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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION: DO THEY DIFFER IN THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF ACADEMIC VALUES?

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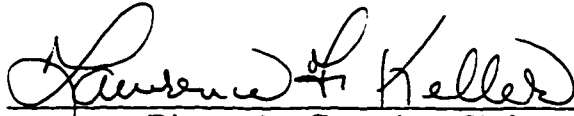
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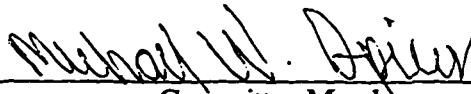
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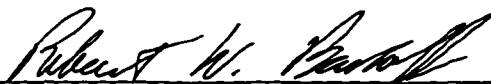
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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION: DO THEY DIFFER IN THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF ACADEMIC VALUES?

ARTHUR J. SEMENTELLI

ABSTRACT

This dissertation extends literature comparing public and business administration by examining the underlying values associated with professional training. In contrast to earlier studies that compared the practices of business and public administration, this study examines the preferences of the faculty educating practitioners. Insight into how these preferences differ between business and public administration can provide a stronger foundation for understanding the debates comparing the two fields.

Four conceptual categories were created. They were categorized by public - private differences as well as by differences in judgment; the latter was conceptualized on a continuum from analytic to synthetic. Hypotheses about systematic differences between the priorities of business and public administration professors generally, as well as others regarding the training of statesmen[i] versus executives, or foremen versus bureaucrats, were tested from this perspective.

The preferences of business and public administration professors among comparisons of 11 curriculum areas were tested. These included general competencies, quantitative research methods, finance and budgeting, economics, management concepts, organization studies, decision making and problem solving, political and legal processes, provision and distribution of goods and services, strategy making and evaluation, and ethics. These competencies were hypothesized to differ in terms of priorities, based on which of the categories best fit a professor.

PROSCAL, a program for probabilistic multidimensional scaling, was used in this analysis. The dimensions of the study were tested by the construction of preference spaces in each observed dimension. The spaces represented the preferences of professors for training students in the curriculum areas relating to bureaucrats, foremen, statesmen, and executives. These preferences were examined to determine whether statistical differences consistent with the conceptual frame existed.

Results indicated that the perceptions of business and public administration professors, based on the ranking of preferences, were statistically incomparable. However, when political scientists, a major subgroup of faculty in public administration, were removed, strong statistical differences emerged between business and public administration professors. Unexpectedly, there were no relationships on the judgment axis. Apparently professors in both fields focus on managerial rather than leadership values.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, many scholars of public administration have
attempted to borrow ideas and techniques from business administration.
Historically, these ideas have included management by objectives (MBO),
total quality management (TQM), and the recurring notion that
privatization of public services and agencies might be beneficial to the
public sector (Savas, 1982). More recently, scholars have been attempting to
"reinvent" government using business techniques, with Osborne and
Gaebler (1992) as prime advocates. They raised sufficiently strong issues to
warrant a forum in the public administration review (Rosenbloom, 1995).
Still other scholars have been testing (Dixon, 1996; Khademian, 1995) and
critiquing this process from many angles. These critiques come from
postmodernism (Fox, 1996), concern with citizenship (Schachter, 1995), and
other perspectives. What remains underdeveloped is a clear argument
about whether business and public administration are sufficiently similar to

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warrant the importation of techniques from one field to the other. One method to illuminate this question is to examine the values that scholars hold for the education of practitioners in these two fields and compare the preferences among values systematically.

Values are extremely important to both fields of study. The former president of the Academy of Management, Dr. Richard Mowday, emphasized this by titling his address about the state of the academy "Reaffirming our scholarly values" (Mowday, 1997). In this address, he states that business education needs a radical restructuring since it currently faces several problems among which, "faculty skills are not aligned with the rapidly changing needs of business" and the "gap between practice and academic research and teaching has widened." Mowday argues one consequence of this is that the view of scholarship has narrowed; as a result, business schools are rapidly losing their prestige. In order to combat this narrowness, he states, it is necessary to place scholarly values at the forefront of the field.

Mowday argues that the values professors hold influence how they educate practitioners. This point in turn raises two questions: Can practitioners get the education necessary to make effective professional judgments? Second, is there necessarily a difference between the public and private sector in how to do this? The first question, though interesting, is not the focus of this dissertation. The second moves us to examine the

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similarities and differences between business and public administration as they reflect the scholarly values of professors.

Debate about the similarities of and differences between business and public administration is a well established stream of research in both fields of study. Several scholars of note (including Simon, Rainey, Bozeman, Dahl, and Lindblom) have built cases both for and against such similarities and differences. As the literature has developed, several points have become clear. First, there is strong support for the distinctiveness of business and public administration as separate fields in practice. Second, there are sufficient common elements for other scholars to question whether these distinctions are either significant or interesting. Third, although each of these studies is often sound, empirically and theoretically, little has been done to answer the question of why such differences or similarities are the case - or why such prominent scholars can disagree remarkably about a question that has been studied carefully over the past 50 to 100 years.

This study contributes to the body of scholarship by approaching the question from a different perspective. Many scholars have made claims about these two fields from the study of praxis - the practice as it were; often, they use small data sets with homogeneous groups not adequately generalizable to either field. Bozeman (1989), for example, examined research and development institutions to arrive at a continuum for "publicness" based on governmental involvement. Other researchers compare public and business administration by using organizational

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behavior indicators including motivation, job satisfaction, and environment. Additional studies have examined this issue, using the intellectual application of general organization theories to the study of both business and public administration, as Simon(1947, 1991) did. Although such studies contribute to this debate, none provide clear reasons for the similarities or differences between business and public administration beyond descriptive notions of ownership, legal authority, or shared functions.

What has been missing in this body of scholarship is a clear theoretical and empirical treatment of the antecedents of praxis. This study proposes that, by examining the ideas valued by people who train practitioners, insight might be gained into some root causes for these similarities and differences. In order to examine these values systematically, both theoretically and empirically, we must identify their origins. This study argues that many values originate from accrediting bodies- specifically, the professors of MBA and MPA programs who teach practitioners ideas that also help shape praxis.

Teaching is a critical process in any profession, since it systematically conveys professional values. These values are conveyed in a process of socialization performed by professors (Leavitt, 1991). Leavitt argued that this process of socialization was essential, and he conceptualized several different processes for it, such as total immersion in the educational process in order to impart values to students. Professors operate within institutions,

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which help guide both the public and private arenas (Selznick, 1994). In fact, much of the professional development in public and business administration occurs in university based degree programs, which are institutional constructs in the classic sense (Blau and Scott, 1962). Each institutional construct, Blau and Scott argue, carries with it a process of socialization and a set of core values. These programs reflect the curricula and teaching of professors, who are guided by national standards and trained to reflect consciously on the content of programs in which they are involved. National standards are effective tools to use as guidelines reflecting previous literature, such as the research by Dennis (1984), Maxwell (1975), and others. Thus the study of the preferences that professors hold for standardized curricula should illuminate the substantive content of a field, even though scholars continue to debate the relevance of each area or group of areas almost ceaselessly. Examining the substantive content can help clarify assumptions behind much of the literature, illuminating this debate.

Barry Bozeman (1989), for example, argues that private and public organizations exist on a continuum conceptually defined as "publicness." Coursey and Bozeman (1990) more clearly express this "publicness" as a dimensional construct, making it a matter of degree rather than of quality. Bozeman's approach advances the debate both conceptually and empirically, in contrast to more simplistic attributions of publicness as a function of legal structure (Coursey and Bozeman, 1990). Coursey and Bozeman, and

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later Rainey and Bozeman (1996), support using this complex treatment of "publicness" rather than a dichotomy. The treatment is based on a set of a priori assumptions, making them an explicit yet untested part of the literature. This study takes a different tack and examines such assumptions, testing whether they are applicable where values are imbued by professorial instruction in universities.

This dissertation challenges the practice oriented focus that some prominent scholars use to study the public-private debate (Bozeman, 1989; Coursey and Bozeman, 1990; Rainey and Bozeman, 1996). We examine the values of those training practitioners, which might at first glance appear to fly in the face of the established literature of Bozeman and his contemporaries. Fortunately, there is a clear stream of literature that examines the role of accrediting agencies, academic prestige, and scholarly values, helping to support its use in this dissertation. Perrow (1961a), for example, argues that the public effect of prestige in an organization can be attributed to external groups, defined much like Selznick's (1957) leadership cadre, but with a scope that provides guidelines for- and test products based on claims made by organizations under this group's scrutiny. Accrediting agencies are external "validating groups" for higher education. Perrow, further argues that major operating policies are shaped by areas of emphasis, which, in the case of university based degree programs, may be determined by accrediting bodies (Perrow, 1961b). These policies then help to determine how successful organizations are at gaining resources and

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expanding functions. Thus, the continued success of such policies is linked to legitimacy, which reflects how uniformly university degree programs follow accreditation guidelines.

In addition, Uveges (1987) demonstrated strong links between public administration accreditation through NASPAA (National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration) standards and student qualifications after graduation. For him, accreditation was associated with producing more qualified graduates, further increasing the effects of prestige. Any particular effect of this prestige, however, may be limited by program structure[ii] and market access[iii] (Drew, 1984). Within each program structure, there are both specialized and institutional accreditation procedures. These procedures, which would not exist without external supervision, are subject to review on a continuous basis. More importantly, the outcomes of the procedures help impart the values of the profession to students while emphasizing certain values to faculty as well (Daniels and Johansen, 1985). In research on public administration, these values have been separated into as many as 25 categories for analysis, or as few as 6 (Dennis, 1984).

To understand and relate these professorial values from both fields, a conceptual framework must be developed and tested. This framework must encompass values in both fields and link them to orientations of practitioners. To start developing this framework, we use Weber's notions of the structure and dynamics of society as a base.

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This study borrows from Weber's (1978) ideas for economy, politics, and society; Chester Barnard's (1938) treatise on executive leadership; and Taylor's (1992) examination of statesmanship. Weber contributes the three general divisions that compose a culture, which he defines as economy, polity, and society. These three ideas can be used to illustrate how private (economy) and public (polity) arenas interact within an overarching society. Given this relationship and the fact that societies are guided by institutions, we can logically place society and institutions at the top of Figure 1 (Selznick, 1994). This position encompasses both public and private arenas, and spans Weber's polity and economy, respectively. At the top of this figure, in its core, we have leadership by statesmen and executives (Barnard 1938, Levinson 1981, Kofodimos et al, 1986), which reflect the prevailing institutional values. This relationship between the institutional core and values is best developed for both business and public administration by Selznick (1957). He argues that a small cadre of well trained, professional leaders at the highest levels of an institution guide decision making and uphold the values of an institution. For Selznick, this is the essence of leadership.

Some of these actors may be empowered to alter the political economy itself. In addition, some scholarly literature talks about how these roles interact with management in the public and private sectors (Normann, 1977- 1978). This framework is presented in Figure 1.

[Figure 1 about here]

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This perspective produces some clarity about debates over the similarities and differences of business and public administration. Such a structure helps to lay out the basis for this public-private debate along the relationship between polity, economy, and society, while providing a possible explanation for the "blur" so many scholars have found to be troublesome in their research. This blur can be defined as similarities between the two fields, often identified as a confounding effect when examining the differences between business and public administration. More importantly, from this conceptual frame we can empirically examine these ideas. We argue that such distinctions may be outcomes of university training. In many ways, such training influences how and where these similarities occur, because professors by their research and teaching, help define academic fields.

To perform this analysis, appropriate curricula for educating statesmen and executives must first be determined. Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), and to a lesser extent Appleby (1949b) point to specific competencies common to both statesmen and executives. In the following chapter, these curricula are developed, reflecting the leading research in both fields.

This dissertation, then, has two purposes. First it builds a theoretical frame that helps illuminate reasons for both similarities and differences between public and business administration. Second, it tests this theoretical construct empirically by comparing the curriculum preferences of business and public administration professors, at one point in time guided by the

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standards mandated by both NASPAA and AACSB (American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business). From this analysis, we gain insight into the values internalized by professors in each of these fields, based on their preferences. The results can then be used to help explain, to some extent, the similarities and differences between the values of business and public administration.

The limits of such research must be recognized. We cannot generalize these findings to praxis, because there is no instrument in this study to test whether praxis is influenced. In addition, there is no means herein to systematically determine whether these values are being taught- nor how, even if taught, they reflect praxis in the two fields. However, the congruence and divergence of the orientations of faculty in the two fields is a fundamental issue that, by its nature, influences both teaching and practice (Leavitt, 1991). Moreover, a basis can be constructed for further research to determine whether teaching and practice are in fact influenced.

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CHAPTER II

CATEGORIES

Development of Public and Private Perspectives

    The fields of public and business administration share some common origins and development. Some modern scholars, as mentioned, use the term "blur" to describe the practical effects of these similarities between the two fields (Bozeman, 1989; Rainey, Backoff, and Levine, 1976). This indicator of common values has been described by the latter authors, Musolf and Seidman(1980), and a host of other scholars who examined praxis in business and public administration. The similarities that influence this blur were purported to include shared history, development, and an overlap in certain skills. The following section traces some common theoretical developments in business and public administration, as well as points of difference in the twentieth century. It concludes by furnishing a theoretical construct with which to examine business and public administration, so as to understand why they share some characteristics and differ on others.

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At the turn of the century, both business and public administration were inspired to adopt scientific management, as a strategy to counteract the influence of the "robber barons" and "political machines" that plagued both fields and practices. As a result, early scholars of what is commonly termed "administration" perceived little need to differentiate between public and private venues. In the United States, we can attribute the origin of this lack of differentiation to the work of two early scholars, Wilson (1887) and Goodnow (1900). Wilson made attempts to remove what was perceived as the unseemly political process from public administration. Goodnow (1900) inferred a place for this scientific management in the public sector, realizing it was impractical to completely divest the process of governmental administration from politics. Both argued, either explicitly or implicitly, that it is the duty of public administration to emulate the more "scientific" generic administration.

Later scholars tried to implement this by adopting ideals expressed by Fredrick Taylor (1967), his contemporaries, and followers. One of the most provocative writers in this area was Mary Parker Follet- who, in her collected papers, vacillates between the public and private applications of administrative ideas, but clearly favors scientifically based, managerially oriented ones (Metcalf and Urwick, 1941). Follet was one of the first products of the scientific management movement to use both elements of political science and business administration, effectively blurring distinctions between public and private administration, whereas most of her

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contemporaries in both business and public administration were focused on scientific management. The zenith of this trend can be found in the work of Gulick and Urwick (1937), who extended these principles of scientific management to a logical end, advocating common organizational structures.

Business administration during this period drew from many of the same sources. Business administration scholars Hampton (1986), Longnecker and Pringle (1984), and Hellriegel and Slocum (1992) all rely on early works by Fayol, F.W. Taylor, Follet, and other contemporaries to inform their studies. This similarity, however, is short-lived. Business administration focuses on outcomes of the 1924 Hawthorne studies in the 1940s and the developing areas of organizational behavior and later organizational development. During this same period, public administration shifts towards political theory (in 1949) with the applied work of Paul Appleby and the scholarship of Dwight Waldo.

Appleby (1949a) was one of the first scholars to differentiate between public and private sectors. He highlighted what would later be termed "administration" by scholars of public administration, rather than "management." To illuminate this difference, we first examine the definitions and origins of both terms. Administration is defined as "the action of administering or serving in any office; service, ministry, attendance, performance of duty." This definition, though not the only one, relates to its first English usage in 1382, exclusively in the context of the

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public sector (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993) In contrast, management is defined as "the action or manner of managing; the application of skill or care in the manipulation, use, treatment or control (of things or persons), or in the conduct of an enterprise, operation, etc." The development of its meaning was influenced by association with the word "menagement" (French origin), which is related to use carefully, husband, or spare from in its 1598 origin, referring to business handling and negotiation. (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993). From this comparison of the origins of management and administration, we find two somewhat distinct terms. They have different origins tied to different sectors as well as different associated values, which begin blurring with each other as early as the 1600s (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993).

Appleby illustrates this difference clearly in Big Democracy. He states that "it is exceedingly difficult clearly to identify the factors which make government different from every other activity in society. Yet this difference is a fact and I believe it to be so big a difference that the dissimilarity between government and all other forms of social action is greater than any dissimilarity among those other forms themselves.." (Appleby, 1949a). He further states that induction into this process of government is often based on political rather than professional method and focuses on "managing relationships between the complex parts of an entire nation," which at the executive level relies on the "art of politics," at its best called "statesmanship." He further (1949b) places this administration as

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distinct from management, with the latter based on an arbitrary assignment to a "lower level" and signifying "action with the least policy making significance."

Dwight Waldo differentiates management from administration which has a more clearly defined but not distinct political component. In The Study of Public Administration (Waldo, 1955), he also speaks of a blending of art and science, focused on the organization and management of men and materials for the purposes of governance. Management is at this time commonly understood as "scientific" and the "art" as the process of organization. These two distinctions- between "art" and "science" and between the processes of organization and management- are powerful conceptual tools to show how public and business administration may differ. Organization has been associated with the art (Barnard, 1938) and management with the science (Taylor, 1967). Such ideas help to form a second distinct dimension of this study. From these writings appear two distinct areas of study with some common managerial concerns.

Business administration literature by contrast, does not emphasize ideas associated with the political realm early in its development. A complex understanding of political economy in the study of business administration really does not emerge until the 1970s and 1980s. Barnard (1938) attempts to respond to this, linking business administration to the broader society by writing about the nature of organizations in the public sector. He limits the depth of this discussion of the public sector,

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emphasizing instead the roles of general employee selection, retention, and coercion, based on loyalty and incentives. This underemphasis on how business administration interacts with society imbues much of the literature, despite many cases where businesses have been intimately involved in the political process. A classic example is when J.P. Morgan, in 1907, coordinated with private banks to return the collapsing stock market to solvency, acting in what we would consider today as a governmental function (Steiner and Steiner, 1991). So, despite its history and some scholars of note, business administration until very recently has relied on rudimentary notions of a political environment, such as the one presented in Morgan's (1986) text. Though perhaps useful, it presents simplistic images of a political system.

As a result of these historical problems, much of public administration literature has been devoted to establishing links to political theory[iv]. Waldo (1955, 1984) ties public administration closely to political science, making it unlike business administration. Despite a practice rooted in a rich public policy context, business administration has until very recently, reinforced a confrontational stance with politics and political actors, rooted deeply in a Machiavellian tradition (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1992). This notion may call up vestiges of the robber baron mentality, in which governments or political systems are perceived to seek only to hinder business success through regulation, restrictions, and taxation. Such a notion may also reflect the nonprofessional politics found in many states

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and local governments. These are governments with which businesses must

cope and negotiate, often in a confrontational manner. Waldo's

development of a role for political theory in public administration takes

some of the scholarship away from the Taylorist tradition of his

predecessors, moving public administration conceptually away from

business administration.

In the 1950s, 60s, and 70s, business and public administration

continued along these differing paths. Business administration saw the rise

of the human relations school as well as a continued emphasis on scientific

management (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1992). Public administration in many

cases followed suit, adopting elements of it such as program planning and

budgeting, management by objectives, and strategies for sensitivity

training. This adoption in the public sector happens with minimal concern

for the underlying values and how such techniques might conflict with

them. During this same period, a new movement, with much greater

emphasis on values and a far more active role for the public sector began to

emerge within public administration- now called the "new" public

administration.

This new public administration, which grew out of Minnowbrook,

was first examined in 1971. This group of scholars within public

administration sought to move the field away from its past tied to scientific

management, and business administration toward a more value laden, often

activist public administration. This movement was not without its

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detractors, however, including those who would ground this new public administration in more generally accepted traditions. Thompson (1975), for example, argued that this new public administration compromised the greater good, possibly by giving inconsistent and uneven services to citizens, as a result of being over enthusiastic or overly sympathetic to some citizens at the expense of others. Levine, Backoff, Cahoon, and Siffin (1975) argued that the "quest for a new public administration cannot ignore an old reality: the substance of public administration .... If indeed there is to be a new public administration, its only legitimization must lie in the ability to do these things better than before."

Possibly one of the harshest critics of this new public administration, Golembiewski (1977), states that "the new public administration bravely and self consciously sought to respond to multiple revolutions- whether in racial matters or involving the generation gap or as reflected in the growing mind set against science and technology or whatever." He argues further that the "rhetoric of the new public administration neither reflected nor inspired the application and development of skills and technologies required to give life to words prescribing what should be a better world of public administration."

The next major shift, still being debated, was an outgrowth of Minnowbrook. Specifically, its call for an activist public administration required a justification that could not simply be wedded to technical expertise; stronger support was needed for such action. Rohr (1986)

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detailed how the traditions of the U.S. constitution might be a source for this legitimate support. This argument was extended further by Wamsley, et al. (1990), using agency theory as a supplement. Terry (1995) added the role of institutional leadership to this debate, emphasizing the role of institutional values in public leadership.

This shift toward the quest for legitimacy was also not without its detractors and those seeking to rein in the arguments for legitimacy. Spicer and Terry (1993) challenged Rohr's (1986) argument on the grounds that he was presenting an overly "romantic" view of the framers of the constitution. Golembiewski (Bozeman, 1993) challenged the arguments made by Wamsley, et al. (1990), stating that for this refounding to be successful, it must stand up to an analysis based on a set of predetermined criteria, linking it back to the tradition of technical expertise. Golembiewski also determined using his criteria that the agency approach "constitutes a slippery slope, and *Refounding* lacks the required conceptual sure footedness. Consider only four senses [Golembiewski's four senses are: few of even the most attractive prescriptions can be enacted, refounding does not encourage that these propositions are well targeted, refounding is clearer about direction than degree, and its tactical expressions of degree are overly broad] in which the argument exceeds, or even gallops far beyond, its prescriptive boundaries as it tries to avoid recalcitrant realities."

Business administration, during the same period from the 1970s to the present, began to respond to a series of changes and moved toward, a

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more strategy-oriented field with a broader view of societal interaction, based on the rise of global markets (Porter, 1980). The movement emphasized business policy, ethics, and strategy making (Steiner and Steiner, 1991). This movement in business administration demonstrates a shift in focus toward dealing with the external environment- and, as a result, an identification with certain political and legal processes that were not emphasized nearly as much even 10 years earlier.

This brief and necessarily incomplete examination of how these two fields developed over the past century lays the foundation for the next phase of this dissertation. In this phase, we conceptually present the relationship between business and public administration. We focus on conceptual groupings that might used to understand both better. This is developed in the following section.

Grasping the Fields Conceptually

Looking at the development of the fields of business and public administration, one can see two useful divisions. The first is what Bozeman (1989) calls "publicness," moving from being wholly public to wholly private. The second is judgment, which Appleby (1949b) defines as moving from wholly policy oriented (synthetic judgment, based on the integration of ideas in this study) to wholly administrative (analytic judgment, based on the development of specialized skills) . This dissertation argues that these two dimensions conceptually delineate four separate categories

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among business and public administration. The four types are the statesman, executive, foreman, and bureaucrat.

Scholars have wrestled with notions of dichotomies throughout the history of the social sciences, attempting to create discrete, independent niches for each field. Weber (1978) for example, proposes three essential ways of looking at societies: They can be studied as economies, polities, or organizations. Weber's notion of an organization is closely related to what many now call institutions. Over time, scholars have developed these three ideas, (economy, polity and institution) presented by Weber, but support the notion that they are not discrete; in fact, they overlap in form and function. These ideas are useful lenses for examining societies and (more importantly, in this context) the roles of administrators in them. The public-private debate is in many ways an argument over the roles of actors in both sectors. Concern for these roles also drives the standards for professional education. The conceptual depiction of these roles, from a perspective rooted in Weber can be very insightful.

These frames (economy, polity and institution) can be divided into more distinct divisions, understandable for use in the study of business and public administration. The first division, based on Weber's (1978) conception of society and Appleby's (1949b) treatment of leadership, is constructed on the basis of judgment. This judgment involves synthetic judgments at the top, in the leadership of an organization, where many ideas are examined together to make broad decisions. At the bottom, this

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judgment involves analytic processes, where people make very narrow decisions about an area in which they have extensive expertise. Appleby states that " in the upward and downward movement of *business* [italics added], the basic question at each level is this: 'What do I need to know that will enable me to exercise the kind of judgment for which I am responsible?'"

Appleby (1949b) further critiques the notion that this judgment is a dichotomy, stating that " it makes no allowance for a wide middle ground where policy and administration meet and mingle," thus supporting the conception of judgment as a dimension rather than a dichotomy. He also states that the skills and processes of policy making and administration are reciprocal, requiring a basic understanding of the process at a minimum. At one end of this dimension, policy, persons in both business and public administration can be considered "generalists" who must synthesize information as a part of the leadership cadre (Selznick, 1957). This gives us a continuum for the first division, called judgment, with wholly synthetic judgments at one end and wholly analytic at the other.

The second dimension, provided by Bozeman (1989), is the continuum he calls "publicness," or the degree of public influence in an organization. At one end of this, we have what is considered a totally private, market-driven economy, where there is no public involvement. From this perspective, public involvement is often conceived primarily as political influence. At the other end of the spectrum, we have a totally

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"public" entity, with the views and ideals of institutions at the core of its beliefs (Selznick, 1994), reflecting non market motives.

Using these two dimensions, we can derive four categories: the statesman, executive, bureaucrat, and foreman. The statesman is defined as "one who takes a leading part in the affairs of state or body politic." The first English usage, in 1592, was tied explicitly to the public sector and leadership, underscoring its utility for this study (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993).

The executive is defined as "capable of performance, operative, a person holding an executive position in a business organization." Its first English use was in 1646, referring to the role of the executioner at the time (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993). The hiring of an executioner relates explicitly to the provision of a service, with the private sector directly noted. Thus the notion of an executive is appropriate for the second category.

The third type, bureaucrat, is " an official that endeavors to concentrate administrative power in a bureau, a member of bureaucracy." Its first English use, in 1842, arrived much later than our first two definitions, in the context of speaking about a subordinate of a Russian autocrat (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993). As the first use indicates, the bureaucrat is subordinate to the statesman, as well as on the opposite side from the executive on the leadership dimension.

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The fourth type, foreman, is defined as " the front rank, the principal workman or one who has charge of some department of work." It has been alternately defined as "one who superintends the gangers." Its first use was in 1425, referring to the leader of a herd (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993). The level of this superintendent is ambiguous, in some definitions of the term, but all refer to or imply some immediate supervisory process. Its modern use places it conceptually beneath the executive on the judgment dimension and opposite the bureaucrat on the public dimension. The classic definition of this type of manager or supervisor has not changed much with its evolution into modern use.

These four categories are by definition performing differing tasks and therefore require differing competencies to achieve them. Figure 2 illustrates these four categories across the two dimensions of this study.

[Figure 2 here]

The literature in business and public administration supports the use of these categories. The authors address both similarities and differences in the conduct of these four types, though information on statesmen and statesmanship, particularly in the United States, is relatively sparse, as is modern information concerning foremen. Much of it comes from three primary authors: Downs (1967), Storing (1980), and Taylor (1992). All three argue for a "classic" image of a statesman, which is very similar to the "good," politically astute European minister. Unfortunately, this official is difficult to place conceptually in the American system. Downs argues that

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statesmen have the characteristics of being "loyal to society as a whole, and they desire to obtain the power necessary to have a significant influence upon ... policies and actions. They are altruistic to an important degree because their loyalty is to the 'general welfare' as they see it. " This conception of statesmanship requires training in specific skill areas, best presented by Taylor and detailed later in this chapter. These skills enable the statesman to succeed in leading a bureau.

This European-style view of statesmanship requires American scholars to raise questions about issues such as overfeasance, which refers to the possibility of a statesman undertaking some action beyond what law and custom oblige or empower (Finer, 1941). Downs (1967) helps to mitigate this concern by emphasizing loyalty to the public and the limited amount of power the statesmen desire or have. Storing (1980) presents a cogent argument that helps to reconcile statesmanship with the American system of government without diminishing the need for the skills presented by Taylor (1992).

Storing (1980) argues that this lack of research on statesmanship can be attributed to the association of statesmanship with (1) ministerial, European- style government, (2) its conflict with populist democracy, and (3) the "extraordinary (and perhaps unexplainable) devotion to public duty and an understating of the principles of governmental structure and operation of the deepest kind." These three points, Storing argues, create a narrower view of statesmanship that is bounded by populist political action

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and the U.S. Constitution, which helps somewhat to distinguish the U.S. concept of statesman from its European roots. This concept, drawn from the founders and the letter of the Constitution, lets the American statesman work "the system without having to try to follow his decisions to their broadest ends." Storing, consistent with Taylor (1992), argues a need for administrators to develop the skills associated with statesmanship and to avert the shortcomings associated with a lack of true statesmen, while enabling them to function in bureaus consistent with Downs' (1967) conception of a person who is "loyal to society as a whole, and who desires to obtain the power necessary to have a significant influence" and be loyal to the "general welfare."

The private sector has a comparative wealth of information about executives. Unlike the public sector, there is little concern with problems of executive overfeasance. This is based primarily on the economic argument that poor executive leadership will merely bring about the downfall of a business, which is easily replaced in a market setting, assuming demand for the good or service that could have been provided by the unsuccessful business exists. There are no direct ties to the widespread societal impacts that might result from poor or otherwise inappropriate executive decisions in the private sector.

Foremen make for an interesting case, when one looks at the private sector. Here, foremen occupy the classic managerial role, particularly in manufacturing. This role has not deviated from the technically competent

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manager that Taylor (1967) conceived of in <u>The Principles of Scientific Management</u>. This foreman has a "good reputation and is highly thought of by his employer, who when his attention is called to this state of things . . . can keep them from sitting down" or acting inappropriately. Taylor argued that, with the proper training, these foremen had the technical insight into the production process that would enable them to divide tasks based on ability and get the most efficient work out of a group of laborers.

This foreman using Selznick's (1957) conception of leadership, fit his category of being an interpersonal, rather than an institutional leader. Such interpersonal leaders have situational expertise and are focused on helping to smooth the path of human interaction in the workplace, by allaying anxiety and implementing the policies set forth by the institutional leadership. Modern scholars like Hellriegel and Slocum (1992) associate these duties with line authority, which is "the authority to direct and control immediate subordinates who perform activities essential to achieving organizational objectives." Hampton (1986) classifies foremen as functional managers, charged with specialized slices of responsibility or activities that might pervade an organization. These functions include providing service, technical expertise, advice, monitoring, and control to the units of the line organization (see also Longnecker and Pringle, 1984; Newman, Warren, and Schnee, 1982). This conception of a foreman places it beneath our executive and opposite its closest public sector counterpart, the bureaucrat.

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Bureaucrats, conceptually, tend to spur almost uniform disapproval from many scholars of public administration. Downs (1967) describes the bureaucrat as someone who (1) works for a large organization; (2) is employed full time by an organization, from which he or she receives a major portion of his or her income; (3) takes actions that reflect a structured personnel policy and that (4) cannot be directly evaluated. As Downs notes, a bureaucrat may become a conserver: a person who values convenience, security, and the maintenance of power, income, and prestige. This notion of a conserver as a common perception of the bureaucrat stands in contrast to the more positive "street-level bureaucrat" (Lipsky, 1980).

Lipsky (1980) presents a more positive image; he paints a picture of a bureaucrat who, by his or her actions, provides technical services, makes incremental decisions that influence policy, and maintains the rights and benefits of citizens. Lipsky values the study of these bureaucrats based on the contact with citizens and immediacy of impact they have when implementing policies. These bureaucrats are technically competent, service-oriented professionals who specialize in some subset of public administration in order to maintain a professional distance consistent with Thompson's (1975) argument about professionalism, which requires a dispassionate bureaucrat, who shows neither favoritism nor any sympathy that might cause inequitable provision of a service. Lipsky argues further that these bureaucrats are accountable for their discretionary actions to citizens and society.

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This paints a picture of a bureaucrat very different from, but not incompatible with, the classic definition supported by Downs (1967). The bureaucrat is technically competent, a specialist who serves the public good through the implementation of policies in a relatively unbiased fashion, consistent with Goodnow's (1900) conception of the administrator who implements the law. A bureaucrat might need to use elements of both these basic categories to survive. Such an official must garner and maintain a power base in an organization, to insulate him or her from the political whims of society, while implementing policies set forth by the electorate and remaining compatible with the law.

When one looks at similarities among these categories, one in effect perceives the comparable roles that actors have, regardless of the type of organization. Thus, it is no surprise that studies of praxis, which take organizations into account, uncover a "blur." The public sector, as defined above, has statesmen, as defined by Taylor (1992), whereas the private sector has executives (Barnard, 1938). There are significant similarities between these statesmen and executives in scope of power, duties, and required competencies, which relate to what Waldo (1955) terms the "art" of organizing.

These competencies focus on knowledge of both the internal and external environments, communication and control, and the other intricacies associated with leadership in both sectors. This is, however, a somewhat different argument from Bozeman's (1989), since even though

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statesmen and executives may be similar, public and business administration may not be. The bureaucrat (Wilson, 1989) and foreman (Taylor, 1967) perform similar tasks in different environments. The bureaucrat is technically competent and attempts to concentrate power for longevity; the foreman, in practice, is also technically competent, charged with limited power over a specific area of an organization. Both the bureaucrat and the foreman, sometimes operate in volatile situations. This can come from close links to a concentrated power base, stemming from being a vessel for, or conserver of, institutional values- specifically, power from either statesmen or executives (Downs, 1967; Barnard, 1938). In contrast, a role of institutional leadership (Terry, 1995) may be to create new values, more suited to the practice of statesmanship.

These similarities and differences across notions of art and science, administration and management, leadership and followership, force us to address the issue holistically. Appleby (1949b) demonstrates how difficult and often inappropriate it is to examine each specific aspect in a vacuum. As a consequence, one is likely to exclude some informative piece of conceptual or empirical information, compromising the results. It is imperative, then, to examine the causes of these parallels and distinctions that exist in professionalized public and private organizations.

Developing the Public-Private Notions in Action

Barnard (1938) identified a set of core functions in which executives need to be competent to be effective. The first is the ability to maintain

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organizational communication. For a system of communication to be effective, there must be a clear understanding of the position or "scheme" of the organization, as well as strong oral and written communication skills. The second involves an informed notion of coercion, by bringing persons into cooperative leadership and eliciting their services after their being hired. This function requires sound decision-making skills based on organizational goals, effective leadership, and the ability to evaluate human resources. The third function is the formulation of purpose and objectives, which includes setting the goals of the organization. This requires strong leadership skills, the ability to formulate and evaluate the direction of an organization, and the ability to understand the external environment, including market, legal, and political processes that might affect outcomes. Barnard adds "the ethical ideal upon which cooperation depends is on the willingness to subordinate immediate personal interest for both ultimate personal interest and the general good." This indicates a place for ethical decision-making among Barnard's functions.

Taylor (1992) identifies a set of core competencies that the public-sector counterpart to an executive, the statesman, should have. The statesman must first reconcile the structure of popular rule with the need to properly exercise political responsibilities. To achieve this, the statesman must have a sound understanding of political and legal environments, as well as the ability to make decisions under conflicting goals. Given the nature of the position, the statesman must also be ethically grounded in the

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ability to subsume individual preferences to general rules of morality. The statesman must also conduct certain "quasi judicial" functions to minister to an issue (which can be considered analogous to modern-day rulemaking), using judgment based on material facts. This function requires sound decision-making, understanding of the law, and a clear understanding of the issue examined.

Taylor (1992) also specifically states that " a general knowledge of international law, foreign systems of jurisprudence, and especially a knowledge of the prominent defects of the system at home, should be diligently inculcated; and political economy should be taught with equal care, not less for the indispensable knowledge that it conveys than as a wholesome exercise for the reasoning faculty." This quote describes his conception of the role of law, politics, organizations, and economics in statesmanship, as well as the need for clear reasoning. He also demonstrates that cooperation and coercion are essential for the conduct of statesmanship. He states that statesmen "walk by the broad lines of party distinction, and [do] not imagine that the specialties of a case will exonerate them from the obligations of the adherent." Taylor also specifically emphasizes the need for decisive thought, the necessity of formulating and evaluating strategies, and effective, careful communication.

Merton (1952) and others identify the set of core competencies a bureaucrat must have. Since bureaucrats attempt to maximize vocational security, they must reconcile an understanding of the political and legal

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climates with a set of technical competencies that continually validates their existence. The two strongest competencies for a bureaucrat, according to Merton, are a clear understanding of the political and legal processes, in order to maintain the power structure associated with a position (Downs, 1967), and Gulick and Urwick's (1937) scientific competence. This supports the idea that bureaucratic competencies should include an understanding of politics, law, management, organizations, and specialized competencies such as budgeting and quantitative skills, as a means to preserve the bureaucratic position.

The foreman differs from the bureaucrat primarily in one way. The concept of "publicness," developed by Bozeman (1989), is where the bureaucrat differs from the foreman. They share similar functions, perform similar, often routinized tasks, and make decisions based on expertise in narrow areas. In contemporary managerial concepts, this category requires competencies in management, decision-making and problem-solving, as well as a knowledge of how to create and distribute a product within a market. These requirements place the modern foreman opposite the bureaucrat on the dimension of "publicness," although they share many of the same skills and competencies otherwise.

These competencies are reflected in the language of accreditation standards; the standards should relate to the skills and competencies students are expected to possess at the conclusion of their studies. The next chapter develops this translation as well as the research design by which the

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differences between business and public administration can be ascertained and assessed.

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CHAPTER III

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND VALUES

Moving the Debate: Examining Values

There have been inherent problems in the comparative literature on

public and business administration, as early as Wilson (1887) and as recent

as Robertson, et al. (1995). A need remains to ascertain precisely whether

differences between public and private administration exist. The Abbasi

(1982) study demonstrates that the examination of values might be a fruitful

endeavor. Both business and public administration claim to be professions,

based in the university; the values imparted to these professions can

therefore be associated with curricula studied. Thus, a close examination of

curricula may clearly illuminate both distinctions and commonalties

between the two fields. After these distinctions (if any) are determined,

using a systematic comparison of curricula, scholars can make more precise

claims about where the two fields are- and perhaps, where they should be

headed.

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A clear picture of the values imparted to practitioners can be obtained by looking at the manner in which public and private managers are trained. Specifically, the subject areas proposed by two public and private administration accrediting bodies, the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) and the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) are examined. There is additional value to using subject areas proposed by accrediting agencies. Perrow (1961a), as noted earlier, argues that the public image of prestige in an organization can be attributed to validating groups that provide guidelines for, and test products based on claims made by, organizations being examined. Accrediting agencies are one type of external "validating group" for higher education. An alternative method to accreditation for gaining prestige is through quality research, which can leverage funds, space, and equipment in university settings (Kraemer and Perry, 1989). Perrow (1961b) emphasizes the role of teaching by arguing that major operating policies are shaped by areas of emphasis- which, in the case of university-based degree programs, is determined by accrediting bodies. According to Perrow, these policies play a major role in determining how successful organizations are at gaining resources and expanding functions. The continued success of such policies therefore is linked to legitimacy, which reflects how uniformly university degree programs follow accreditation guidelines.

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This question of shared values, legitimacy, and higher education can be illuminated by the Honey report. Honey (1967) is one of the first scholars to articulate the direction of university training, as well as the values and philosophies associated with public administration. In an extensive report, Honey presents teaching, research, and philosophical directions in public administration in an effort to move it towards a valid profession. The directions include moving faculty toward more common training. The Honey report was the centerpiece of a debate over how public administration is to achieve professional status and effective educational programs. Banovetz (1967) echoes Honey, arguing that public administration needs to refocus its training strategy toward a set of skills linked intimately with praxis, yet divergent from the foci of both political science and business administration. Banovetz claims this would help distinguish public administration as a profession and provide graduates with a more marketable set of skills. Once this groundwork had been laid, a series of studies examined and critiqued public administrations process of professionalization.

Several scholars of note have examined the components and effectiveness of this professionalization strategy. Schott (1976) indicates that a lengthy, specialized training in a body of abstract knowledge, combined with a service ideal, is necessary for professionalism. He also states this professionalism can be measured through a set of common values, cohesiveness, or community. Keller, Green, and Wamsley (1996) argue this

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point further, stating that a public vocation, based on normatively grounded professionalism, is necessary for professional integrity, efficacy, and legitimacy in governance. Medeiros (1974) takes this a step further, first questioning whether public administration has agreed on a set of traits that would create an ideal administrator. He then addresses the question of general versus specialized training, which in this study is reflected in the difference between focus on synthetic judgments and on analytic judgments.

Fritschler and Mackelprang (1977) have favorably reviewed the professionalization process. They indicate that, " in terms of content and focus, there is substantially more consistency among programs than was observed in 1973. Programs in PA/A appear to be reaching a fair degree of consensus on the fundamental aspects of graduate education in PA/A." Concurrently, progress of this professionalism has also been tested by Engelbert (1977), who shows a less optimistic tone. He suggests that, to be successful, NASPAA needs to focus primarily on the MPA education, highlighted with a "discrete but generic" public management curriculum, rather than the mixture of general and specialized programs that exist. He further argues that any accreditation should be delayed until "specific standards for different types of programs are established and accepted." Ironically, guidelines and standards for master's programs adopted in 1974, for doctoral programs in 1975, and for baccalaureate programs in 1976 may have pre-empted his results to a great extent. This early research highlights the critical nature of curricula in professional degree programs. Given its

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importance, a focus on those who train practitioners should prove insightful.

Stronger support for the influence of university education on training and technical assistance comes from Wharton, Gibson, and Dunn (1986). They demonstrate the extent to which values are shared between providers (university directors of research institutes) and consumers (state officials and local government managers). Using a highly aggregated set of priorities (four categories) they found that academic program priorities were "considerably divergent from those of state officials and local government managers." The research proposed here differs remarkably from their study in three ways. First, this study focuses on professors rather than on directors of research institutes. Second, it uses 11 stimuli instead of 4, making it far less aggregated. Third, the focus of this study is on teaching priorities primarily, in contrast to their service provision focus.

The Wharton, Gibson, and Dunn (1986) study provides valuable insight for this study. It demonstrates the potential for a disconnect between the values of practitioners and those of professors, making it a valuable tool to prevent overstating results. This study as mentioned above, uses 11 stimuli (representing curriculum areas) common in varying degrees to both public and business administration, and adapted from NASPAA and AACSB standards, which represent the current values that are somewhat shared by each profession.

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By presenting relatively "common" subject matter and asking that participants rank the importance of these subjects, this study addresses a number of problems the earlier literature faced. First, it asks, based on these curricula, whether there are both similarities and differences, as the literature proposes. Second, controlling for program type, and measuring both the degree of confidence in the subjects' responses and the levels of agreement within each group of academicians, the study ascertains whether there are systematic reasons for the differences and overlaps proposed in the literature.

Once these empirical examinations are made, they can be used to answer the research question. The results, by either validating or invalidating the distinctions and similarities between business and public administration, move debate forward. The study hopes to accomplish this by presenting a conceptual frame to address the hypothesized similarities and differences, then testing them by using a powerful statistical procedure, providing arguably the clearest results to date on this topic. As a result, it may contribute significantly to both private and public administration literature.

Values and Professional Education

Professional education has been subjected to rigorous scrutiny over the past several years. In many fields- primarily in psychology, but also in public administration- there are several evaluations of the role of education. These evaluations are particularly extensive in the area of curriculum

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standards. In the following section, we examine the role of values and how they relate to the teaching of public administration, drawing heavily on psychology literature (among others).

In the case of public administration, there are many reasons for having standards for education. These include prestige, professional validation, increased enrollments, more competent practitioners, and general improvement in the field. There is a strong demand for producing and upgrading the quality of public personnel, as well as a strong belief that top- rate managers will attract and retain top personnel (Stone, 1975). This idea is an extension of the "good government" movement, with roots as far back as Wilson and Goodnow. Consistent with this tradition, Stone advocates technical management training along the lines of "functional programs," including public works, environmental control, and finance and budgeting. Publishing in the same year, Thompson (1975) further supports this view, arguing for a competent, dispassionate administration, and pointing out many problems associated with "new" public administration (Marini, 1971). It is important to realize that this "new" public administration was not the only perspective during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Many other views of the field and its practice have been developed, including Minnowbrook and its intellectual progeny. However, this progeny offers more of a diverse criticism of what is perceived as the mainstream than a coherent school of thought, since many Minnowbrook scholars differ remarkably on means to implement their ideas, the relative

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importance of specific topics, and justification for them. One of the most important influences is the current use of guidelines rather than standards for public administration, allowing the spawn of Minnowbrook to create programs in their own image.

More recently, support for a "common standard" with a rigorous programmatic focus has changed. NASPAA has moved away from a single standard to multiple perspectives. Dennis (1984) points to problems associated with selecting standards. He states, "A thornier thicket awaits those who propose standards for public administration programs, especially if used as a basis for accreditation. Any proposal must be broad enough to capture the rich diversity of possible subjects, yet specific enough to offer meaningful guidance to teachers and students." What this means to public administration is the real question of how to balance accreditation of a diverse set of programs while maintaining the sort of rigor necessary for professional prestige. In this study, such a movement away from a common standard makes the selection of variables (stimuli[v]) more difficult.

Psychology has been at the forefront of this academic debate. Over the past 6 years, psychology professors have struggled with the current state of the discipline and its future through a series of debates and conferences about professionalism. Davis, Alcorn, Brooks, and Meara (1992) discussed the creation of a common professional core that would closely align training with practice. They arrived at a set of six core competencies that should have been acceptable to their accrediting body. Much like the

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concerns raised in Dennis' (1984) piece, criticisms of a highly structured curriculum included jeopardizing the "uniqueness" of psychological programs (Davis, et al., 1992; Meara, et al., 1988).

Several concerns about accreditation are highlighted by these cross-disciplinary debates. First, from psychology and public administration literature, we see a concern about setting program boundaries. Second, an important issue is the competence and competitiveness of graduates in the workplace. Third, credibility and prestige of programs are of concern. Finally, a fourth is "to provide a normalization function often to increase quality" as well as increase sensitivity to social issues (Meara, et al., 1988).

In trying to make sense of these values, a common dilemma has developed: How do these fields maintain the core values of their respective professions, and what is the nature of these values? In the case of public and business administration, we can compare preferences among values relevant to the profession and relate choices to the conceptual framework created in Chapter 2. This framework, drawing on the crucial dimensions of publicness and judgment, jointly defines desirable professional attributes. The next chapter addresses the task of measuring the preferences.

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CHAPTER IV

DESIGN, HYPOTHESES, AND METHOD

The concepts presented earlier, combined with accreditation

guidelines from both NASPAA and AACSB, let us arrive at 11 variables for

course curricula. Figure 3 represents how these two sets of standards were

distilled into 11 variables (stimuli), including sources for the theoretical

justification for their inclusion.

The criteria for selection of these 11 stimuli were based on the

following decision rules. First, each of the stimuli must appear in the

curriculum guidelines written by AACSB and NASPAA, either explicitly or

as a combination of textual references. This was ascertained as being

sensitive to the slightly different language used in both documents and the

different argots of the fields. Second, each of these stimuli must have been

referred to explicitly as a skill, or implicitly as a function, in the body of

literature examined in Chapter 2. The text or texts that refer to these stimuli

appear in Figure 3. Third, these stimuli were then edited slightly to reflect

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verbiage common to both fields of study before inclusion. The figure

presents the 11 most common areas where business and public

administration overlap conceptually, and provides direct sources for where

these common areas were drawn from in the literature. These 11 areas then

provide the basis for the empirical section of the dissertation.

[Figure 3 here]

Using this information, we can address the research question about any

fundamental differences in public and private administrative values that

may help determine differences between the two professions. Furthermore,

more informed tests can be done by organizing the samples in different

configurations. Such configurations are often suggested by the literature.

For example, some scholars question the relationship between political

science and public administration (Keller and Spicer, 1997; Downes, 1982;

Keller and Laudicina, 1982). Following these suggestions, it might be useful

to divide the sample.

Hypotheses

Based on the literature and research question, there was one primary

hypothesis and several secondary hypotheses. Figure 2, presented in

Chapter 2, illustrates the conceptual layout for the hypotheses.

These hypotheses are presented in traditional null-alternative format.

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Primary Hypothesis

H0: There are no systematic differences between the values of business and public administration priorities, as defined by the 11 stimuli in this study.

H1: There are systematic differences between these values, and they are attributable to a variety of factors.

This hypothesis tests the conceptual dimension of "publicness" presented by Bozeman (1989) in this dissertation, using stimuli that reflect the 11 areas common to business and public administration education. The 11 areas drawn from both the literature and from national accrediting bodies, along with their textual sources, appear in Figure 3. If there is no difference in priorities of these stimuli, we can conclude there is no observable difference between business and public administration in this case.

Secondary Hypotheses

H0₁: There are no differences between the values which scholars relate to statesmanship and those that relate to executive leadership.

H1₁: There are systematic differences in the priorities that scholars relate to values for statesmanship and executive leadership.

H0₂: There are no systematic differences between the priorities of values for scholars training foremen and those training bureaucrats.

H1₂: There are strong systematic differences between the priorities of values for scholars training foremen and those training bureaucrats.

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These two sets of hypotheses relate to the dimension "judgment" (Appleby, 1949b), and how it might interact with the dimension "publicness." First, the dissertation must ask whether there were differences between business and public administration generally. Second, it should discover whether these differences can be attributed to some systematic differences along the judgment dimension. If there are no observable differences along this dimension, leadership or executive training in this study is simply a semantic difference, with no substantive support.

H0₃: There is no systematic clustering of priorities across the four quadrants listed in Figure 2.

H1₃: There is systematic clustering of priorities across the four quadrants listed in Figure 2.

The use of cluster analysis as a secondary tool might prove useful, if the data do not support a two-dimensional solution based on size or impact. If the data tend to cluster together in four groups, these groups can then be tested for association with the conceptual framework the respondent should be in, based on the questionnaire. If there is no observable statistically significant clustering, and PROSCAL does not indicate a two-dimensional solution, we can conclude there was no observable difference in one or both of the proposed dimensions in this study. In essence, this technique is a secondary tool to look for patterns in the data collected.

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Method

The complexity of the hypotheses, theoretical interrelationships, and comparative lack of certainty about the stimuli required several steps. First, a questionnaire, based on the hypothesized stimuli and previous research, was constructed. The instrument was designed for the target groups of business and public administration professors. Second, given the potentially diverse nature of the population surveyed, a pilot study was necessary. Third, given the hypotheses, a rather complex and nonstandard set of empirical techniques needed to be brought to bear on this problem. The following section examines these topics and provides justification for each step.

Sampling Design

The research question of this study focuses on the priorities of values that university professors of business and public administration have, looking specifically at the managerial and leadership aspects of their views. Unfortunately, the logically obvious sources for current data on the population, NASPAA and AACSB, have records that are roughly 3 to 5 years out of date on their professorial membership. Therefore, it was necessary to turn to a commercial source, the College Marketing Group Information Service (CMG), for the most current information available.

CMG, unlike several other sources, compiles faculty rosters for over 700,000 professors and 3,700 universities. They update these lists each semester, by school, and use supplemental questionnaires to department

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chairs to ensure the most accurate information possible in the United States

and Canada (CMG, 1996). Given this level of precision, the company's

database was the source for the sample used in this study.

The study used a total of 2,000 subjects, which ideally should have

yielded a final n of 200 or more, consisting of randomly selected professors

of public and private administration. The master list of professors

generated by CMG provided the population for this sample. CMG also

randomly selected the sample of 1,000 business and 1,000 public

administration professors, providing the names and addresses for each on

self-sticking mailing labels. Each of these labels was coded and copied to

track responses. This made it possible to perform all the necessary

procedures, including follow-up contact and mailings (Dillman, 1978; Fink,

1995). Following this strategy also helped determine how representative

the final number of returns were when compared to the target populations,

limiting several potential sources of bias.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was a combination of the 11 stimuli created from

the 11 items shared between business and public administration

accreditation standards and literature, and demographic information that

was demonstrated (either logically or in the literature) to possibly influence

the results. Respondents were asked to asked to rank their preferences

among these stimuli, arranged in pairs. The following section describes in

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detail the questionnaire used in this study, including the structure of responses within the research instrument.

There were 11 stimuli used in this analysis. The questionnaire appears in Appendix B . Textual origins appear in Figure 3. They include: General Competencies, Quantitative Research Methods, Finance and Budgeting, Economics, Management Concepts, Organization Studies, Decision Making and Problem Solving, Political and Legal Processes, Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services, Strategy Making and Evaluation, and Ethics. The stimuli are organized using Ross' (1934) optimum order for the presentation of paired comparisons. Following Ross' order was necessary, since it eliminates space and time errors through sequencing, avoids regular repetitions that might influence judgments, and maintains the greatest possible spacing between pairs involving any given member of a stimulus group. Avoiding bias, either in judgment or based on regular repetition, is essential for preference analysis.

Based on the Brun and Teigen (1988) research, a nine-point scale was initially used for comparison. Their research indicated that ordinal scales were a viable alternative to using ratio level probability scales, since it enabled respondents to more easily visualize differences and helped reduce confusion of the respondents from mental stress associated with making ratio level comparisons.

The demographic information presented afterward was straightforward. The first two questions determined group membership

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and leadership training level (a proxy for judgment). The next questions

addressed gender, race, and terminal degree of the respondent. These were

used to further clarify relationships among the data in the secondary

analysis. Specifically, this dissertation examined whether variation in the

priorities might be attributed to some external factor, such as race or

gender, rather than the hypothesized differences based on group

membership. The next section addressed the administrative units where

the respondent works (Fritschler and Mackelprang, 1977). Its inclusion was

justified by (Downes, et al., 1982), and other literature, demonstrating how

administrative units might be powerful factors that could influence

responses, rather than those hypothesized in this study.

Pilot Study

To ensure the meaningfulness of the stimuli used in the

questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. Even though business and

public administration accreditation standards include nominally similar

topics, it was possible that they might be expressed- and more importantly,

understood- quite differently. Regional schools of business administration

were contacted by phone beforehand, and provided with a draft of the

questionnaire. This questionnaire appears in Appendix B. Given the

composition of the dissertation committee, a pilot study of public

administration professors was deemed unnecessary. The professors were

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asked to comment on the stimuli and demographic questions, to determine if any problems with either clarity or representativeness existed.

Concerns about the initial questionnaire centered on three major areas. The first was the use of a nine-point scale, rather than the more traditional 100 point bidirectional one. The second was a question of semantics: where substantive differences in the interpretation of the stimuli might occur, based on membership in either the public administration or the business administration group. The third major concern centered on the inclusion and exclusion of specific pieces of demographic information that might be useful tools for classifying the relationships stated in the hypothesis section. The following paragraphs narrate the initial corrections to these concerns, as well as the feedback obtained from respondents in the pilot study.

The first area of concern addressed was the use of field-specific terms that might be misinterpreted by some respondents. *Quantitative analysis* was changed to *quantitative research methods*, to reflect a broader treatment of empirical research without as much of a bias toward specific fields of study such as operations research- sometimes called operations management. *Economics and markets* was changed to *economics*- also to mitigate possible group biases that might arise. *Creation and distribution of goods and services* was changed to *provision and distribution of goods and services*, and *program formulation implementation and evaluation* was changed to *strategy making and*

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evaluation, also to more closely reflect current terms and their use in both fields.

The second and third areas of concern were resolved primarily through the conduct of a pilot study. A group of 20 business administration professors from five different regional campuses were purposively selected to test the initial questionnaire. Business administration faculty were used exclusively in the pilot study, based on concerns about interpretation of the stimuli. Similar issues in public administration were handled by the dissertation committee. Each respondent received a hand-delivered copy of the initial questionnaire and was asked to comment on its quality, layout, ambiguity, demographic variable selection, and interpretation of the stimuli. Eighteen of the 20 questionnaires were returned, all with feedback.

Approximately 12% of respondents in the pilot study became confused with the nine-point scale, indicating that they believed a Likert-type scale would be more appropriate. Brun and Teigen (1988) argued that individuals interpretation of probability terms is varied, especially when using a 100-point probability scale. They determined it was easier for respondents to make less ambiguous judgments on a seven-point scale, without reducing response variability. Since a Likert-type scale would not be useful given the selection of PROSCAL, it was decided that Brun and Teigen's argument for a simplified scale would not be followed to reduce confusion by respondents; therefore, the nine-point scale was converted to the standard 100-point bidirectional scale. To further decrease confusion,

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more explicit directions were included in the final survey instrument, and the font size for the paired comparisons was increased to improve readability.

The demographic information also went through a series of changes. First, the question about orientation of professional training, which is essential for classification in this study, was changed to reflect the primary orientation of training. The question about duties was converted from categories to percentages to more accurately reflect combinations of administrative, teaching and research. Race was changed to ethnicity, to make the wording politically correct. Year that Ph.D. or D.B.A. granted was changed to year terminal degree granted. Major was changed to field, and a question about age was included. Size of school was not included in this questionnaire, primarily due to length constraints. Numerous stylistic changes were made to the entire questionnaire to improve the quality of information gathered and the clarity of questions in the demographic section. The final questionnaire that was used appears in Appendix B. Once sufficient data had been returned, they were coded and manipulated using FORTRAN. Appendix C documents the process of distribution and coding.

The empirical centerpiece of this study is PROSCAL, a set of multidimensional scaling procedures. Multidimensional scaling is a group of techniques that spatially represent how similar or different a set of objects or stimuli are based on proximity either to each other or to some theoretical point. These techniques reveal implicit structures in data,

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providing insights that are otherwise not possible (Kruskal and Wish, 1978). PROSCAL is arguably the most appropriate and powerful technique for testing the research questions in this study. It is a probabilistic scaling technique that allows researchers to determine structures associated with specific data as well as test hypotheses (Mackay and Zinnes, 1982; Kruskal and Wish, 1978) PROSCAL specifically differs from many other techniques that are, for one reason or another, not appropriate, precise, or sufficiently robust enough for use in this research. One example of the next most appropriate choice would be the analytic hierarchy process (AHP). AHP does not have PROSCAL's ability to work with variances, which provided some of the most useful information in this study for measuring agreement. PROSCAL also is able to statistically test the dimensions of a solution, whether or not the data occupy similar geometric space, and both the levels of disagreement and individual confidence in responses.

The study relied on PROSCAL's ability to construct attribute spaces for examining preference judgments (Mackay and Zinnes, 1995). Space refers to the type of geometric distribution that data can take, which could be either isotropic or anisotropic. Isotropic distributions are spherical, symmetric, and do not vary when transformed orthogonally. Anisotropic distributions, in contrast, allow for directional dominance by permitting unequal variances from some target point or set of points in different dimensions, and allow for correlation among the data.

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These attributes of an anisotropic space analysis were potentially very useful in this study. As Figure 2, described earlier, demonstrated, there are complex conceptual relationships hypothesized to exist among the 11 stimuli drawn from curricula. There was also some implicit correlation between the curricula, attributed to either statesmen, executives, bureaucrats, or foremen. This correlation might also have existed for program type, public, ethnicity, and other demographic information. Anisotropic space analyses are resource intensive in terms of both data and computer usage, and would have been used only if an isotropic space analysis was determined to be inadequate (Mackay and Zinnes, 1996).

PROSCAL unlike other scaling techniques, including the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), has another essential strength: It provides variances for the data being examined. In this study, these variances represent the agreement or confidence in differences that each of the categories presented in Figure 2 might have. This translated into a solid measure of how consistent the preferences are within each group of respondents. PROSCAL also provides a mean location of the preferences for each curriculum element being examined; it is able to accomplish this through the use of maximum-likelihood estimators.

There were certain procedures undertaken to ensure that data were consistent, representative, and being properly tested. The first test the data were subjected to was transitivity, in which measures were checked for violations of the following logic for all combinations: if a subject prefers A

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to B, and B to C then he or she must prefer A to C. Low percentage

violations of transitivity were critical for the researcher to be comfortable

with the assumption that the subjects are familiar with the stimuli being

presented, rather than simply recognizing them. It was possible that subjects

might have been prioritizing and interpreting the stimuli differently, which

would have been reflected by highly intransitive judgments. Another

source of intransitivity occurred when respondents did not pay adequate

attention to completing the questionnaire.

Once the transitivity was tested, the data were tested for

dimensionality. In this dissertation, dimensionality is an important

component of the conceptual framework used. The two dimensions of the

conceptual framework may or may not hold, which provides information

about the data. The third test conducted on the data was an analysis of

attribute space. Space, as defined earlier, is the geometric area in which

dimensions and objects are located. The attribute space is assumed to reflect

the psychological space within which judgments are generated in the

respondents' minds. In order to be statistically comparable the data must

share a common space. If they did not, one group views and evaluates the

data in a manner completely different from another. Once these tests were

accomplished, PROSCAL provided maximum-likelihood estimates.

Maximum-likelihood estimates maximize the value of whatever

function is used. By specifying a starting function, based on which curricula

fit in a group or set hypothesized earlier, PROSCAL statistically determines

the log - likelihood for a group configuration, which can then be tested after using Coombs' (1964) "ideal point" concept as the mathematical basis to configure the data prior to the tests. The ideal points are then fitted as part of the PROSCAL solution. After this is done, each hypothesis of group differences is tested, consistent with Figure 2, with additional procedures to determine whether group membership has any appreciable effect on curriculum priorities (Bowen et. al, 1996).

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Results

The results of the analysis are divided into several parts. Descriptive

statistics support the representativeness of the sample data. The test of

dimensionality determines how well conceptual framework used in this

dissertation matched the data in the sample. The space analysis section

determines whether the information in these preference spaces is

statistically comparable. Individual-level PROSCAL data are then used to

test the primary and secondary hypotheses. The final section describes the

PROSCAL group results. Each of these sections helps to incrementally

answer the central hypotheses of this research. After manipulation, the

dataset was modeled, using PROSCAL algorithms.

Descriptive Statistics

Univariate statistics demonstrate that the sample appears reasonably

representative of the population. The typical respondent was a Caucasian

male with a mean age of 49 years, consistent with information from both

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NASPAA and the US Department of Education.[vi] There also were a total of

56 females in the study, 20 from the business administration subgroup and

36 from the public administration subgroup, which is slightly over-

representative of the general population of professors in the study groups.

These numbers are not statistically different across the subgroups from each

other at the .05 level. The sample also had a small number of minorities, 27

(roughly 10%) of the total for the study. This is also consistent with the U.S.

Department of Education and NASPAA surveys, which indicated between

6% and 10% minority professors in either group. The respondents were also

similarly distributed across tiers, with limited numbers of responses from

tier 1 institutions and many from regional and tier 4 institutions.[vii]

Professorial rank was distributed as follows: 9.2% were of the instructor

rank, 20% were assistant professors, 26% were associate professors, and 44%

were full professors. The rank measure is also consistent with US

Department of Education and NASPAA statistics, which indicate that

between 40% and 45% of business and public administration faculty

members hold the rank of full professor. 95% of the professors in this study

were employed full time. 45.3% of the public administration professors

were part of a department of political science, 23.2% of the professors were

in an autonomous public affairs/administration unit and 12.7% indicated

they were a part of a separate department of public administration within a

liberal arts program. Business administration professors were most

frequently a part of an autonomous business administration or management

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school (40%), a separate program within a liberal arts college (21.4%), or part of a joint program in business or economics (14.3%).

Transitivity

The next phase of this research began with the test of transitivity, outlined in the instrumentation section. The level of transitivity used was .15, which is a bit larger than the .10 criterion commonly used with PROSCAL and AHP. The .10 transitivity criterion left a number of observations just outside of the acceptance range within .02, whereas the .15 level appeared to be more practical, leaving a distance of .03 above and below it. Adopting the .15 level also increased the sample size by a full 80% of usable observations, compared to the .10 level. This yielded a total of 205 transitive cases, 151 from public administration and 54 from business administration. 85.7% of the female professors surveyed provided transitive judgments, whereas 80.5% of males provided transitive judgments; although interesting, these results are not significant at the .05 level. There was no significant difference between the business and public administration professors' level of transitivity at the .05 level, with 77% transitivity for business administration professors and 83.4% for public administration professors. There was no indication of systematic biases between the two subgroups based on transitivity.

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Dimensionality

After transitive judgments were obtained, tests of dimensionality were conducted for the 205, as a whole, and for the two subgroups of 54 (business administration) and 151 (public administration), respectively. The dimensionality tests for two dimensions versus three dimensions indicated equal log-likelihoods for the constrained (two-dimensional with three degrees of freedom) vs. unconstrained (three dimensional with three degrees of freedom) solutions. The log-likelihoods for a single dimension versus two dimensions behaved similarly. The simpler solution is preferable in this case, since results indicated the one-dimensional solution was the most parsimonious, given the lack of significance for the two or three-dimensional solutions.

Space Analysis

Once dimensionality for the models was determined, a potentially difficult question arose. There was some concern about whether the stimuli (curriculum areas) were being interpreted consistently by both subgroups. If the two groups interpreted and prioritized these stimuli differently, it would be reflected by the two groups not sharing the same stimulus space. This can be tested statistically to see whether the two subgroups share the same stimulus space. If the same stimulus space is shared, each of the curriculum areas are being interpreted similarly by each subgroup; if they

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are not, the subgroups are interpreting and prioritizing the stimuli

sufficiently different to be statistically incommensurable to each other.

Mechanically, this was tested externally, using one ideal point in

unidimensional space, by comparing the log likelihoods of the groups

(Mackay, 1995). This was done by first adding the two log-likelihoods

calculated individually for the two subgroups (public administration

professors and business administration professors) together. Next, a log-

likelihood was produced for the combined group, and they were compared

by testing for differences, using a chi-square test with degrees of freedom

calculated as n*ndim -ndim*(ndim+1)/2. This yielded degrees of freedom

measure = 112, with an enormous chi-square value of 23897.12. The critical

chi-square value for 100 degrees of freedom is 140.169, causing the

researcher to reject the hypothesis that the two groups are from the same

stimulus space. This made the first hypothesis, as defined earlier,

inconclusive.

Such a finding appeared, on the surface, to raise serious questions

about the utility of additional statistical analysis on this topic. The

researcher reviewed the data once again carefully and determined it might

be fruitful to remove the professors of political science from the dataset and

retest the dimensionality. The logic behind this, simply, is that there may

be little or no administrative component taught in political science. Using

this logic of a revised dataset, with the political science professors removed,

dimensionality was reexamined, and the unidimensional solution still held.

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After this, the space analysis was conducted again, this time with a chi-square of 0.02 and 110 degrees of freedom. The difference in using this revised dataset was not statistically significant, validating that the two revised groups share the same stimulus space and allowing statistical comparison.

Individual Level Analysis

The next phase of this analysis examines the hypotheses, using the individual preference judgments calculated for the 127 transitive cases (54 business administration and 73 public administration observations) occupying the same stimulus space and using PROSCAL's Case V solution. The Case V solution provides distances from the ideal point for each stimulus and estimates a single standard deviation for the entire individual solution (all stimuli), which measures overall uncertainty- in this case, for each individual's judgments. This was used for two reasons: First, it provided a measure of individual uncertainty; and second, with one set of preferences per person, a Case III solution, which estimates a single standard deviation for each stimulus, was not possible with the data collected. After the distances were calculated, the Euclidean distances were transformed into standardized scores for hypothesis testing. These standardized distances were then rejoined with the original database for conventional hypothesis testing.

The first hypothesis- whether there were any systematic differences between the values of business and public administration professors- was

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initially tested using a simple MANOVA with an identity matrix. A MANOVA using an identity matrix is one of the simplest, most robust methods for analyzing the individual preferences. Though other techniques are possible, the MANOVA accomplishes this in one of the simplest ways. Values could not be directly measured, since they are often confounded with the effects of perceptions. This confound can be the result of individual differences in perception of a stimulus, as well as the differing process of evaluation of a stimulus. This problem could have been avoided through the use of both preference and dissimilarity judgments. To test the first hypothesis, it was necessary to examine the preferences of the 11 curriculum areas. Since the space analysis indicated common space for the business and public administration faculty, they tend to share common perceptions of the stimuli, justifying this approach. The initial hypothesis testing used the raw judgments and the nominal indication of whether a respondent was a public or business administration professor in the model. The results had Wilk's lambda, Pillai's Trace, Hotelling-Lawley and Roy's Max root statistics[viii] all significant at .0001 (Bray and Maxwell, 1985). This indicates that, without political scientists included, there are strong statistical differences between the priorities of business and public administration professors in this study.

The next phase of testing, for this first hypothesis, used the standardized z-scores instead of the raw data and the same nominal indicator of group membership that came directly off the questionnaire. Using the standardized judgments and this nominal indicator of group

membership, the MANOVA generated the same statistics (Wilk's lambda, Pillai's Trace, Hotelling-Lawley, and Roy's Max root) listed above, only this time they were only significant at .25.

Given the initial test of significance using the raw data, the researcher determined that the nominal indicator of group membership was sufficiently imprecise to warrant the creation of a more refined measurement. The question about degree type from the final questionnaire in Appendix B was used to refine the measure of group membership, assigning the value of 1 to all degrees common to public administration professors, a 2 to all degrees common to business administration professors, and a 0 to all degrees that are either ambiguous or not central to either (e.g., computer science, 4 respondents; sociology, 4 respondents; psychology 3 respondents; and social psychology 2 respondents). Using this refined grouping measure, a second MANOVA was performed, using an identity matrix. This time, the MANOVA statistics were significant at the .0001 level, now consistent with the results from the raw data, allowing the rejection of the null for the primary hypothesis.

In addition to the primary hypothesis, several secondary hypotheses were explored to illuminate any similarities and differences between business and public administration. Using this framework, we can more clearly detail the potential differences between business and public administration. These differences might have been attributed to complex

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interactions, among relationships along the judgment dimension and publicness dimension which might not otherwise be examined.

The secondary hypotheses in this dissertation proved more problematic. The next three hypotheses were dependent on sufficient measures for the leadership question on the survey. Unfortunately, only 28 of the transitive respondents indicated that they trained leaders, with 12.9% out of the total business administration professors used , and 13.9% out of the total public administration professors. It is not surprising, based on the dimensionality tests, to find that, for the raw data, the differences were only significant at .1027; for the standardized preferences, there was clearly no apparent statistical relationship between leadership and the standardized preferences. This forced the researcher to fail to reject the null for secondary hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. These hypotheses were as follows: There are no differences between the values scholars relate to statesmanship and those that relate to executive leadership; there are no systematic differences between the priorities of values for scholars training foremen and those training bureaucrats; and there is no systematic clustering of priorities across the four quadrants listed in figure 2. It is possible that the level of training indicator, much like the initial business public administration grouping variable, is also sufficiently imprecise to warrant creating a more refined measure. It is also possible that the professors surveyed could not distinguish their interpretations on the basis of whether they claim to train upper-level students who would be in positions consistent with being either

a statesman or an executive. So, despite the nominal claim that these respondents made about their training emphasis, there was no statistical support for it. Unfortunately, in this case, the researcher lacks the information necessary to accomplish a more precise analysis using the data at hand.

The fourth secondary hypothesis was a question of clustering. There are two caveats that need to be made before proceeding further. First, as with the first three secondary hypotheses, there was no empirical support for the four quadrants of the conceptual framework. Second, based on the information available, PROSCAL determined there was a unidimensional solution for the data, further undermining the argument for a two-dimensional framework. To further test this unidimensional solution, the researcher performed a cluster analysis with an initial four-cluster solution, consistent with the conceptual framework. Only two clusters dominated, with 25 in one cluster and 172 in another and the remaining 8 in the other two. The marginal performance of the four-cluster solution, based on this data, along with the lackluster performance of the two-dimensional solution in PROSCAL, indicates it might not be fruitful to explore the judgment dimension in future research. Although it proved insignificant in this study, it is a critical area of inquiry for both fields. If further research had more refined notions of group membership, including advocates of new public administration, public management, and others, it might prove possible for clustering to occur along these refinements.

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PROSCAL's Case V model provides standard deviations for each

respondent's judgment. This gives a measure of the relative uncertainty,

with the individual's prioritization of the stimuli. These standard deviations

were tested, using a simple ANOVA and the refined measure of group

membership based on terminal degree granted. The groups had mean

standard deviations of 13.12 for public administration, 16.27 for business

administration professors, and 23.66 for those holding nontraditional

degrees. These standard deviations for both public administration and

business administration professors are significantly different from those

holding nonstandard degrees at the .05 level. This becomes more

interesting since there are comparable numbers of these nonstandard degree

types in both the original business and public administration subgroups.

This points toward a possible explanation for part of the "blur" between

business and public administration, based on the literature covered earlier.

People with degrees in business or public affairs/administration appear to

have clearer and more distinct sets of preferences. This leads one to believe

that the blur noted in the literature might in part be attributed to these

differences.

Group Analysis

The group priorities were examined using PROSCAL's Case III

model, which estimates a standard deviation for each stimulus and ideal

point. The standard deviation in this Case III model is an indicator of the

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level of agreement for each of the subgroup's priorities. Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the group rankings for business and public administration.

[Figures 4 and 5 about here]

These rankings were sorted based on highest utility (smallest number), using both the simple and statistical distances from PROSCAL. The statistical distance takes the level of agreement into account for the purposes of ranking, whereas the simple (Euclidean) distance gives a preference independent of uncertainty. The disagreement indicator also appears in both tables, with higher numbers indicating more disagreement about the rankings.

The simple distances provide some interesting information about these two groups. The top two priorities for business administration are provision and distribution of goods and services (ranked first), and strategy making and evaluation (ranked second). Business administration also appears to rank management concepts, quantitative research methods, finance and budgeting, general competencies, and organization studies equally. These stimuli all share the third position for business administration. This is followed closely by decision-making and problem-solving, ranked fourth; political and legal processes, ranked fifth; economics, ranked sixth; and ethics, ranked last.

Public administration, using the simple distances, ranks management concepts first, followed by quantitative research methods, general competencies, and finance and budgeting- all taking the second position.

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This is followed by organization studies at third, decision-making and problem-solving fourth, followed by political and legal processes, strategy making and evaluation, economics, and ethics. Provision and distribution of goods and services occupies the last position, using the simple distances.

Using simple distances does not provide an overall picture of these group priorities, though it provides the best picture of the "pure" preferences of each group. Simple distances do not take levels of disagreement into account when preferences are ranked by PROSCAL. To get a better summary description of these priorities and take disagreement into account, the study must examine the statistical distances. The statistical distance implicitly decreases a preference rating if there is less agreement about the stimuli's position. So with this measure, by taking agreement into account, we get a picture of how these preferences vary, with preferences that are more consistently agreed upon receiving a higher rank.

Using the statistical distances, we get a different picture of the group priorities. For business administration, quantitative research methods and political and legal processes share the highest rank. For quantitative research methods, this is an upward move of two places; for political and legal processes, this is an upward move of four, due to the greater agreement about the relative preference of these stimuli. Ethics moves from the bottom to the second position, and economics moves from the sixth to the third. Provision and distribution of goods and services drops from the number one position to fourth. There are also remarkable changes in

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strategy making and evaluation, which moves from second to seventh, whereas management concepts drops to eighth from third.

Public administration also changes dramatically, using the statistical differences. Management concepts drop from first to the bottom, and provision of goods and services jumps from the bottom to the first position. Economics moves from seventh to second, and ethics jumps from eighth to fourth. Organization studies drops to eighth from third, and finance and budgeting drops from second to ninth, painting an interesting picture of the public administration preferences.

What this means, for both groups, is that there are large disagreements about which stimuli are most important. For business administration, the subjects place quantitative methods, finance and budgeting, and the provision of goods and services consistently in the top half of all stimuli. This indicates these three stimuli are rather important to the profession of business administration, regardless of disagreements about how important each one is. The bottom half of the preferences show no such consistency, indicating there is little agreement about which stimuli are comparatively less important.

Public administration has even greater changes, based on disagreement over priorities. Quantitative research methods is the single stimulus that is consistently ranked in the top half of the priorities. The next closest is political and legal processes, which drops one position from fifth to sixth. This indicates even greater disagreements about which of these

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stimuli are most important for public administration as a field. As with to

business administration, there is little consistency about which stimuli are

comparatively less important.

Results appear to indicate that, within these two groups in the study,

business administration professors appear to agree more consistently about

the relative priority of these stimuli. There is no statistical method to

compare these consistencies group to group, making such an observation

mere speculation. What we can see is large disagreement for both groups,

(though possibly larger for public administration) about which stimuli are

uniformly important, leaving us to infer that the relative importance of

these areas remains unclear.

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CHAPTER VI

IMPLICATIONS

Synopsis

The study offered much to the fields of business and public

administration, in two major areas. First, the conceptual framework simply

described diverse information in both fields, by categorizing them in four

quadrants: statesmen, executives, bureaucrats, and foremen. The second

area is the use of PROSCAL, a statistical method able to precisely examine

complex relationships. PROSCAL is the first multidimensional scaling

procedure able to perform the intricate hypothesis tests used in this study.

It enabled the researcher to reduce the question of whether participants

were interpreting and processing information to a single statistical test.

Furthermore, the techniques used to manipulate the data into being

readable by PROSCAL provided some foreshadowing with the test of

transitivity. Overall, this conceptual frame and these statistical techniques

add much to both business and public administration.

After careful examination of the priorities of professors with mainstream degrees in both fields, several things become apparent. First, public and business administration can be considered discrete fields of study, with the caveat that a large portion of public administration's membership (political scientists) must be removed for it to be observable; otherwise, the relationship is inconclusive. Second, there is some commonality between these two fields, demonstrated by professors holding common nonstandard degrees in both.

It appears that something has divided public administration from political science, making interpretation and comparison of what some might consider comparable language very different. Political scientists, from the attribute space analysis, are both interpreting and prioritizing linguistic stimuli in ways so remarkably different from public administration and business administration that they are statistically not comparable. This suggests that within public administration, serious consideration must be given to the language and values being internalized by faculty and possibly being taught to students.

This diversity, created by what might best be conceived of as the "necessary cleft" (Keller and Spicer, 1997) does not invalidate the need for political theory. Ironically, a side effect of the "technicism" Keller and Spicer criticize, when combined with the conceptual framework of this dissertation, appears to provide some of the strongest support for their argument about the cleft between public administration and political

science, based on divergence from an instrumental view of public administration. This dissertation further helps to support the need for an understanding of political theory and processes, consistent with Keller and Spicer's argument.

Public administration, while striving for the creation of an administrator, rather than a manager, has primarily succeeded in maintaining the priorities of the bureaucrat in this study. Since there was no observable difference based on judgment, indicated by primarily training students for upper-level positions, we are left with the following speculations.

First, the "new" public administration may indeed be a splinter group of the more mainstream public management scholarship. If the new public administration was a mainstream belief, it is unlikely that management concepts and quantitative research methods would be ranked first and second. It appears instead that public administration professors place greater value on the technical skills associated with the bureaucrat quadrant, emphasizing analytical skills as a means for professionalism. It might also indicate that professors have not considered the skills necessary for leadership in a structured manner.

Second, it is possible that upper-level public administrators do not get their training in the traditional MPA program. If these upper-level administrators were being educated in MPA programs, there should have been an observable difference based on the data collected. Instead, it

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appears, these administrators are receiving additional training through workshops and other venues not central to the university. There also might be no demand for training upper-level public administrators within the setting of an MPA program. It is possible that, in most MPA programs, there are not enough upper-level administrators in the program's region to warrant a focus on their training.

Business administration also did not appear to demonstrate a high commitment to executive education in this study. Most business administration faculty tended to train the entry-level person, making the foreman rather than the executive their highest priority. As with public administration, one can speculate that there are nontraditional executive training programs whose faculty hold the values associated with executive training. Or, much like public administration, there might not be the demand for an executive training facility within most business administration programs.

These areas of speculation, outside of any regarding the relationship between public administration and political scientists, are foiled by the wide disagreement shown in using PROSCAL's Case III model to examine each group. This raises serious concerns both about the coherence of these two fields and the effectiveness of accreditation in the context of providing a consistent set of values for either field. Some might even argue that any assertions about the similarities and differences between business and public administration must be set aside, in order to deal with the more

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serious question of establishing a congruent set of priorities for each field individually.

Relevance

Is public administration where it needs to be? Based on the ideals set forth by Taylor, Barnard, Waldo, Appleby and others, certainly not. Is either field where it needs to be as discrete field of study? With wide disagreement and statistically incomparable elements, the answer to this appears to be no, also. A tragic consequence of this research is that the greatest similarity between these two fields appears to be their lack of ability to agree on a consistent set of values. If they were agreeing consistently, we might be able to determine whether professors were holding the values of statesmanship and executive leadership in some regard- and possibly, see whether a second dimension then existed in their cognitive processes.

Instead, what we observe is that these values, with large disagreement, are prioritized more toward the training of analytic, specialized, entry-level professionals who do not rely much on the skills necessary for either statesmanship or executive leadership. As a consequence of this observation, professionals might be operating increasingly within specialized areas, without realizing how their efforts relate to the larger public or private arena in which they operate. As a result, these professionals might be more likely to borrow from ideas outside their field and make flawed decisions, rather than clear ones based

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on understanding of how decisions affect the workplace or society as a whole. In the case of public administration, we see the potential for Finer's (1941) concerns to be fully realized: administrators operating nearly independently of institutional leadership, without an understanding of the greater consequences of their actions, and with few tools by which to ascertain them.

This movement toward the inappropriate borrowing of ideas specifically affects "reinventing government" as a research stream. Executive training rather than reinvention is necessary, since this reinvention embodies the narrow judgments based on values not central to the field of public administration, such as a profit motive, and broad negative impacts apparent in cases like the bankruptcy of Orange County, CA. Over time, if some movement is not made toward placing value on statesmanship and executive leadership, it is likely that inappropriate reinvention will continue, without any understanding of the differences between the values and goals of business those of and public administration, and how they influence society. Eventually, individuals who understand these complex processes might no longer be a part of the academic profession, potentially removing such information from the workplace. The worst- case result may be a society of individuals acting exclusively in their own interests and reacting to mere aspects of situations, rather than dealing with them as a whole.

Direction

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Can we move public administration toward these ideals?   There is no easy answer to this question. For public and business administration to achieve greater value in both statesmanship and executive leadership, several events must occur. First, universities need to make it more conducive for professors to discuss, research, and teach in ways that help develop statesmen and executives. Second, professors need to realize that both analytic and synthetic skills are necessary for professional education, rather than analytic skills exclusively. Third, more research is necessary to determine whether the priorities of these values are being reflected in practitioners. If practitioners are holding and developing values divergent from those held by professors, placing a higher priority on the skills of statesmanship and executive leadership, the effectiveness of university-based professional education is questionable.

Though the fields of public and business administration may differ on content, they seem similarly misfocused. Furthermore, measures of disagreement within the two groups indicate it may be equally difficult to examine and discuss the focus of education or training systematically. Ironically, where this dissertation picked up with the development of business and public administration, ends up being fairly close to where we end. Neither field appears to be focusing on the training and education necessary to prevent modern analogs of the robber baron, or the appointed hack of some political machine, from emerging.

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As a consequence, the leadership cadre proposed by Selznick (1957) would be incapable of becoming what Terry (1995) defines as a conservator-therefore, incapable of statesmanship. They would lack the common set of values that could help determine where and when to borrow from business administration and other fields appropriately, as well as where these techniques would inapplicable or inappropriate. This lack of clear values internalized by practitioners might make certain problems, such as the loss of hundreds of millions of dollars in Orange County, CA due to inappropriate management practices, more commonplace. The lack of clear understanding within these two fields' values will ultimately compromise the professionalism of both sectors. Without values that help delineate the similarities and differences in public administration, the foils provided by Terry and Kearns (1996) for the ill-founded idea of the public entrepreneur (an element of reinvention) would remain unused. Until university education adequately values the roles of statesmen and executives, training them is not likely to happen- leaving the leadership of both sectors bankrupt and the practice of misfocused reinvention unchecked.

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Notes:

[i] Please realize that "statesmen" refers to a category only. Though in the past it referred specifically to men, in this study categories are treated as gender neutral.

[ii] Program structure was divided among the full/part time student enrollment and in service/ pre-service, with service indicating current practitioners and curriculum areas of emphasis, including finance and public works.

[iii] This includes geographic proximity and ease of admission for certain types of students.

[iv] Other authors including Green (1990) and Van Riper (1997) argue from a different perspective- that this movement identifies where public administration is reasserting the importance of political theory. Van Riper uses historical information to argue this, providing evidence for instances where public administration was not closely tied to business administration. Green argues that public administration's roots in political theory can be traced to the founding of the American government.

[v] Stimuli refer to the items used to generate a psychological response tested later. In this dissertation , these stimuli are curriculum areas, and their associated responses are pairwise preference rankings from each participant.

[vi] The information from NASPAA and the US Department of Education was individually incomplete but collectively useful. NASPAA's data came from a 1992 survey, and the USDE information came from a 1987 and 1992 survey. Both surveys indicated that the fields were dominated by Caucasian males, roughly 76% for public administration and 65% for business administration. They also indicated that the mean age for their respondents was 47 years in the 1987 study of public administration and 45 years for the 1992 study of business administration. Females made up only about 6% of the total for public administration and 3.9% for business administration.

[vii] Respondent institution was classified according to the US News and World Report September 1995 overall university rankings by tier. There were 13.6% tier 1 responses

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from business administration and 4% from public. Overall response from tier 1 institutions was 7%. Business administration had 5% of responses from tier 2 schools, while public administration had 25.5%, for an overall of 18.3%. Tier 3 schools were represented at 5% for business, 11.8% for public, and 9.5% overall. Fourth tier schools made up 37.3% of the sample for business, 28.2% for public, and 31.4% overall. Regional unrated institutions responded with a rate of 39% for business administration, 30.9% for public administration, and 33.7% overall.

[viii] Bray and Maxwell indicate that Wilk's lambda, Pillai's Trace, Hotelling -Lawley, and Roy's Max root statistics, when used in conjunction, overcome the weaknesses associated with using one of these measures singly. Therefore, for the remainder of this study, when referring to the significance of MANOVA statistics, the researcher is stating that all four of the statistics listed above were significant at the level indicated, unless otherwise mentioned.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. FIGURES

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Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Examination of the Public - Private Debate

Statesman   Executive

Public   Private

Political   Economic

Bureaucrat   Foreman

"Blur"

(Scientific) Management   Art (Organization)   (Scientific) Management

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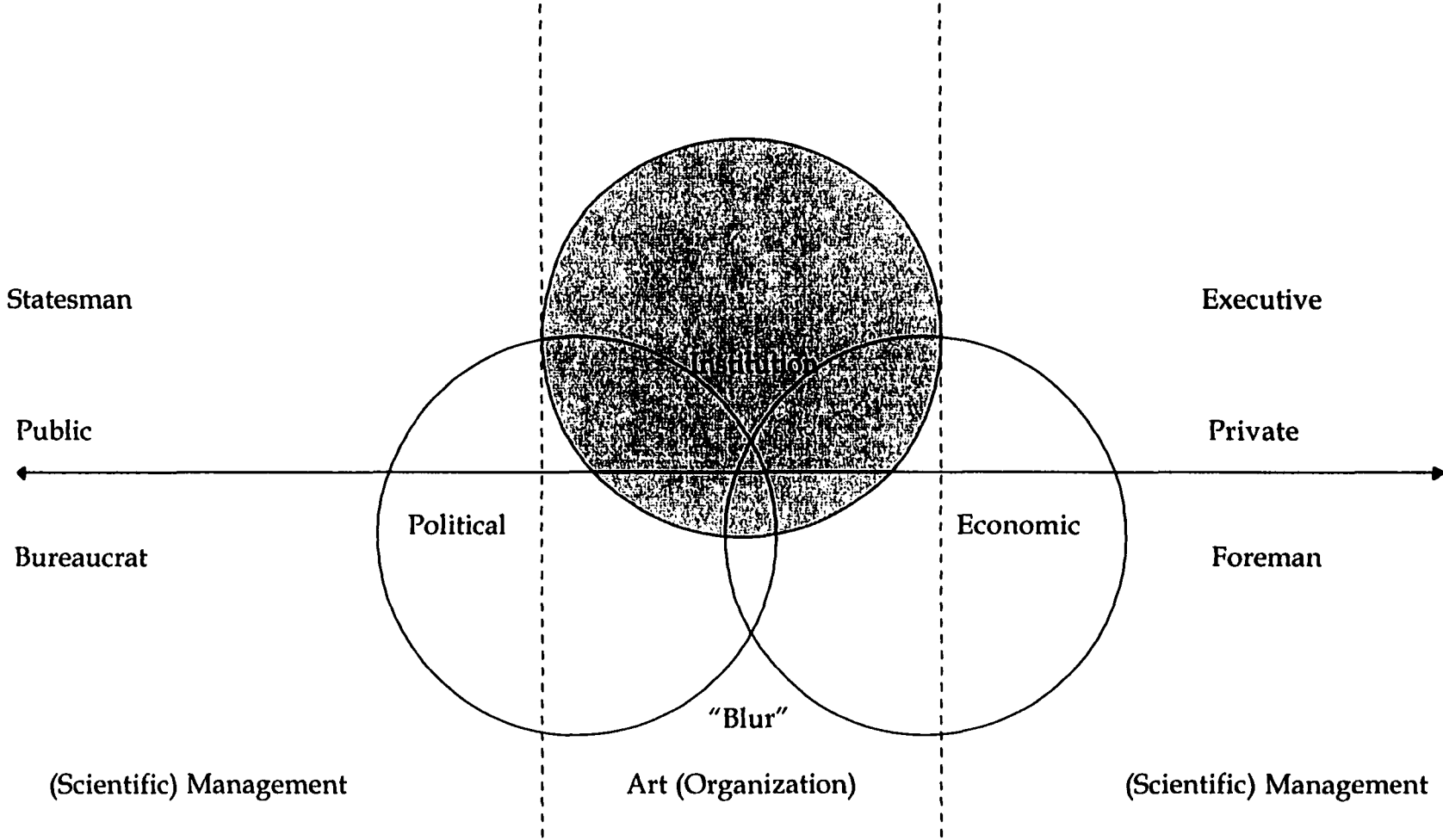
Figure 2: Conceptual Framework with Four Categories

Statesman   Executive

Judgment Dimension

Public-Private Dimension ◀───────────────────────────────▶

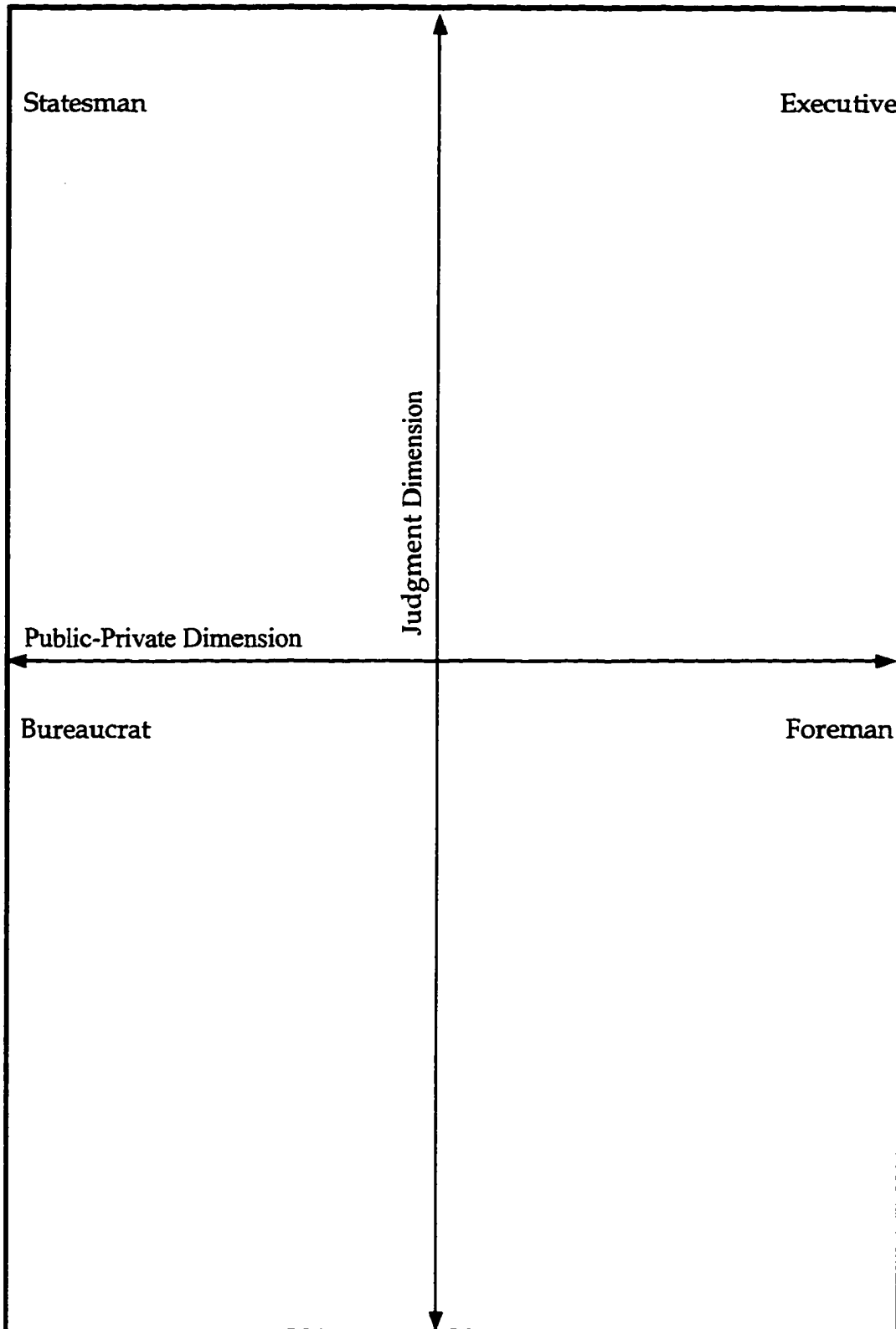Bureaucrat   Foreman

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Figure 3: Stimuli Textual Origins

Stimulus	General Competencies
NASPAA	"capable of intelligent, creative analysis and communication, and action in public service."; " Information, including computer literacy and applications"
AACSB	"Basic skills in written and oral communication"; computer usage
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992)

Stimulus	Quantitative Research Methods
NASPAA	"Quantitative ... Techniques of Analysis"
AACSB	"quantitative analysis";
Theory	Schumpeter (1950), Merton (1952), Gulick and Urwick (1937)

Stimulus	Finance and Budgeting
NASPAA	"Budgeting and financial processes"
AACSB	"financial reporting, analysis"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Merton (1952), Gulick and Urwick (1937), Bottorff (1989)

Stimulus	Economics
NASPAA	"Economic and ... institutions and processes"
AACSB	"economic environments of organizations"; "markets"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), Bottorff (1989)

Stimulus	Management Concepts
NASPAA	"management concepts"
AACSB	N/A
Theory	Merton (1952), Downs(1967), Gulick and Urwick (1937), Bottorff (1989)

Stimulus	Organization Studies
NASPAA	"Organizational environment"; Organization and ... concepts and behavior"
AACSB	"Environments of organizations"; "human behavior in organizations"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), Merton (1952), Downs(1967)

Stimulus	Decision Making and Problem Solving
NASPAA	"Decision-making and problem-solving"
AACSB	N/A
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), Bottorff (1989)

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Stimulus	Political and legal processes
NASPAA	"Political and legal institutions and processes"
AACSB	"The influence of political, social, legal and regulatory"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), Merton (1952), Downs(1967)

Stimulus	Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services
NASPAA	N/A
AACSB	"Creation and distribution of goods and services"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Bottorff (1989)

Stimulus	Strategy making and evaluation
NASPAA	"Policy and program formulation, implementation and evaluation"
AACSB	N/A
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992), Bottorff (1989)

Stimulus	Ethics
NASPAA	"The common curriculum components shall enhance the student's values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically"
AACSB	"Ethical and global issues"
Theory	Barnard (1938), Taylor (1992)

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Figure 4 Group Rankings
Sorted by Simple (Euclidean)
Distance From the Ideal Point

	Public Administration				Business Administration		
	Simple Distance	Disagreement Indicator	Stimulus		Simple Distance	Disagreement Indicator	Stimulus
1	8.60E-03	721.676	Management Concepts	1	1.24E-01	30.802	Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services
2	1.03E-02	121.651	Quantitative Research Methods	2	1.02E+00	182.08	Strategy Making and Evaluation
2	1.03E-02	514.903	General Competencies	3	1.24E+00	520.973	Management Concepts
2	1.03E-02	524.688	Finance and Budgeting	3	1.24E+00	10.035	Quantitative Research Methods
3	1.46E-02	519.741	Organization Studies	3	1.24E+00	97.548	Finance and Budgeting
4	1.89E-02	702.734	Decision Making and Problem Solving	3	1.24E+00	979.296	General Competencies
5	1.05E-01	502.089	Political and Legal Processes	3	1.24E+00	138.497	Organization Studies
6	2.12E-01	341.688	Strategy Making and Evaluation	4	1.25E+00	836.415	Decision Making and Problem Solving
7	4.02E-01	24.129	Economics	5	1.33E+00	10.035	Political and Legal Processes
8	6.48E-01	243.019	Ethics	6	1.63E+00	24.512	Economics
9	1.35E+00	13.844	Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services	7	1.88E+00	19.893	Ethics

Figure 5 Group Rankings
Sorted by Statistical Distance
From the Ideal Point

	Public Administration				Business Administration		
	Statistical Distance	Disagreement Indicator	Stimulus		Statistical Distance	Disagreement Indicator	Stimulus
1	1.19E+01	13.844	Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services	1	1.07E+01	10.035	Quantitative Research Methods
2	1.69E+01	24.129	Economics	1	1.07E+01	10.035	Political and Legal Processes
3	7.45E+01	121.651	Quantitative Research Methods	2	1.68E+01	19.893	Ethics
4	1.48E+02	243.019	Ethics	3	2.00E+01	24.512	Economics
5	2.08E+02	341.688	Strategy Making and Evaluation	4	2.44E+01	30.802	Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services
6	3.06E+02	502.089	Political and Legal Processes	5	7.39E+01	97.548	Finance and Budgeting
7	3.13E+02	514.903	General Competencies	6	1.05E+02	138.497	Organization Studies
8	3.16E+02	519.741	Organization Studies	7	1.37E+02	182.08	Strategy Making and Evaluation
9	3.19E+02	524.688	Finance and Budgeting	8	3.93E+02	520.973	Management Concepts
10	4.28E+02	702.734	Decision Making and Problem Solving	9	6.30E+02	836.415	Decision Making and Problem Solving
11	4.39E+02	721.676	Management Concepts	10	7.38E+02	979.296	General Competencies

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRES

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Initial Questionnaire

Listed Below are Brief Descriptions of 11 curriculum areas condensed from NASPAA/AACSB Standards. *PLEASE READ THEM BEFORE YOU ANSWER THE SURVEY.*

1. **General Competencies**: Basic skills in written and oral communication, computer usage, including word processing, spreadsheets, and statistical packages.

2. **Quantitative Research Methods:** Including coverage of statistics, mathematics, research design, data collection and sampling, bibliographic searches and operationalization of concepts.

3. **Finance and Budgeting:** Basic financial processes including accounting, financial reporting, analysis, and budget formulation.

4. **Economics**: Including basic micro and macro economics, treatment of global economic environments and market failure.

5. **Management Concepts**: Including human resource management, management technologies and management techniques.

6. **Organization Studies:** Including Leadership, Organization Development, Organization Theory, Organization Behavior, and Institutionalism.

7. **Decision Making and Problem Solving**: Including conflict resolution, strategic management, fundamentals of decision making and planning.

8. **Political and legal processes**: Including administrative law, labor law, political theory and political environments.

9. **Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services**: Including marketing, service delivery and quality, production management, operations management, and total quality management.

10. **Strategy making and evaluation**: Includes all areas of a program including getting starting capital, compliance, construction and delivery, and research skills necessary for evaluation of a program.

11. **Ethics**: Including coverage of internal controls, external ethical controls, and ethical conduct in the workplace.

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Curriculum Judgments: A Pairwise Survey

Directions: Circle the number which most accurately reflects your preference between the two alternatives with "0" indicating neutral preference and "4" indicating your maximum preference.

Remember: Your preferences should be based on the descriptions given on the previous page.

general competencies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	quantitative analysis
ethics	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	finance and budgeting
program formulation, implementation and evaluation	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	economics and markets
creation and distribution of goods and services	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	management concepts
political and legal processes	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	organization studies
decision making and problem solving	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	general competencies
finance and budgeting	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	quantitative analysis
economics and markets	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	ethics
management concepts	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	program formulation, implementation and evaluation
organization studies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	creation and distribution of goods and services
decision making and problem solving	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	political and legal processes
general competencies ·	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	finance and budgeting
quantitative analysis	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	economics and markets
ethics	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	management concepts
program formulation, implementation and evaluation	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	organization studies
creation and distribution of goods and services	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	decision making and problem solving
political and legal processes	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	general competencies
economics and markets	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	finance and budgeting
management concepts	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	quantitative analysis
organization studies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	ethics
decision making and problem solving	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	program formulation, implementation and evaluation
political and legal processes	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	creation and distribution of goods and services
general competencies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	economics and markets
finance and budgeting	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	management concepts
quantitative analysis	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	organization studies
ethics	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	decision making and problem solving

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program formulation, implementation and evaluation	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	political and legal processes
creation and distribution of goods and services	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	general competencies
management concepts	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	economics and markets
organization studies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	finance and budgeting
decision making and problem solving	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	quantitative analysis
political and legal processes	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	ethics
creation and distribution of goods and services	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	program formulation, implementation and evaluation
general competencies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	management concepts
economics and markets	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	organization studies
finance and budgeting	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	decision making and problem solving
quantitative analysis	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	political and legal processes
ethics	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	creation and distribution of goods and services
program formulation, implementation and evaluation	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	general competencies
organization studies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	management concepts
decision making and problem solving	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	economics and markets
political and legal processes	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	finance and budgeting
creation and distribution of goods and services	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	quantitative analysis
program formulation, implementation and evaluation	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	ethics
general competencies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	organization studies
management concepts	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	decision making and problem solving
economics and markets	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	political and legal processes
finance and budgeting	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	creation and distribution of goods and services
quantitative analysis	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	program formulation, implementation and evaluation
ethics	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	general competencies
organization studies	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	decision making and problem solving
management concepts	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	political and legal processes
economics and markets	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	creation and distribution of goods and services
finance and budgeting	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	program formulation, implementation and evaluation
quantitative analysis	4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4	ethics

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Demographic Information

Please check all answers that apply and follow any directions given.

You are a   ____ Business Administration Professor
                ____ Public Administration Professor (choose only one)

Orientation of Students Professional Training (choose only one)
                             ___ Entry Level/ Middle
                             ___ Executive level

The Nature of your position: ___ Full Time __ Part Time

Your duties are primarily: ____ Administrative   ____ Teaching / Research˙
                             ____ Joint Administrative/ Teaching / Research position.

You are: ___ female ___ male

Your race is: ____ African - American ___ Asian   ___ Caucasian
           ____ Hispanic ___ Other

Year Ph.D. / PA/DBA Granted_____
Major_____
Which Administrative unit best describes where your program is Located (choose only one)

Public Administration
(Completed By Public Administration Faculty Only)

Autonomous Public Administration/ Public Affairs Unit   ____
Unit within Liberal Arts and Sciences College
      Separate Department/ Program   ____
      Part of Political Science/Government   ____
      Track/ List of Course Offerings   ____
Unit Offerings within a School/College of Business
Administration/Management/Management Science
      Separate Department/ Program   ____
      Part of Another Department/ Program   ____
      Track/ List of Course Offerings   ____

Joint Program
      School of Public Administration/Affairs   ____

International Affairs and General Studies _____
School of Business and Public Administration _____
Unspecified _____

Business Administration
(Completed By Business Administration Faculty Only)

Autonomous Business Administration/Management School _____
Unit within Liberal Arts and Sciences College
    Separate Department/ Program _____
Unit within Continuing Education Unit
    Separate Department/ Program _____
Joint Program
    Part of Business Administration/Economics _____
    International Affairs and General Studies _____
    School of Business and Public Administration _____
    Unspecified _____

Your Current Rank is:

Instructor _____
Assistant Professor _____
Associate Professor _____
Full Professor _____

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Final Questionnaire

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Dear Respondent

The debate about the similarities and differences between public and private administration is not new. Many studies examined these similarities and differences focused on practitioners. In contrast, because University based education helps form many of these values that practitioners hold, I believe it would be more fruitful to examine the preferences of those who train these practitioners. A study of professors in both business and public administration should advance this debate.

The questionnaire enclosed will be used in my dissertation to examine how public and private administration professors prioritize skill areas based on national standards and theory. This in no way is affiliated with either AACSB or NASPAA, though both sets of guidelines were used to develop the skill areas.

Please read each of the skill areas carefully and complete this survey. Take care to answer every question, since all are important to this study. When you are done, please return the completed survey in the envelope provided at your earliest convenience. Your participation in this study of the similarities and differences among business and public administration faculty is purely voluntary, and confidentiality will be maintained. If you remain concerned about confidentiality, please complete the questionnaire enclosed, and before returning it, ink out the accounting code on the bottom right corner of the return envelope.

Thank you again for helping me with your participation, and if you would like to learn about the results of this study, please let me know. If you have any questions or would like to make any comments, please feel free to contact me by phone at (216) 687- 2136, fax (216) 687-9291, or by email at sement30@wolf.csuohio.edu. My advisor, Dr. Larry Keller at the Levin College of Urban Affairs can also answer questions you might have. His phone number is (216) 687-2173. Please understand that if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you can contact the Cleveland State University Review board directly at (216) 687-3630.

Sincerely,

Arthur Sementelli
Ph.D. Candidate, Levin College of Urban Affairs.

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Listed Below are Brief Descriptions of 11 curriculum areas condensed from NASPAA/AACSB Standards. *PLEASE READ THEM BEFORE YOU ANSWER THE SURVEY.*

1. **General Competencies**: Basic skills in written and oral communication, computer usage, including word processing, spreadsheets, and statistical packages.

2. **Quantitative Research Methods:** Including coverage of statistics, mathematics, research design, data collection and sampling, bibliographic searches and operationalization of concepts.

3. **Finance and Budgeting:** Basic financial processes including accounting, financial reporting, analysis, and budget formulation.

4. **Economics**: Including basic micro and macro economics, treatment of global economic environments and market failure.

5. **Management Concepts**: Including human resource management, management technologies and management techniques.

6. **Organization Studies:** Including Leadership, Organization Development, Organization Theory, Organization Behavior, and Institutionalism.

7. **Decision Making and Problem Solving**: Including conflict resolution, fundamentals of decision making and negotiation.

8. **Political and legal processes**: Including administrative law, labor law, political theory and political environments.

9. **Provision and Distribution of Goods and Services**: Including marketing, service delivery and quality, production management, operations management, and total quality management.

10. **Strategy making and evaluation**: Including strategic management, planning, getting starting capital, compliance, construction and delivery, and research skills necessary for evaluation of a program.

11. **Ethics**: Including coverage of internal controls, external ethical controls, and ethical conduct in the workplace.

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Curriculum Judgments: A Pairwise Survey

Directions: Circle or check the position or number which most accurately reflects the strength of your preference judgments between each of the two curriculum areas. Preference indicates an item has greater importance in your opinion for professional education with "0" indicating equal preference, 30 is a weak preference, 50 is a strong preference, 70, is a very strong preference, and "100" indicating your maximum preference.

Remember: Your preferences should be based on the descriptions given on the previous page.

Left	Scale	Right
general competencies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	quantitative research methods
ethics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	finance and budgeting
strategy making and evaluation	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	economics
provision and distribution of goods and services	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	management concepts
political and legal processes	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	organization studies
decision making and problem solving	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	general competencies
finance and budgeting	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	quantitative research methods
economics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	ethics
management concepts	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	strategy making and evaluation
organization studies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	provision and distribution of goods and services
decision making and problem solving	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	political and legal processes
general competencies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	finance and budgeting
quantitative research methods	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	economics
ethics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	management concepts
strategy making and evaluation	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	organization studies

provision and distribution of goods and services	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
political and legal processes	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
economics	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
management concepts	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
organization studies	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
decision making and problem solving	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
political and legal processes	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
general competencies	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
finance and budgeting	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
quantitative research methods	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
ethics	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
strategy making and evaluation	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
provision and distribution of goods and services	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
management concepts	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
organization studies	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
decision making and problem solving	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
political and legal processes	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
provision and distribution of goods and services	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
general competencies	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
economics	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100
finance and budgeting	100	80	60	40	20	0	20	40	60	80	100

decision making and problem solving

general competencies
finance and budgeting
quantitative research methods
ethics
strategy making and evaluation

provision and distribution of goods and services
economics
management concepts
organization studies
decision making and problem solving
political and legal processes
general competencies

economics
finance and budgeting
quantitative research methods

ethics
strategy making and evaluation

management concepts
organization studies
decision making and problem solving

quantitative research methods	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	political and legal processes
ethics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	provision and distribution of goods and services
strategy making and evaluation	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	general competencies
organization studies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	management concepts
decision making and problem solving	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	economics
political and legal processes	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	finance and budgeting
provision and distribution of goods and services	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	quantitative research methods
strategy making and evaluation	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	ethics
general competencies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	organization studies
management concepts	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	decision making and problem solving
economics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	political and legal processes
finance and budgeting	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	provision and distribution of goods and services
quantitative research methods	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	strategy making and evaluation
ethics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	general competencies
organization studies	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	decision making and problem solving
management concepts	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	political and legal processes
economics	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	provision and distribution of goods and services
finance and budgeting	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	strategy making and evaluation
quantitative research methods	100.....80.....60.....40.....20.....0.....20.....40.....60.....80.....100	ethics

Demographic Information

Please check all answers that apply and follow any directions given.

You are a ____ Business Administration Professor   You are: ___ female ___ male
____ Public Administration Professor (choose only one)

Age: _____

You primarily train students for (choose only one)
___ Entry Level/ Middle positions
___ Executive level positions

The Nature of your position: ___ Full Time __ Part Time

Your Current Rank is:

Instructor   ____
Assistant Professor   ____
Associate Professor   ____
Full Professor   ____

What percentage of time in a work week is spent on these duties: ____ Administrative   ____ Teaching   ____ Research

Your ethnicity is: ____ African - American ___ Asian   ___ Caucasian   ____ Hispanic ___ Other

Year terminal degree granted _____   Field _____

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Which Administrative unit best describes where your program is Located (choose only one)

Public Administration
(Completed By Public Administration Faculty Only)

Autonomous Public Administration/ Public Affairs Unit ____

Unit within Liberal Arts and Sciences College

    Separate Department/ Program ____

    Part of Political Science/Government ____

    Track/ List of Course Offerings ____

Unit Offerings within a School/College of Business
Administration/Management/Management Science

    Separate Department/ Program ____

    Part of Another Department/ Program ____

    Track/ List of Course Offerings ____

Joint Program

    School of Public Administration/Affairs ____

    International Affairs and General Studies ____

    School of Business and Public Administration ____

    Unspecified ____

Business Administration
(Completed By Business Administration Faculty Only)

Autonomous Business Administration/Management School   ____
Unit within Liberal Arts and Sciences College
        Separate Department/ Program   ____
Unit within Continuing Education Unit
        Separate Department/ Program   ____
Joint Program
        Part of Business Administration/Economics   ____
        International Affairs and General Studies   ____
        School of Business and Public Administration   ____
        Unspecified   ____

APPENDIX C. CODING AND INSTRUMENTATION

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Distribution

Final approval from institutional research on human subjects for this study was granted on Tuesday, January 7, 1997. 2,000 of these revised questionnaires, presented in Appendix B , were mailed first class on Friday, January 10, 1997. Each package included a copy of the cover letter (included in Appendix B), the revised questionnaire, and a postage-paid return envelope with an accounting code to indicate the group, page, column, and row where the label was located on the master list. Respondents were given the option of obscuring this code in order to maintain a comfortable level of confidentiality.

The study group information was gathered and evaluated consistent with the information presented in the previous section on instrumentation. A total of 251 questionnaires 287 were returned in a usable format. This provides an overall gross usable return rate of slightly over 10%. Within the two subgroups, response rates were not as consistent, with 18% usable returns for Public Administration and 7% usable returns for Business Administration. This discrepancy in return rates is consistent with findings by Stinchcombe, Jones, and Sheatsley (1981); Jobber and Saunders (1988); Goodstadt, et al. (1977); Blumberg, Fuller, and Hare (1974); Fuller (1974); and Whitmore (1976). The most powerful information came from the Jobber and Saunders study, which indicated two things essential to the explanation of this study's response rate. First, they indicate that response rates from

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businessmen tend to be far lower when compared to the general population. Second they also found that membership in a group external to the one being studied resulted in an 8% reduction in response rates.

As a result, generalizability is limited with this study, based on the potential for a nonresponse bias. The hypotheses forwarded in earlier sections may still be tested, given that sample sizes for the subgroups are more than adequate to provide stable parameters for PROSCAL. If these subgroups are found to be representative (demographically) of larger populations, very limited, careful generalizations might be attempted with the results.

Coding and Manipulation

The data were coded in delimited text format on a spreadsheet, using the following decision rules. The left side of the bidirectional scale took negative values. Group membership, program type, gender, leadership level, ethnicity, and nature of employment were coded nominally. Rank was coded ordinally, and the year degree granted as well as percentage of workload questions were coded as interval numbers. Missing information in the paired comparisons was coded as -.0001, and missing information from the demographic section was coded with an "m" for all categories other than program type, which were coded as "0" for missing information. The letter "m" was selected to represent missing information throughout most of the demographic section mainly because all other demographic

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categories other than program type could take a zero as a meaningful value. This made a non-numeric indicator for missing information necessary to maintain information integrity.

The data, after coding are transformed into lower matrices that are readable by the PROSCAL program. At this point judgments are converted from measures of utility (Mackay and Zinnes, 1982) to measures of disutility for ease of interpretation, and use in the later analysis by taking the inverse of each judgment. This places the most important stimuli closest to the ideal point, and the least important ones farthest away. After being transformed, each respondent's judgments are subjected to a test for transitivity. The test of transitivity simply looks at judgments in groups of three. These groups are subjected to the following logic for all combinations: If A is preferred to B, and B is preferred to C, A must be preferred to C. Violations of weak transitivity, indicated by a 15% or more violation, are removed from the dataset, indicating that preference judgments were not consistent enough to be measured, implying merely recognition and not familiarity. The code that performs these tasks follows.

```fortran
c       This Program Analyzes the Consistency of Lower Half
c       Matrices of PROSCAL Judgments for 12 Stimuli
c
        PROGRAM CONAN
c
        DIMENSION X1(11,11), S(280,2)
        INTEGER NSTIM,NSUB,NKT,NRT
c
        OPEN (UNIT = 5, STATUS = 'OLD', FILE = 'JUDGE1')
        OPEN (UNIT = 6, STATUS = 'NEW', FILE = 'cons')
c
  100 FORMAT (1X,12G10.3)
  101 FORMAT (1X,2F8.4)
c
c       NKT IS THE NUMBER OF COMBINATIONS OF NSTIM TAKEN THREE AT A TIME
c
        NSTIM = 11
        NSUB  = 251
        NKT   = 165
        RKT = REAL(NKT)
c
        DO 9 II = 1,NSUB
        S(II,1) = II
        S(II,2) = 0.00
        NRT = 0
c
        DO 8 I=1,NSTIM
        DO 8 J=1,NSTIM
      8 X1(I,J) = 0.0
c
        DO 7 I=2,NSTIM
        IM1=I-1
      7 READ (5,100) (X1(I,J), J=1,IM1)
c
        DO 10 I = 1, (NSTIM-2)
        DO 11 J = (I+1),(NSTIM-1)
        DO 12 K = (J+1), NSTIM
c
        IF ((X1(J,I).GT.1.).AND.(X1(K,J).GT.1.).AND.
     1(X1(K,I).LT.1.)) NRT = NRT + 1
c
        IF ((X1(J,I).LT.1.).AND.(X1(K,J).LT.1.).AND.
     1(X1(K,I).GT.1.)) NRT = NRT + 1
c
   12 CONTINUE
   11 CONTINUE
   10 CONTINUE
c
        RT = REAL(NRT)
        S(II,2) = RT/RKT
c
    9 CONTINUE
c
        DO 20 I = 1,NSUB
   20 WRITE (6,101) (S(I,J),J=1,2)
c
        END
```

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APPENDIX D. DISCUSSION OF PROSCAL

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PROSCAL is a multidimensional scaling procedure. It is grounded in multidimensional scaling techniques that allow researchers to determine structures associated with specific data (Kruskal and Wish, 1978). Specifically, mulitdimensional scaling enables researchers to represent, in this case curriculum areas in k dimensional space (1...k). These spatial representations reflect the priorities associated with the data in question. In this case, the study examines the similarities and dissimilarities between public and private curriculum priorities, based on standards set by accrediting bodies. The specific dimensions and axes hypothesized appear in Figure 2. The following section traces the conceptual basis for the functions contained in PROSCAL and its general background.

PROSCAL is a modification on the Thurstonian Law of comparative judgment (Thurstone, 1959). The modification involves the addition of probabilistic assumptions (Mackay and Zinnes, 1982). It uses real valued random variables- in this case, curriculum priorities in administration programs- as stimuli along a psychological continuum (Bowen, 1994). The outcomes of these judgments are determined by the comparison of these two stimuli. Whichever variable in the pair has a dominant preference say X, for example in an X, Y pair, we can make the inference that X>Y. These variables are assumed to be normally distributed, with each observation independent. For a necessary and broader understanding of this tradition,

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we must examine the development of these psychometric concepts (Mackay, 1982).

Thurstone's (1959) law of comparative judgment is expressed mathematically as $S_1 - S_2 = x_{12} \cdot \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 - \sigma_2^1 - 2r\sigma_1\sigma_2}$, where the S values represent the psychological scale values of the two compared stimuli, the x_{12} represents the sigma value corresponding to the proportion of judgments with $p_{1>2}$. When $p_{1>2}$ is greater than .5, the numerical value for x_{12} is positive, and when $p_{1>2}$ is less than .5, the numerical value of x_{12} is negative. The σ_1 represents the discriminal dispersion of stimulus R_1. σ_2 represents the discriminal dispersion of R_2. Finally, r is the correlation between discriminal deviations of R_1 and R_2 in the same judgment.

The complete Thurstonian judgment model is then expressed as:

$$\mu_i - \mu_j = z_{ij}(\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_j^2 - 2r_{ij}\sigma_i\sigma_j)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where μ_i is the mean of the psychological scale corresponding to stimuli s_i with variance of σ_i^2 called the Thurstonian error. z_{ij} is the normal deviate which corresponds to the proportion of times stimuli s_i dominates s_j. r_{ij} is the correlation between x_i and x_j. The law of comparative judgment, as conceived by Thurstone, allows preferences among presented stimuli to be replicated, enabling the construction of an interval level scale for preferences.

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The model's logic, once altered with the assumptions of probabilistic distributions, is ready to examine priorities. These priorities are based on a set of theoretically driven ideal points (Coombs, 1964), which are used as a starting point for the estimation procedures. This starting point assumes that, taken together, the set of coordinates form an ideal combination from the respondents' perspective (Bowen, 1994). Most studies examined use isotropic space, since it is computationally easier than using anisotropic space, and have scale mixtures of the normal distribution for each dimension, making hypothesis testing more simple (Eaton, 1981). This study used these more common, symmetric isotropic distributions.

When using an isotropic distribution, there are several common options available in PROSCAL. The first is the Case V model, which was one of two models used in this dissertation. The Case V model estimates a single variance, for all stimuli $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma^2$ i=1,...,n. This provides useful information about the overall confidence in a respondent's decisions. It was used for the individual level section of the analysis, because of its simplicity, the fact that there was one respondent for each group of stimuli, and the need to test for patterns across individual responses. The group level analysis fitted the Case III model, which estimates individual variances σ_i^2 $i = 1,...,n$ for each stimulus. The Case III model variances estimate levels of agreement among stimuli for a homogeneous group, whereas the Case V variances allow us to compare the individuals, but not the stimuli individually.

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Procedure

PROSCAL is a series of algorithms used to estimate maximum likelihood functions for a set of data. This study proposes using the Case III version, since theory indicates that distributions for stimuli are unlikely to be identical across stimuli. Initially, the study will assume the simplest model and make incremental changes to address such theoretically driven concerns. The study found that the simpler isotropic model was appropriate.

Once PROSCAL provides estimates for the maximum likelihood functions, there are several steps to determine whether results are statistically significant. First, a cluster analysis combined with a chi-square test appears to be the most appropriate initial method to test for perceived public- private differences.

Once this is completed, a hierarchical series of tests need to be conducted. There are a handful of ways to do this. The first might involve using Friedman's test, which assumes group/category differences in the null hypothesis (Mosteller and Rourke, 1973; Gibbons, 1993), which would address the primary hypothesis. This would help determine any statistical differences for program areas within the two disciplines. This nonparametric Friedman's was not used, in favor of the more common, more easily interpreted MANOVA. A more simple approach would be based on a MANOVA technique, with an identity matrix as presented in Mosteller and Rourke. Afterwards, paired t-tests, or other nonparametric

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statistics, would be necessary to reveal any statistical differences across the two disciplines. A second, alternative approach, which was not pursued, would have used a modified log-linear regression analysis, where the dependent variables would be the ordinal judgments for the respondents, and the independent variables would be the nominal information about program type, leadership hierarchy, and public-private relations. Though uncommon in the social sciences, this method is frequently used to test the significance of maximum likelihood estimates (Liao, 1994). The major strength of this approach is the ability to cope with potential interaction effects. The major weakness is that the estimates themselves are not really meaningful. As a result, the simplest, clearest approach would be based on the MANOVA, making it the better choice in this study.

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