements, *Nonmilitary personnel are more complimentary during conversations than military personnel* and *Nonmilitary personnel make more direct eye contact while conversing than military personnel* showed significance, Scheffe's post-hoc analysis revealed no significant differences between any two classifications.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

With the emphasis on communication skills in military training handbooks, the assumption was made that differences in oral and nonverbal communication skills of military and nonmilitary persons would be readily apparent to others. However, results of a 2003 study by Chaney and Van Waus revealed that the 109 military and 102 nonmilitary persons surveyed did not perceive great differences in the communication styles of the two populations. Thus, the current survey of upper-division and graduate students was undertaken based on the assumption that students with prior instruction in oral and nonverbal communication would be able to differentiate between the communication styles of military and nonmilitary persons. Results of this study, however, were quite similar to the earlier study. The statements with the highest and lowest mean responses were the same for both populations.

ANOVA results of the student survey did show significance by demographic factors. Military personnel showed greater agreement with all five statements showing significance than did nonmilitary personnel (however, only 6.3% of the population had a military background). In addition, males (representing 47.8% of the population) showed greater agreement with all four statements showing significance by gender.

The conclusion can be drawn that differences in oral and nonverbal communication skills of military and nonmilitary persons are not readily apparent to either military personnel, nonmilitary persons, or to students who have had training in oral and nonverbal communication. Respondents in both studies agreed that nonmilitary persons are more likely to reveal their emotions when conversing than military personnel and disagree that nonmilitary personnel are more punctual for appointments than military personnel.

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Table 1: Comparison of Mean Responses: Student and Nonstudent Populations

Statement		Students		Nonstudents	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1.	Nonmilitary personnel reveal their emotions when conversing more than military personnel.	3.90	0.87	3.70	1.12
2.	Nonmilitary personnel interrupt more often than military personnel.	3.58	1.00	3.50	1.18
3.	Nonmilitary personnel talk more, and more often, than military personnel.	3.48	0.98	3.22	1.16
4.	Nonmilitary personnel are more likely to concede a point or give in on an issue than military personnel.	3.42	0.89	3.34	1.08
5.	Nonmilitary personnel tend to apologize more than military personnel.	3.37	0.99	3.23	1.16
6.	Nonmilitary personnel are more complimentary during conversations than military personnel.	3.35	0.93	3.23	0.95
7.	Nonmilitary personnel are more effective than military personnel in their use of body language.	3.29	1.00	3.03	1.10
8.	Military personnel are more polite and considerate during conversations than nonmilitary personnel.	3.21	0.99	3.35	1.11
9.	Military personnel are more critical of other people than nonmilitary personnel.	3.14	1.02	3.39	1.10
10.	Military personnel are more likely than nonmilitary personnel to treat others fairly during conversations.	3.11	0.89	3.23	1.10
11.	Military personnel are better listeners than nonmilitary personnel.	3.10	0.96	3.27	1.02
12.	Military personnel are more likely to offer a verbal greeting to others than nonmilitary personnel.	3.08	1.78	3.48	1.08
13.	During conversations, military personnel stand closer than nonmilitary personnel.	3.07	0.90	3.17	1.05
14.	Military personnel are better communicators than nonmilitary persons.	3.04	0.96	3.21	1.11
15.	Military personnel are more likely to boast or brag during a conversation than nonmilitary personnel.	2.79	0.97	3.07	1.23
16.	In conversations with others, military personnel are more patient than nonmilitary personnel.	2.79	0.95	2.86	1.03
17.	Nonmilitary persons are more assertive in meetings/classroom settings than military personnel.	2.65	0.90	2.64	0.96
18.	Nonmilitary personnel are more direct than military personnel in their communications.	2.48	0.94	2.49	1.03
19.	Nonmilitary personnel make more direct eye contact while conversing than military personnel.	2.46	0.90	2.46	1.08
20.	Nonmilitary personnel are more punctual for appointments than military personnel.	2.19	0.91	2.27	1.09

HAVE BUSINESS COMMUNICATION INSTRUCTORS CHANGED THEIR PERCEPTION OF BUSINESS ETHICS? A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Interest in business ethics has grown significantly over the last few years. Most organizations still focus on maximizing profits for investors but many also emphasize appropriate and conscientious operational conduct and its effects on employees, investors, customers, and the entire business community. However, as evidenced by recent events, not all companies follow ethical tenets. Furthermore, in some cases, what a company publicly espouses may be vastly different from what is actually practiced.

Business ethics is currently one of the most important topics in business education instruction. AACSB has studied this issue and is considering how it should be incorporated into the business curriculum. It is increasingly clear that current and future business graduates need information about acceptable business practices in order to perform effectively in ethical business environments.

PROBLEM/METHODS

The problem of this study is to determine if business communication instructors in the Southeastern and Southwestern Regions of the Association for Business Communication have changed their perception of business ethics. A questionnaire has been developed and mailed to the business communication instructors in these regions. A similar questionnaire was sent to the same response group in 1999. A comparison of the responses will be made. In light of recent business scandals, it is hypothesized the business communication instructors will be more concerned about ethics instruction now than they were in the past.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are to compare the results of the 1999 study with those from the 2004 study. Comparisons will be made for the two year:

1. to determine if business ethics topics were included in the curriculum
2. to determine in which course(s) business ethics topics were taught

3. to determine the class hours spent on business ethics
4. to determine the perceived value of business ethics
5. to determine how respondents rated undergraduate instruction in business ethics
6. to determine if the emphasis on business ethics has changed
7. to determine the business ethics topics taught
8. to determine the value of various teaching methods/materials.

REMEMBERING THE FUTURE: A FAST GROWING COUNTY USES SCENARIO BUILDING AS A TOOL TO PLAN FOR AN UNCERTAIN FUTURE

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ABSTRACT

American organizations in all sectors are experiencing a period of rapid change and challenges from new directions. This is particularly true in the public sector where state and local government is being asked to reduce costs while both improving and increasing services. Adding to the tension is demographic Tsunami created by the pending retirement of workers who are part of the "Baby Boom Generation". One California County is representative of the scope of the issue with a projected exodus of over 700 employees (40% of the workforce) in the next five years.

In an effort to be proactive the County Chief Executive Officer asked for ideas that would focus the County's executive group on this strategic issue. The Executive accepted a proposal that a scenario based workshop be use as a tool to help create a focused dialogue between senior county executives. The model created was similar to the scenario models first utilized by the military for war planning. This approach to strategic planning was later modified and adopted by a number of successful private corporations such as Shell Oil.

The scenario and workshop tools were developed through a partnership between a local State university business faculty and the County's Organizational Development staff. The workshop was attended by eighty senior managers who where asked to become a part of a learning team to think about the issues contained in the scenario. Teams were constructed along cross functional lines. A master facilitator explained the model and guided a group of facilitator who worked with each team. To guide each team's thinking they were given five levers for change that organizations typically use to meet a pending crisis: Process, People, Culture, Technology, and Structure. Each group was divided asked to select the lever for change they thought would best respond to county's problem. After lengthy and sometime heated discussions, the levers most often selected by this group of executives were people and culture.

The combination of the university's faculty objectivity and County's Organizational Development Staff's pragmatic view of the situation helped create a model which was of significant value to the County while adding to the perceived value of the university in the community.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SPORTS TEAM PARTICIPATION

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ABSTRACT

The question of whether leadership can be taught has received considerable attention in the academic and practitioner arenas. Organized athletic teams offer the student a different experiential program that many argue develops leadership. The purpose of the current work is to study the relationship between organized sports team participation and leadership skills, employing a valid means of measuring several dimensions of leadership.

Using a validated assessment center method, nine distinct leadership skill levels were measured for 140 MBA students. Using correlation analysis, we found no systematic association between the number of seasons of sports participation and the level of any particular leadership skill. The findings of this study caution recruiters and other persons making personnel decisions against using this past behavior as an indicator of these or any other leadership skills. By showing a preference for athletes, persons who would be a good fit in the job may be bypassed unnecessarily.

INTRODUCTION

The question of whether leadership can be taught has received considerable attention in the academic and practitioner arenas. Most recently, Jonathan Doh, (2003) presenting the perspectives of several prominent management educators on this topic, concludes that several aspects of leadership may be enhanced through various learning experiences. Additionally, the educators argue that “leadership skills are best acquired as part of a practical, experiential educational program” (p. 64).

While most leadership educators are referring to traditional faculty-led educational programs when discussing leadership skill development, persons from another part of the college campus argue that their programs are also instrumental in leadership development. Organized athletic teams offer the student a different experiential program that many argue develops leadership. Ewing et al. (2002) argue that sport contributes to learning the skills and values necessary to succeed in education, in the workforce and throughout life. Danish (1986) defines some of these skills as the ability to perform under pressure, solve problems, meet deadlines and challenges, set goals, communicate, handle both success and failure, work in a group and within a system, and receive feedback and benefit from it. .

Based on a review of empirical data, Iso-Aloha and Hatfield (1986) concluded that early athletic participation may contribute to later success in leadership through reinforcement of critical behaviors. Snyder and Spreitzer’s 1992 study of over 4,000 high school males led them to conclude

that athletic participation appears to increase the potential ability to lead. Consistent results were found by Dobosz and Beaty (1999). DeMoulin's (2002) research involving high-school seniors also found that students who were organized in organized sports showed greater social integration skills, but significantly lower personal maturity scores on validated measure of leadership development of youth.

Not all studies have demonstrated a relationship between athletic team participation and leadership skill development. Danish, Petitpas, and Hale (1990) argue that "[a]ll in all, the empirical literature does not support a cause-and-effect relationship between sport participation and [social] competence." In addition, Spreitzer (1994) contends that the transfer effects from the playing field to the larger game of life receive little support.

In addition to the inconsistent conclusions reached by previous studies of the relationship between sports team participation and leadership development, the measures used in these studies can be questioned. Some of the leadership measurement instruments focused on leadership within a sports team or leadership by members of the coaching staff, and thus may not be generalizable to leadership in a different context. Other measures were self, peer, or coaching staff perceptions of the individual athlete's leadership abilities. These latter measures have been determined to be confounded by the level of athletic skill possessed by the subject, or interpersonal feelings between the rater and the subject (Glenn and Horn, 1993).

The purpose of the current work is to study the relationship between organized sports team participation and leadership skills, employing a valid means of measuring several dimensions of leadership. Implications of this study's findings for management selection and development are discussed.

METHOD

Participants were drawn from 144 MBA students who participated in a 1-day assessment center, required by their academic program. Sixty-nine (48%) of the participants were female; average age at time of assessment was 27.2 years (sd. = 5.8 years).

The assessment center was a pre-requisite exercise for enrollment in a required management skills course. The assessment center method involves multiple evaluation techniques, including various types of job-related simulations, interviews and psychological tests. The assessment center involved in this study was designed by a consulting firm, Development Dimensions International (DDI) specifically for the academic setting and includes the following simulations: in-basket exercise, group discussions, simulation of an interview with a "subordinate", oral presentation exercise, and written communication exercise.

The validity of using the assessment center methodology in both industrial and academic settings has been established. The standardized administration and scoring inherent in the assessment center method helps to insure the reliability and validity of the data that are produced (Gaugler, Rosenthal, Thornton & Bentson (1987)). Waldman and Kobar (2004) established the criterion-related validation for the use of assessment centers in academic settings.

One advantage of using assessment center methods is that it allows for the measurement of a multidimensional array of skills associated with the leadership construct. Nine independent factors were measured in the current study, including: Planning, Analysis, Judgment, Delegation,

Maximizing Performance, Individual Leadership, Teamwork, Communication, and Written Communication.

Participants' behaviors and outcomes of their participation in each of the simulations were either recorded on videotape or in written format and sent these results to DDI, which subsequently scored the materials. Specific written feedback was returned to the participants, including numeric scores (1 = low to 5=high) on each of the dimensions.

Each participant was also asked to complete a survey requesting the number of seasons s/he had played each of 24 sports on a formal school-sponsored team at either the high school or college level. The list of sports was based on those offered by a university identified by the NCAA as having the widest variety of varsity teams.

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and ranges among variables are shown in Table 1. There is wide variance on all variables, with the exception of both communication dimensions.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (N = 144)

Variables	Mean	SD	Range
Age (years)	27.2	5.8	21 - 53
Seasons Interactive Sport Team Participation			
Total (High School and College)	3.77	4.54	0 - 15
Seasons Coactive Sport Team Participation			
Total (High School and College)	2.28	3.27	0 - 12
Assessment Center Skill Dimensions (1=low 5=high)			
Planning	2.29	.76	1 - 4.5
Analysis	2.68	.76	1 - 4
Judgment	2.28	.65	1 - 4
Delegation	1.97	.83	1 - 4
Maximizing Performance	2.38	.94	1 - 5
Individual Leadership	2.80	.94	1 - 5
Teamwork	2.94	.76	1 - 5
Communication	3.42	.60	2 - 5
Written Communication	3.23	.47	2 - 5

Correlations between team participation and leadership skills are shown in Table 2. The only sports individually analyzed were those in which some participation was reported by at least 15% of the study's participants. In order not to ignore the potential effects of "less popular" sports, each of the 23 sports was classified into one of two categories: coactive team sport or interactive team sport. This categorization is relatively common in the sports study discipline (Carron, Colman, Wheeler and Stevens, 2002; Munroe, Estabrooks, Dennis and Carron, 1999). Interactive sports are those where task interactions are essential for group success (e.g. baseball, football, soccer, basketball). Coactive sports are those where task interaction among the individual team members is not an element of the sport (e.g. golf, tennis, swimming, track).

Table 2: Correlation between Number of Seasons Sport Participation and Leadership Skill Level (n=120)

	Planning	Analysis	Judgment	Delegation	Maximize Performance	Individual Leadership	Team-work	Communi-cation	Written Communi-cation
Basketball	-.064	-.061	.064	-.113	.000	.073	.014	.149*	-.009
Baseball / Softball	.082	.020	-.016	-.055	.115	-.080	.064	-.154*	-.075
Football	-.065	-.027	-.008	-.115	-.151*	-.001	.082	-.028	-.187**
Soccer	-.038	-.030	-.117	.017	.024	-.096	-.077	-.052	.015
Tennis	-.070	.072	.253**	.134	.140	-.087	-.128	-.125	.014
Volleyball	.261***	.132	.041	.032	.030	-.027	.117	-.075	-.022
Swimming	.001	-.004	-.009	-.076	-.110	.057	.070	-.104	-.007
Track / CC	-.016	-.054	-.044	-.054	-.025	.172*	.199*	.170*	-.141
Total Interactive Sports Seasons	.303	.000	-.008	-.117	-.007	-.049	.091	-.031	-.117
Total Coactive Sports Seasons	-.090	-.017	-.024	-.072	-.077	.082	.085	.014	-.042
Total Seasons	-.027	-.010	-.021	-.143	-.051	-.006	.129	-.019	-.126

* p < .10 ** p < .05 *** p < .01

The correlations reveal no systematic association between the number of seasons of sports participation and the level of any particular leadership skill. Only increased participation in track/cross country was associated with increased levels of 3 skills: individual leadership, teamwork, and communication. Increased participation in football was associated with significant lower skills in maximizing performance and written communications. Communication was the only dimension significantly affected by more than one sport. Increased participation in basketball and track / cross-country were associated with high communication skill levels; increased participation in baseball/softball was associated with reduced communication skills. Grouping sports into the interactive and coactive categories did not result in any statistically significant association with leadership skill level.

DISCUSSION

The current research demonstrates only limited support for the adage that “sports builds leaders”. Not only is that common knowledge often cited by parents as a reason for encouraging children’s sports participation, but has become a criteria in human resources management decision making. The authors’ experience with campus recruiters is that many of them put a high premium on recruiting college athletes because they believe that experience increases their leadership skills, especially teamwork and motivation skills. The findings of this study caution recruiters and other persons making personnel decisions against using this past behavior as an indicator of these or any

other leadership skills. By showing a preference for athletes, persons who would be a good fit in the job may be bypassed unnecessarily.

Further research on this topic will focus on whether sports develop skills in certain types of persons and not others (e.g. males vs. females) and its effect on skills not measured in an assessment center.

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EDUCATIONAL MULTIMEDIA: A TEST OF DUAL-CODING THEORY

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ABSTRACT

An experiment was conducted to examine how dual-coding theory would operate in a computer-mediated learning task. The findings confirmed that modality can change the outcome predicted by dual-coding theory. Participants who received narration performed as well as participants who received on-line text. Participants who did not receive the text devised an ad hoc mechanism (taking notes) for adjusting the level of information available to them.

INTRODUCTION

Classrooms throughout the world today have students using computers to incorporate technology into their educational environment. This study hopes to contribute to the analysis and evaluation of educational technology use in one domain, that of multiple simultaneous media uses. Although we focus on the educational setting, this study has implications for corporate learning environments, too. Educational technology is also changing in light of the newer faster and cheaper computers that are available on the market. Technology is being used to create virtual environments in educational settings. As multimedia teaching becomes more prevalent, especially in connection with distance learning initiatives, some researchers have begun to examine the relationships between cognitive learning and technology. In general, studies report that advanced technologies that combined both a verbal and visual approach to presenting information is beneficial to student's learning (Welsh & Null, 1991). Virtual learning environments have become popular methods of teaching science, medicine, history and high risk skills where conducting hands on learning could be too expensive, too dangerous, or simply impossible (Schank & Cleary, 1996). In a virtual learning environment learners are taken out of their physical environments and transported to other places or times. A virtual environment is generated from sights, sounds, and physical sensation (Winn, 1995). These elements can lead to a rich learning environment.

Despite the growth in educational technology use, there is a lack of research on the design and develop technology for computer assisted learning (Mayer, 1994). While developing instructional technology, instructional designers and teachers should be asking themselves whether combining different modalities can increase a student's understanding while learning subject matter using computer-assisted instruction. Another related question involves determining the best modalities for computer-assisted instruction. Dual-coding Theory can be a useful tool in examining these questions.

DUAL-CODING THEORY

Paivio's Dual-Code Theory (DCT) claims that there are two cognitive subsystems. One, specializes in the representations of verbal intake, such as language, while the other, specializes in non-verbal intake, such as objects (Paivio, 1986). According to this construct, DCT is the result of both the auditory and visual nature of the processing capabilities of the human brain. In DCT one is to understand that mental representations are associated with two symbolic modes. DCT is grounded in research that found human memory is much better if one can develop mental images for verbal material. For example, if a student is asked to remember the sentence, The children played outside, the student would be much more successful in recalling the sentence for the teacher if the student had a mental picture or activity that went along with the verbal sentence. A picture showing children playing outside would be ideal; therefore, students would have the mental model correspond with the verbal code.

A verbal system, according to Paivio (1991) includes visual, auditory or articulatory codes. Words, like codes are symbols that represent objects, as well as abstract ideas. For example: representations for words such as wall, bag, shelf, book, and even ideas such as worry all stimulate codes for the learner. Nonverbal representations can include shapes, sounds, kinesthetic actions, emotions, or other non-verbal events.

DUAL-CODING THEORY STUDIES

Mayer (2001) has studied the traditional DCT associated with verbal and nonverbal codes, nonverbal codes almost always being images or animation. Mayer and Anderson (1992) conducted research that presented the contiguity principle, which states that the effectiveness of multimedia instruction will increase by presenting words and pictures continuously, rather than in an isolated way. Mayer and Anderson (1992) found that animation and/or pictures did not improve a student's understanding of a household repair. The study led Mayer and Anderson to hypothesize that presenting narration and animation concurrently encourages the learner to make connections and support problem solving transfer.

Mayer and Sims (1994) concluded that inexperienced students were better able to transfer what they had learned about a scientific system when visual and verbal explanations were presented concurrently than when visual and verbal explanations were separated. More recently, Beacham, et al. (2002) conducted a research study that investigated whether or not different media combinations influenced a student's understanding of computer based learning material. Results indicated that using sound and visual enhanced participant's understanding.

IMPORTANCE OF MODALITY

Mayer and Moreno (1998) tested a dual-processing theory of working memory. The presumption was that visual information is first processed in visual working memory and auditory information is first processed in auditory working memory. Therefore, modality does matter because working memory can become overloaded if too much information is given at one time. Given that each working memory has limited capacity, learning could be inhibited. The researchers also

concluded that the benefit of presenting words and corresponding pictures at the same time will depend on the modality of the words (Mayer, 1999).

Presno (1997) concluded that Bruner's (1966) three forms of representation (action, pictures, and words and numbers) could be successfully applied to virtual learning environments. Presno notes that there are instances where a learner needs to perform a task to fully comprehend how to do it. Schank and Cleary (1996) concluded that kinesthetic activity should not be neglected when using computer assisted instruction.

Simpson (1994) suggested that Paivio's dual-coding theory does not take into account the variable abilities of people to process information. He stated that the younger a learner is, the more likely they are to process information better in one modality or another and that presenting two or more modalities at one time can serve to confuse a learner. He believed that images were the strongest modality for young learners and as learners age they are able to develop complimentary verbal abilities.

Many studies support Paivio's dual-coding theory in relationship to multimedia learning. But as technology continues to develop and robust virtual learning environments are created, the question of modality effects becomes important. Thus the focus of the present experiment examines the outcome of college student's ability to learn MS Word Mail Merge with verbal and non-verbal instruction vs. non-verbal instruction only.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

In this study, students viewed a computer lesson depicting the steps needed to successful create a mail merge letter us MS Microsoft Word with concurrent narration (Group 1) or with concurrent on-screen text (Group 2). According to the dual processing hypothesis, Group 1 should perform better than Group 2 and be able to recall relevant steps in creating a MS Microsoft Word document.

METHOD

The participants were 32 college students recruited from the School of Business Administration at the University of San Diego. All participants indicated that they lacked experience in MS Word and had never conducted a mail merge prior to the experiment. Seventeen students in Group 1 the concurrent narration group and 15 students served in Group 2 the concurrent on-screen text.

Each student was asked to fill out a questionnaire prior to watching a video tutorial that taught how to use Microsoft Word Mail Merge. The questionnaire included the following statements: "I know how to do a Word Mail Merge," "I can find a the tools for a Word Mail Merge on the Toolbar," "I can make a database for a Word Mail Merge," "I can use an already made database for a Word Mail Merge," "I can merge form letters by using Word Mail Merge," and "I can merge envelops by using Word Mail Merge." A retention test contained the following instructions at the top of the sheet: "Please explain the steps needed to perform a mail merge."

The computerized portion of the study consisted of an on-line tutorial video. The computer based instructional video explained in detail the basics of MS Word Mail Merge. The transfer test

consisted of a basic MS Word Mail Merge database placed on the participant's desktop, and with the instructions to complete the mail merge in 6 minutes.

Participants were given the questionnaire prior to watching the computer based instructional video. Group 1 watched with computer based instructional video, which included concurrent narration describing each of the major events in words spoken at a slow rate by a male voice. Group 2 included concurrent text presented on the screen using the same words and timing as Group 1. The animation was created by the university's computing services department. Each participant was equipped with headphones so that the sound of one computer did not interfere with another participant's experiment.

First, participants completed the participant questionnaire and were told to work at their own rates. Second, the experimenter presented oral instructions stating that the computer would show a video of how to use MS Word Mail Merge and when the video was over students would then be given another questionnaire to complete. Participants in Group 1 were told to put on headphones, and all participants were told to start the on-line instructional video. Third, after participants started the video, participants in Group 1 were presented the video with concurrent narration, while Group 2 was presented the video with concurrent text. Fourth, when the video was finished the experimenter presented the participants the same questionnaire and asked the participants to complete it. Fifth, the participants were told to complete the MS Word Mail Merge document that had been placed on their computer's desktop. Participants were told they had 6 minutes to complete the mail merge.

RESULTS

Prior to the video, participants were asked if they knew how to do a mail merge, all participants responded that they did not. The dual processing hypothesis states that students should recall more material when it is presented verbally rather than in text form. Prior to the on-line educational video all participants stated that they did not know how to conduct a mail merge. Of the 15 participants in Group 1, 100% felt they were able to conduct a mail merge after viewing the video with concurrent narration. Of the 17 participants in Group 2, 15 out of 17 felt they were able to conduct a mail merge after watching the video with concurrent text. When presented with the retention test, 13 out of 15, (86%) participants in Group 1 were able to perform a mail merge. Group 2, 14 out of 17, (82%) were able to conduct a mail merge. Overall, there was not a significant difference between the concurrent narration and the concurrent text.

DISCUSSION

Although prior research would indicate that students learn best when presented with visual material accompanied by verbal information, our results would indicate that this is not the case. During the course of the study two additional unplanned observations were made. First, participants who were presented with visual and text concurrently took notes on the back of their questionnaires. More than half the participants in Group 2 had notes. In Group 1 only five participants took notes. Participants were not told to take notes. Also, participants who took notes tended to rely on the notes when recalling the information to conduct a mail merge. One possible reason for this would be that

participants who knew they were not going to have sound concurrent with the visual felt they had to work harder to retain the information. Thus, they took notes to assist them in the recall portion of the experiment. Some participants were asked why they took notes during the video and they responded that always take notes.

Second, in a debriefing session conducted after the experiment, 12 of 15 participants indicated that they preferred learning on-line. They believed that on-line learning was easier and could be done at their own pace. Our three main findings include: (1) Sound is not necessary in teaching basic computer skills if the program being used is simple to follow and direct in its visual direction; (2) Learners tend to use other methods of understanding a computer tutorial if there is no sound, for example, taking notes; and (3) An on-line computer tutorial can be an effective way to teach students basic computer skills.

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SATISFACTORINESS OF UNIVERSITY COOPERATIVE EDUCATION AND INTERNSHIP STUDENT EMPLOYEES

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ABSTRACT

Research that measures employee satisfaction is common within business, industry, and academia. What is not as common is research that seeks to determine the satisfactoriness of employees. This paper presents the results of a statewide survey of employers to determine how satisfied they are with student employees enrolled in university cooperative education or internship programs.

Businesses throughout Tennessee that participate with university cooperative education or internship programs were surveyed and asked to rate the “satisfactoriness” of their cooperative education and internship student employees. Supervisors were asked to rate their student employees’ satisfactoriness by completing the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scales, a well-recognized and validated research instrument developed at the University of Minnesota and used to assess worker satisfactoriness. Cooperative education and internship student workers were compared with other employees in their work groups.

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test (a non-parametric test) was performed on each variable. The Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to compare different demographic groups. Descriptive statistics (tallies) were also included.

CONSUMERS' ATTITUDES AND ACTIONS CONCERNING CREDIT CARD OWNERSHIP AND DEBT

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ABSTRACT

Credit use has grown rapidly in the United States since the 1960s. Between the mid 1970s and early 1980s, credit card users developed into the most quickly growing segment of the consumer credit market. As a result of these spectacular increases, the average outstanding balanced owed to Visa and Master Card soared from less than \$400 in the early 1980s to \$1096 in 1993, and to \$2850 in 2000 – more than a seven-fold increase (Kaynak and Harcar, 2001). Consumers' preferences for greater convenience and easier access to cash have contributed to the rising demand for credit cards. Other causes of increased credit card ownership include lower eligibility standards, increased popularity of online purchases, and a growing college-aged market.

This rapidly growing amount of credit card use and consequent debt in the United States has acquired a great deal of attention. This paper will discuss some of the factors contributing to this rising epidemic of financial irresponsibility including lowered eligibility standards, new markets of interest and the ease of bankruptcy. Possible solutions will be introduced and briefly analyzed. The argument is that in order to change our society's preference to spend, we must first change the fundamental attitude towards delaying immediate satisfaction to avoid unnecessary financial stress.

INTERNATIONAL VS AMERICAN BUSINESS STUDENTS PERSONALITY TYPE AND CULTURAL ADAPTABILITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine if a relationship existed between personality types, cultural adaptability, and learning styles. The study looked at American and International business students here and abroad. Students who have an understanding of cultural adaptability, personality types, and learning styles will the workplace more effective, more productive, less hostile, more open, and more dynamic. The study also provided information to help business faculty teach students about the need for cultural adaptability in the workplace, the need for understanding personality type for corporate environments, and the need for understanding learning styles for training.

ACQUIRING TRAITS OF EFFECTIVE TEAMS: TEAM LEARNING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Teams, teamwork and team building/development are popular concepts today because they can enhance the performance of both private and public sector organizations. More specifically, these concepts can boost organizational performance by improving one or more of the following areas: quality, responsiveness to customers, innovation, and employees' motivation and satisfaction. The impact these concepts have on performance, in turn, has influenced higher education and research. Regarding higher education, teamwork is emphasized more today than in the past in various curriculums, especially in university business, engineering and education programs. Research on these topics is also increasing. The entire March 2001 issue of the Journal of Organizational Behavior, for example, was devoted to team-oriented management.

As might be expected, different team research directions have emerged. One such track is why some teams succeed and others fail. A beginning step in this stream of research has been on identifying characteristics of an effective team. Various researchers have studied this issue and suggested different traits—e.g., trust, communication, and norms. Given this accomplishment, a suggested next step is to study strategies for how team members can best acquire these traits.

The purpose of this study is to provide information on team learning strategies. To accomplish this purpose, the paper is organized into several parts. In the next section, background information is presented on two topics. The first topic is to summarize information from the literature about traits of effective teams. The second background topic is to discuss two existing models that show relationships between the effective team traits. Knowing trait relationships is important because they show when and how the characteristics can be acquired. Timing, for example, is an issue. It has been suggested that the acquisition of some traits (e.g., trust) is dependent on having acquired other characteristics earlier. Although the two models that will be reviewed are helpful, they describe only some of the important trait relationships. Hence, part of the study will be devoted to developing and presenting a more comprehensive trait relationship model. Then, team learning strategies will be examined for acquiring the presented effective team characteristics. The study concludes with future research suggestions.

THREE EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION SURVEYS SPANNING A HALF CENTURY

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ABSTRACT

As the U.S. comes out of its first recession of the twenty-first century the extraordinary emphasis by businesses on cost reductions and increased productivity is not likely to decrease any time soon. The focus of these efforts, however, is likely to change. The next big push for cost reductions and increased productivity is likely to shift away from the highly publicized massive employee layoffs and company-wide adoptions of high-tech equipment of the recent past to far more challenging efforts at increasing worker productivity through developing a more highly motivated workforce. This change will require companies to devote far more time and effort to learning exactly what will motivate their individual employees at a particular time and place. This time and effort commitment is going to be especially important for managers since studies have revealed wide discrepancies between what management believes motivates their employees and what their own employees report.

Three surveys designed to have employees rank ten work factors related to motivation—and using the same ten questionnaire items--have been administered from the first post-World War II year of 1946 to near the end of the last millennium in 1997--a span of more than fifty years. This paper presents findings that support both the notion that some major changes did occur in regard to employee prioritization of the ten motivational elements surveyed but also that a surprising degree of continuity prevailed during the fifty-plus year period of study especially in view of the enormity of the social and economic changes which were occurring in the U.S. and the world during this period.

The paper also presents specific employee rankings of the ten motivation factors at each of the three time periods. The data revealed that the surveyed employees believed that the number one ranked motivator in both the 1997 and the 1987 surveys was “interesting work”. The 1946 survey, on the other hand, had this motivator ranked far lower as only number six—not too surprising in view of what one might expect for the first year of the major economic disruption attending the change from a war-time to a peace-time economy. Interestingly, the next two highest-rated motivation elements in 1997—“good wages” and “promotion and growth in the organization” respectively—revealed substantial differences with both of the earlier surveys which were more similar to each other than to the 1997 results. The evidence suggests that the importance of these two motivators to employees has been on the upswing over time. Similarly, the fifth most important motivator in the 1997 survey—“good working conditions”-- displayed a similar pattern of increasing importance over time. Thus, four of the “top five” motivators in 1997 were ranked higher than in either 1987 and 1946, with but one exception. At the other end of the prioritized rankings

all three of the lowest ranked motivation factors in 1997, with but one exception, had received the very same low ranks in 1987 and 1946,

The final data presentations display how most demographic/socio-economic based subpopulations of employees were consistent with the findings for the overall sample, with a single set of probably related exceptions: employees with less than high school completion, who earned less than \$12,000 a year, and held production line/front line jobs. Possible interpretations of the observed findings are presented along with suggestions for future research.

NEW APPROACHES TO GOAL SETTING: INTEGRATING PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS

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ABSTRACT

Goal Integration is a topic that has been neglected in the organizational behavior literature. However, it has been tacitly referred to by organizational behavior researchers since the work of Frederick W. Taylor in 1911 when he first addressed management's concern to link the goals of the organization with those of employees. This article identifies the limited focus on goal integration in the extant literature and provides a more parsimonious definition. A thorough literature review is addressed and suggestions for future research are presented. Finally, ten practical guidelines are offered to enable managers to implement the goal integration process.

There is a plethora of academic and practitioner literature on the subject of goal setting; however, empirical studies lack a focus on linking personal goals with organizational goals. The only organizational goal assumed to be universal in nature is found in the finance discipline, which offers a definition of the goal of the firm: "The primary goal of the firm is shareholder wealth maximization, which translates to maximizing stock price" (Brigham, & Ehrhardt, 2002). Even the goal of the firm has been criticized as many business school graduates in higher echelon executive positions have conducted unethical business practices. So the question remains: Why do we need new approaches to goal setting? The answer to this question and many similar questions like it lay in fact that "the challenges inherent in achieving both economic growth and stability have sparked clashes between people and organizations" (Rousseau and Rivero-Dabos, 2002). As we shift to the knowledge economy, which inherently hosts the knowledge worker, traditional hierarchy will change and organizations will empower workers in a more decentralized organizational structure. Rousseau and Rivero-Dabos (2002) call this "effective expressions of individual preferences and choices."

*Goal integration is a shift toward a knowledge economy and the knowledge worker; this implies that managers will have to become more democratic. Despite this trend, organizations have been and will continue to be effective under non-democratic conditions. Take for example the success of the Malcolm Baldrige Award, established in the United States in the late 1980s to reward successful companies. While this award has had a substantial impact on organizational progress, it allocates 85% of points to "improvements in management methods and processes," and allocates only 4% to "employee involvement." This will change in the democratic organizations, as employee involvement in the decision-making process increases when it comes to goal setting. Moreover, Renn (1998) found that **participation in goal setting is related to task performance through goal acceptance**. Further evidence of employee participation in the goal-setting process can be found in the action and control theorists who emphasize that the feedback loop processes*

through which people compare their current state with the “referent standard” or goal (Lord and Hanges, 1987; Klein, 1989).

This paper will attempt to create a research proposal to encourage empirical research that may address this unnecessary void in the goal setting literature. A parsimonious definition of goal integration is conferred, and ten guidelines to help managers implement goal integration are presented.

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