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**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF  
BUSINESS STUDENTS IN SRI LANKA AND CANADA**

**by**

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**Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Business Administration**

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**Andreas Hans Noe, Ottawa, Canada, 1989**

## ABSTRACT

Knowledge of business students' job factor and achievement motivations, perceptions of private and public business enterprises and values is important for multinational corporations and educational institutions alike. Multinationals can use such information for long-term planning and assessing strategic capabilities. Educational institutions can use such information for the purpose of curriculum design and course development.

Very few studies have investigated business students' perceptions, attitudes and values. Even fewer studies have examined these perceptions across cultures. The objective of this research was to compare the perceptions and motivations of business students in Sri Lanka and Canada. Given some degree of success in achieving the first objective, a related objective was to examine the strength of independent measures for explaining differences between the two countries.

A total sample of 1200 business students, 389 from Sri Lanka and 811 from Canada, provided data for this research study. A questionnaire was developed which included questions dealing with demographics and employment status, job factor motivations, university attribute perceptions, business perceptions, achievement motivation and values. All of the scales used in this study were adopted from previous research studies in order to ensure construct validity. A double translation procedure was used to create French and Sinhalese versions of the questionnaire. The analyses focussed on t-tests for rated data and nonparametric procedures for the rank-ordered data. Four types of discriminant models were developed to examine the relative strength of independent variables for differentiating the two groups of students.

The research results indicated that the Canadian students held a more expressive view of work while the Sri Lankan students held a more

instrumental view of work. The Canadian students evaluated both the economic and the social performance of private business enterprises more favourably than the Sri Lankan students. The Canadian students also evaluated the economic performance of public business enterprises more favourably than the Sri Lankan business students. The Canadian students had higher needs for achievement, had more personal goals in life and took a more pragmatic approach to their lives. The Sri Lankan students had lower needs for achievement, valued more society-oriented goals and had a less pragmatic approach to life than the Canadian students.

The results of the multiple discriminant analyses showed that the value measures did better to differentiate the students from Canada and Sri Lanka than the demographic and achievement motivation measures. The demographics and achievement motivation variables did not perform as well as the value variables but they too contributed to explaining attitudinal differences between the two countries. Thus, the cultural measures were better able to distinguish Canadian students from Sri Lankan students compared to broader environmental variables and psychological variables.

The research findings indicate that efforts to attract business students in Sri Lanka and Canada will need to address different job factor motivations and achievement needs. Companies that examine the perceptions, motivations and attitudes among the pool of future managers will be those most likely to retain a competent number of new recruits who can be groomed as managers. Public awareness and image-building promotional programs that address these perceptions and needs will be useful for private and public organizations. In addition, business schools will need to examine the different needs of students in each country as well as the different environments in which these students will be employed. Program planners will need to develop unique programs for those students who wish to pursue management careers in the public sector.

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## CHAPTER I

### FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

#### Introduction

Organizational success is a function of many things, some of which are within the control of management and some of which are not. Recruiting and retaining a qualified pool of future managers is one necessary ingredient in achieving success. Retaining competent people depends, in part, on the organization's ability to motivate them. This is especially difficult for multinational corporations that operate in vastly different environments in which employees are motivated differently. Knowing these differences in motivation to work across nations and knowing why they exist is one way in which these organizations can be successful. Furthermore, educational institutions, which play a major role in shaping business students' attitudes and values, can do a great deal to support economic and social development within a country. In this respect, business schools can also benefit from understanding students' job motivations and perceptions of public and private business organizations.

This research study compares the job factor motivations, achievement needs, perceptions of public and private business enterprises and values of business students in Sri Lanka and Canada. A related objective is to examine whether or not these differences are attributable to cultural, environmental, or psychological differences between these two countries.

#### Research Problem

Research evidence suggests that environmental, behavioural and psychological differences between countries differentiate management practices. Yet, many researchers contend that cultural differences between nations are the major constraints to transferring management concepts

developed in North America to developing countries (Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi, 1983). These authors have found that culture is a significant determinant of attitudes. The transfer of theories to nations which are now at a stage similar to advanced nations several decades ago must account for these differences. Moreover, developing nations differ from more advanced nations because they are characterized by rapid change and instability. Public corporations generally play a larger role in the economies of developing nations compared to those in developed nations.

Some researchers point to the importance of Western management tools in the modernization of developing nations (Seffin, 1976). Developing nations tend to have an extreme shortage of trained management personnel due to the limited availability of management education in these countries (Lee, 1968). Management training is critical for modernizing the state of development in such nations. Furthermore, students, as a future pool of management resources, can play a vital role in this modernization.

As part of these management development programs, some business schools are establishing both graduate and undergraduate management programs in developing countries. Many of the modern management theories are transferred to developing nations through these schools. However, management schools are sometimes accused of teaching techniques without considering the broader context of the societies within which their students function (Hill, 1985). In order for education to be effective, it must meet the needs of the students and the needs of society in general.

Understanding the needs, perceptions and attitudes of students would give educational planners some insight into curriculum design and course development (Ahmed, 1981a). Students bring certain attitudes about public and private business enterprises to the educational institutions they attend. These schools are able to reinforce positive attitudes and, more importantly, are able to minimize unfavourable attitudes. This is why

business schools can act as key agents in the socialization process.

If management schools are to be agents of social change in developing nations, it is imperative that these schools determine the perceptions of students regarding public and private business enterprises. Schools can then tailor their programs to satisfy the needs of these students. Students, as future managers in these countries, can then act as catalysts of change.

Some research has been conducted on North American students' perceptions of business (Ahmed, 1981a). Until now, no study has been conducted to compare these perceptions across cultures. This research attempts to compare these perceptions across different nations so that educational planners in developing countries can develop management programs that help improve the state of economic development in their countries.

The study of students' perceptions and motivations should not be limited to educational institutions. Organizational success depends in part upon the recruitment and motivation of competent personnel (Ahmed and Jabes, 1988). Job performance is very much influenced by work motivation. If new recruits are not satisfied with their job outcomes, their level of motivation and job satisfaction will decline (Schmitt and Son, 1981). Multinational companies should be able to assess job factor motivations, achievement needs and value systems. Since most students will seek employment in public and private business enterprises, international firms should place a great deal of emphasis on examining the managerial behaviour of future managers. This is especially important for organizations in developing nations.

Thus, this research study of students from two distinct countries will provide additional insight into the research literature of managerial behaviour and attitudes. For educational institutions, this research will give some indication of the values and attitudes they should impart upon

students. For firms conducting business in foreign countries, this research will give them a hint of what to expect of future managers.

### Research Objectives

Given the specific research problems discussed in the previous section, the following research objectives were developed:

- Identify if students from two vastly different societies differ with respect to job factor outcomes, needs for achievement, perceptions of public and private corporations, and value systems; and
- Given some degree of significant differences in the first objective, the independent variables will be tested to see which variables, environmental, personality, or cultural, best discriminate the two groups of students.

### Research Sample

Given the broad range of variables included in this study, it was necessary to select a sample which was large enough to be representative of the respective populations. In order to fulfill the research objectives, it was also necessary to select samples from two very different nations. Hence, it was decided to sample students from an economically advanced country, namely Canada, and from an economically deprived country, namely Sri Lanka.

Sri Lanka is a political democracy devoted to free enterprise and capitalism. Since president Jayewardene became the leader of the country, Sri Lanka has done relatively well compared to some other Asian nations. An island situated just south of India with a land area of over 25,000 square miles, Sri Lanka has an estimated population of 15 million. The economy is

driven principally by agriculture, but the scenic beauty and innovative development programs have allowed tourism to thrive. Per capita income is low by world standards at \$150 U.S. in 1979. Buddhism is the dominant religion practiced by 70% of the population, followed by Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. Education has been free and the literacy rate is 96%. The infant mortality rate has been decreasing and the inhabitants are living longer and better lives. Political violence has had a significant impact on tourism and the economy in general. There appears to be no end in sight to the threats posed by the terrorist tactics of the Tamils. This has left both the political and economic future of the country uncertain.

Students from five Canadian universities were sampled to yield 811 Canadian business students. Alternatively, 389 students were sampled from two universities in Sri Lanka to represent the Sri Lankan business students. This produced a total sample of 1200 business students.

### Organization of the Thesis

The material in this thesis is organized into eight chapters. Chapter II reviews the research literature which is relevant to the research problem. Chapter III presents the hypotheses which build on the literature review and drive the research objectives. Methodological and operational issues involved in meeting the research objectives are addressed in Chapter IV. The preliminary analysis of the research data is discussed in Chapter V. Chapter VI details the results in light of the research hypotheses. The results of multivariate analyses are described in Chapter VII. The final chapter examines the implications of the research findings for multinational companies as well as educational institutions. Possible directions for future research are also discussed in this final chapter.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The material in this chapter reviews the literature concerning perceptions, motivations and values and their relationship to the research problem. This chapter is divided into eight sections. First, the development of the marketing literature is reviewed. The purpose of this is to show the relevance of marketing principles to the present research problem. Second, the literature dealing with the transfer of management methods to developing nations is discussed in order to: understand how the transfer is made, assess the constraints for this transfer and gain an appreciation for the use of these techniques in developing nations. Third, the role of education is examined. The purpose of this section is to examine the success with which educational institutions implement marketing concepts. Fourth, the literature dealing with job factor motivations is discussed. The fifth section examines the research conducted on the perceptions of business and government enterprises. The literature dealing with achievement motivation is the subject of section six. Section seven explores the research related to values and their relevance to comparative research. The final section discusses theories and research in cross-cultural management studies.

#### Development of the Marketing Discipline

Like most other disciplines, marketing began as a rather rudimentary subject based on other management disciplines. Over time, the role and definition of marketing has evolved. This section briefly highlights this evolution.

Marketing was traditionally related to the fields of economics, systems science and operations research. Marketing in the era of Arrow, Karlin and Scarf (1958) and Vidale and Wolfe (1957) was a scientific phenomenon. Marketing theory then placed emphasis on market share, profit margin, actual purchase behaviour, or repeat purchase behaviour. Markov's behavioural

models became popular in this era. These models of purchase behaviour were based on the assumption that a consumer's subsequent purchase was determined by their most recent purchase (Frank, 1962). These models focussed on predicting behaviour as opposed to explaining it.

The emphasis then shifted to one which focussed on the marketing concept. The role of the marketing discipline was not just confined to repeat purchase behaviour in order to maximize profits. In this stage, emphasis was also placed on satisfying the consumer. From a marketing perspective, the role of business was to maximize consumer satisfaction at a profit (Sirgy, 1984). The traditional focus of an output-oriented discipline changed to an input-oriented approach based on consumer behaviour. The study of marketing began to draw from theories in the fields of psychology, social psychology and sociology. Authors such as Howard and Sheth (1969), Barrett (1960) and Hansen (1972) devoted their efforts to understanding and predicting consumer satisfaction.

The study of marketing soon began to evolve in other directions. Public policy issues related to consumer protection followed the initial onset of the consumerism movement. Cohen (1972) and Aaker and Day (1981) were just a few of the scholars who directed marketing efforts to educating and protecting consumers against the abuse inflicted upon the general public by businesses.

The domain of marketing thought did not rest here. Today, marketing activity is applied to nonprofit institutions such as universities and hospitals (Kotler, 1979) and to government institutions and services such as tourism (Ahmed, 1987). The field of social marketing, which applies marketing concepts to noneconomic goods such as political candidates (Fox and Kotler, 1980), ecology (Kirnear, Taylor and Ahmed, 1974) and social problems such as alcohol abuse and cigarette consumption, has also evolved.

The transfer of Western management theory to developing countries cannot be considered in isolation. When it is transferred through educational institutions, it must meet the needs of the local nation's development efforts. This means that business schools in these countries need to determine the local needs for modernization. Then these schools can adjust their programs to satisfy these needs. Understanding students' perceptions could serve as a starting point for this effort.

### Transfer of Management Methods Abroad

Developing nations often attempt to use Western management tools for the purpose of development and modernization. Consideration must be given to whether these tools are transferable and, if so, under what circumstances.

Universalists like Koontz and O'Donnell (1964) view management principles as being applicable universally. Flores (1972) found that Western management techniques were used by Filipino firms but with less sophistication. During interviews with managers in Filipino and American firms, this author found that Filipino firms formulated goals, objectives and prepared plans by following the same basic procedures as the American firms. However, the Filipino firms were less thorough and specific in setting them than their American counterparts. Filipino firms even set guidelines and criteria for hiring and promotion, but these were both less consistent and less accurate than those of the American firms.

This research shows that the organization and staffing process in Filipino firms is influenced by economic and socio-cultural factors such as uneven distribution of wealth, a lack of capital, inefficient capital markets, a lack of qualified management personnel and the existence of clusters of firms which are owned and managed by a few upper-class families or friends. Planning in Filipino firms is shaped by local economic factors, such as a lack of relevant statistics in some industries. This reduces the planning

cycle to a shorter period than in the United States. Low salaries make it difficult to hire qualified management graduates. Finally, the control function in these firms is influenced by socio-cultural factors such as a lack of urgency, aggressiveness and initiative among Filipino managers and a tolerance for low quality work.

Shetty (1973) conducted an exploratory study to identify environmental variables that obstruct the adoption of management techniques in developing countries. This comparative study of American and Indian companies uncovered environmental variables that constrain the transfer of management know-how in developing countries. These factors include a lack of receptivity by the market and a long pay-back period for the initial investment required, and high unemployment. Centralized decision-making and a lack of delegation due to authoritarian values constrain the transfer of management practices as well.

Lee (1968) identified five environmental problem areas for management programs in developing nations based on his study of Pakistan and Ethiopia. The major problem areas include a limited supply of leadership potential, educational standards and programs that are substandard, hostile local attitudes towards business as a provider of jobs and welfare, very different perceptions of what an ideal manager should be and a general resistance to traditional American development approaches such as face-to-face criticism. Among other considerations, the author recommends that local needs and attitudes be assessed and then reinforced by providing more support for education in these countries.

Pizam and Reichel (1977) studied the values of Israeli managers. Members of the Israeli society tend to represent a mixture of two distinct cultural systems -- the Europeans and Americans on the one hand, and Asians and Africans on the other. The authors found that managerial attitude differences were attributable to these divergent cultural backgrounds.

· Furthermore, these differences accounted for variances in the management practices which were adopted in this country.

Even in the realm of public administration, Siffen (1976) argues that the real problem is not one of transferring management tools but centres more on a limited local capability to implement them. In his review of twenty years of public management in developing nations, he found that the managerial tools were transferable but that their availability encouraged misuse and suboptimization. Moreover, the transferred methods were used to maintain established arrangements with institutionalized systems rather to improve these arrangements. Public administration training in these nations was criticized for negating the more basic needs for analysis of local development problems.

Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi (1983) conducted a comprehensive review of the literature dealing with the transfer of administration techniques to other countries. Their findings show a time gap between the use of these techniques in modern nations and developing countries. This allows developing nations to disregard untested theories but it also deprives these countries of the most current knowledge. The techniques are generally applicable to these societies even when controlling for organization type and size. Furthermore, the techniques influence both the attitudes and effectiveness of local managers. However, the effect of culture is a more significant determinant of these attitudes. The state of economic development also appears to impose a constraint on this transfer. Western theories assume competition, specialization and large firm size which do not exist in developing countries.

The authors tend to agree that Western management tools are transferable but their usefulness may be limited because of differing cultures, economies, institutions and political practices. Since developing nations are characterized by rapid change, economic and sometimes political instability,

there is a strong need for these countries to stress innovation and adaptation in the use of Western practices. There is also a need to conduct situational analysis in order to determine the prevailing local attitudes and values. Both environmental and organizational factors specific to each nation tend to constrain the transfer of management practices to other nations.

### Role of Education

Management skills are often transferred through multinational corporations to countries abroad. It is now recognized that educational institutions, particularly schools of business, also play a vital role in the transfer of management tools to other nations.

Many business schools in the developing nations have been patterned after those in the United States. Flores (1972) argues that the mere presence of American business schools in developing countries is evidence that there are no serious problems or constraints to the transferability of American management practices. In his study of American subsidiaries in the Philippines, Flores found that North American techniques were being used, but with much less sophistication. The use of these techniques did produce better results based on return on assets or equity. However, Flores makes the assumption that these schools are properly taking into account the needs of local students. The findings indicate that some tools are transferrable and that the Filipino environment may be suitable for the applicability of North American management techniques.

On the other hand, Hill (1985) has found that schools have been teaching techniques to students without considering the broader context of the societies that these students will work in. This type of dilemma can only serve to compound the problems related to the shortage of qualified managers in developing countries. He suggests that business schools take more of a

marketing approach that takes into account the needs of the students and the market.

Gupta and Mayer (1985) point to the importance of educational institutions being responsive to the needs of their clientele. The managerial skills taught in these schools must be relevant to these developing countries. In this way, management schools in developing nations can take responsibility for producing managers who will become agents of social change.

Negandhi and Estafen (1965) reason that management schools should consider local attitudes since management practices are a function of the beliefs and attitudes prevalent in the local environment. Thomas and Smith (1972) also state that the successful transfer of management practices to other nations depends on the attitudes held by local managers. The role of education is effective if the learning process is attentive to key value and attitudinal changes. For schools in developing countries such as Sri Lanka, these authors suggest a marketing approach that pays more attention to local attitudes rather than asking whether or not Western management methods are transferrable.

Siffen (1976) examined the development of public administration in developing countries during the past twenty years. He found that the transfer of administrative techniques to governments in developing nations was accompanied by a transfer of values. However, value orientations in these countries are different from those in the West. Management schools in these countries overlook more basic needs such as the analysis of development problems and the relations between administrative and local environmental goals.

It appears that management schools abroad could become much more effective by becoming more market-focussed in addition to transferring Western management methods. There is a need for these schools to take into account

the local values and attitudes held by members. Other than the studies conducted by Ahmed (1981a, 1981b), there appears to be no extensive literature dealing with students' attitudes regarding business and government in their respective countries. Such data could give educational institutions valuable information for planning management programs that reflect and shape the attitudes inherent in the local environment.

### Job Factors

The research literature dealing with motivation work factors and rewards is extensive. Understanding job expectations, work motivation and satisfaction among members of local countries is crucial if administrative techniques are to be transferred to these countries. The motivation to work is an important consideration that deserves some attention.

Kanungo, Gorn and Dauderis (1976) emphasize that work motivation and job satisfaction are largely determined by the interaction between the characteristics of the job and the characteristics of the employees. These authors, in addition to Ahmed and Jabes (1988), state that employee characteristics and expectations refer to the orientations and values held by employees toward specific job factors. Gordon (1983) states that the motivation to work occurs because of the availability of job factors, the value attached to them and the quality of their distribution within the organization.

Job outcomes have been grouped into two broad categories (Lawler, 1973). Extrinsic outcomes are those which are obtained by one individual from another. They are outcomes which are more tangible and externally-mediated. Herzberg, Manser and Snyderman (1959) studied managers in accounting and engineering firms and concluded that two types of needs exist. These are satisfiers and dissatisfiers, which were later renamed as motivators and hygiene factors. Based upon the research findings, the authors conclude

that the hygiene factors, which are characteristics of the work environment, can prevent dissatisfaction but do not motivate. Instead, the nature of the work itself is related to motivation on the job.

Herzberg's use of the critical incident technique was criticized by numerous authors and the generalization of the results was questioned. Nonetheless, the extrinsic job outcomes appear to correspond to Herzberg's hygiene factors. Those who work because they receive rewards such as pay, prestige and benefits are extrinsically-motivated.

The other broad category of job outcomes includes intrinsic rewards. These outcomes are the natural consequences of specific behaviour (White and Bednar, 1986) and come from within the individual. They satisfy the higher-level needs such as esteem and self-actualization proposed by Maslow (1954) or the growth needs proposed by Alderfer (1972). People who work because they are motivated by the work itself are intrinsically-motivated.

Two groups of individuals may have very different need orientations with respect to work. Therefore, they may experience varying degrees of satisfaction from the job and may be motivated very differently. Vroom (1964) stresses that the assessment of work motivation requires not only uncovering what the job offers, but also requires assessing the value of these job outcomes. Korman (1971) suggests that differences in employee work motivation may stem primarily from the influence of the reference group to which the person belongs. This suggests that differences in the orientation towards job factors would materialize for two distinct cultural groups.

Karungo, Gorn and Dauderis (1976) compared the motivational orientation of Canadian Anglophone and Francophone managers. Respondents were first asked to rank order fifteen job factors according to their perceived importance. They were then asked to rate their present level of satisfaction in their

own jobs on each job factor on a seven-point scale. The demographic profile of the sample was representative of the two cultural groups. Relative to the Anglophones, the Francophones considered job factors such as security, promotion opportunity and technical supervision to be more important. On the other hand, factors such as recognition, achievement and interpersonal relations were more important for the English sample. In general, the Francophones were more satisfied with their job characteristics and appeared to have lower level needs.

Kanungo and Bhatnagar (1978) conducted a similar study with a sample of Anglophone and Francophone students and found the results to be very similar. Ahmed (1977) also investigated the job-related attitudes and motivations of Anglophone and Francophone business students. Using a sample of students from Bishop's University, which is predominantly English, and from the University of Sherbrooke, which is predominantly French, the researcher computed t-tests to compare the responses of the two groups of students. Among the significant differences for the job factors, the English students had higher mean ratings on job environment, job interest and promotability. Alternatively, the French students placed more importance on training programs. While four of the six job factor means differences were found to be significant, there was no evidence to show which group was more motivated by extrinsic or intrinsic rewards.

In 1978, Ahmed (1981a) replicated this study using the same two universities to draw samples and found that the two groups differed with respect to only two job factors. There was no significant change in the importance placed on job factors over the six year period for the English students based upon normal t-tests. During this same time period, the importance placed on job factors for the French students showed a statistically significant change. In general, the French students' emphasis on job factors was approaching that of the English students. Furthermore, the French Canadian students' perception of business had improved. The results supported the programs

being used by Quebec business and government undertaken to increase social and economic progress in that province.

Interestingly enough, the studies using managerial samples gave some support to the hypothesis that the Francophones are more extrinsically-motivated. However, in those studies in which students were used as respondents this hypothesis was not supported.

Kanungo and Wright (1983) conducted a study examining managerial job motivations in France and English Canada. Differences were found to exist between the two groups of managers. Generally, the English Canadian managers attached more importance to intrinsic outcomes such as fair pay, promotions and interesting work. The French managers attached more importance to the extrinsic factors such as working conditions and fringe benefits.

Ahmed and Jabes (1988) investigated the same two countries but used students in their sample to investigate job values. Based upon a six item job factor scale, there were no statistically significant differences between the English Canadian and French students' mean scores on the intrinsic characteristics of job interest and promotability and on the extrinsic factor of salary. The Canadian students put more emphasis on job security and training programs. The French students placed more importance on job environment. Once again, these results differed from those discovered by Kanungo and Wright (1983) for their sample of managers.

Why such discrepancies occur is intriguing. Ahmed and Jabes (1986) discuss several explanations. One is that there may exist a generational gap in the importance attached to job characteristics. The results of their study may reflect the viewpoints and opinions of a younger generation. Second, these attitudes may change in the direction of the managers in Kanungo and Wright's (1983) study once the students actually begin their careers.

Finally, they argue that contextual factors, such as the greater assurance of permanent employment in France, may explain the difference.

Negandhi (1975) notes that the use of managers as respondents presents problems for the comparison of perceptions. Managers are already working for firms where contextual factors such as location, size and technology may encourage the formation of certain shared frames of reference. Dowling and Nagel (1986), who studied the attitudes of both Australian and American managers and students, argue for the use of students who have not yet begun their careers. This controls against internal threats to validity. These two authors found that a student sample explained differences in work attitudes between the United States and Australia. An identical study using samples of managers from those countries failed to show such differences. Thus, contextual factors may explain why there are differences in the importance placed on job factors by managers and students.

Slocum Jr. (1971) studied the perceptions of need satisfaction and their importance for Mexican and American blue-collar workers. He used Porter's need questionnaire (1961) which is essentially a modification of Maslow's need hierarchy theory. Care was taken to control for both technological and contextual factors so that the impact of culture on need satisfaction could be assessed. For instance, both samples included firms of the same parent company with similar policies and with production lines producing identical products using the same machinery. Job descriptions, lines of authority and chains of command were similar as well. The findings indicated that the Mexicans and Americans differed on almost every need item. The Mexicans were more satisfied than their American counterparts and appeared to be motivated by more basic needs.

Hofstede's (1980) landmark study of values in forty countries attempted to uncover how national cultures differed. He found that countries could be distinguished empirically on four dimensions. These four dimensions include

power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism and masculinity-femininity. Power distance is the extent to which a society accepts unequal power distributions. Uncertainty avoidance, which links to personality, is the lack of tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty and groups with deviant ideas. Individualism-collectivism and masculinity-femininity correspond to dominant value sets within countries. Canadian managers tolerated a large power distance, were strong in uncertainty avoidance and were individualistic and feminine. There were significant differences between managers in India and Sri Lanka, French-speaking and German-speaking managers in Europe, and managers in England, the United States and Australia.

Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello and Weiser (1972) state that managers in developing countries prefer more passive employees. McClelland (1961) argues that employees in developing nations place more importance on lower level needs compared to more developed countries. Barrett (1976) notes that the motivation to work in more advanced countries such as Canada is related to higher level needs such as recognition, self-actualization and affiliation. Existing research suggests that employees in advanced nations have different motivations and needs compared to employees in developing nations.

#### Perceptions of Business and Government

Both public and private corporations pursue objectives that are economic in nature. In North America, these same corporations are pursuing social objectives that relate to social problems. It would be interesting to compare the corporate performance and commitment to social issues of public and private corporations between advanced and developing nations.

Carroll (1979) developed a three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance in which he discusses the essential aspects of corporate social

performance. The author identifies these four aspects as economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities. These four categories are not mutually exclusive but their order appears to relate to their evolution of importance in business activity. History suggests that businesses concern themselves first with their economic and legal responsibilities. An emphasis on ethical and discretionary responsibilities evolves at a later point in time. Carroll admits that there is no agreement on what the social issues should be. However, he does recommend that corporations first identify the social issues, determine their degree of sensitivity to the issues and then develop a response strategy. When corporations determine their degree of sensitivity to the issues, they are influenced by the perceptions of the management executives that run them. These perceptions are a result of forces embedded in culture. However, the level of social responsibility adopted by a firm is both a function of the state of evolution of businesses in a specific country and forces within the local culture.

According to Holmes (1976), there are three major philosophies concerning business responsibility. The classical view, which is little more than Adam Smith's 'invisible hand', emphasizes the economic performance of business in the production of goods and services. The motivating force for business is profit. This view is typical of business practices in the nineteenth century. The managerial view, which emerged in the 1930's, forces corporations to be responsible for balancing the rights of customers, suppliers and the local community in addition to maximizing shareholders' wealth. The public view, which has been defended by the writings of Ralph Nader, emphasizes the importance of corporations operating with the public interest in mind. This view has surfaced over the last fifteen years and has affected the activities of all organizations.

Empirical research conducted by Holmes (1976) was restricted to interviews with large American corporations that were among the firms listed in the

1974 Fortune directory of the 500 largest corporations. The author found that the opinions of top executives towards corporate social responsibility had changed over a five year period. Moderator variables such as executive position, type and size of firm and the number of employees or assets, did not statistically affect the data. The executives perceived the efforts of their firms to have had more positive than negative outcomes for society as well as for their corporations. In selecting areas of social involvement, executives considered their company's competence and capability as well as the seriousness of the social issues to be the most influential factors. Finally, the executives were very optimistic about the ability of business to alleviate social problems.

On the other hand, Gill and Leinbach (1983) surveyed the senior managers of 850 companies in Hong Kong in order to assess their attitudes towards consumerism, shareholders, employees and society. The findings showed that corporate social responsibility is neither well-accepted nor practiced in Hong Kong despite the laissez-faire system of government. The data revealed that the managers' attitudes towards social responsibility was influenced not only by family upbringing, but also by traditional customs and beliefs. Chi-square tests showed that the age of respondents was significantly associated with the attitudes towards society.

Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsai (1983) reviewed the literature dealing with the applicability of Western management concepts in developing nations. They found that Western tools were being used in countries such as Mexico, India, Turkey, Nigeria, East Africa, Iraq and Vietnam. The private corporations in these countries appear to be socially responsible only when forced by legislation or when the consequences of their own business decisions require such action.

Public corporations operate in a paradoxical environment according to Whorton and Worthley (1979). Economic rationality cannot always be

practiced in public corporations due to the forces in the political environment. According to the authors, this environment shapes and reinforces a culture that is perceived as the rule of authority rather than the rule of common sense. This culture, in turn, justifies the expectancy that performance is less than it could be. Accordingly, public managers try to rationalize this paradoxical environment and this leads to a public image that is distorted.

Lynn Jr. (1984) argues that business is not the best teacher of public management practices. He too emphasizes that managing in the public sector is unique. In order to improve public sector management, he recommends that schools adopt a general management orientation. Curricula that is relevant to both sectors can then be developed.

According to Newcomb, Turner and Converse (1965), there are two central attitudes that corporations have to attend to in local environments. One such set of attitudes include global attitudes. These are abstract and general in nature and serve to guide an individual's behaviour across a variety of situations. They possess a strong psychological centrality. Since these attitudes originate from a person's self-concept, which is shaped by the process of socialization, they are deeply ingrained. As such, they are difficult to change. Any change would require the attitude to become inconsistent with a number of individual values. An example of a global attitude is nationalism. On the other hand, domain-specific attitudes have less centrality. They also shape individual behaviour but their link to other attitudes and values is weaker. Hence, they are easier to change. The authors state that providing new information that is inconsistent with current beliefs may result in a cognitive change leading to a change in attitude.

Yavas, Yaprak and Riecken (1982) conducted an empirical study to determine the perceptions of foreign multinational corporations among Turkish and

American students. The authors used domain-specific and global attitudes and socio-demographic variables in a multiple regression model to predict the extent to which multinational corporations were restricted. For the Turkish sample, sociopolitical attitudes were the only significant predictors of the dependent variable. For the American sample, both domain-specific and global attitudes were significant predictors of the dependent variable. Nationality was a significant moderating variable. Thus, the authors found that the domain-specific attitudes were the significant predictors of attitudes towards foreign companies. These are the types of attitudes that businesses can attempt to change. However, Fayweather (1975) found that the importance of these factors varies from one country to another. Hence, the results of this study may only be specific to the United States and Turkey.

Educators can reinforce positive attitudes and attempt to minimize negative attitudes. From the structural approach to attitude change, using positive information would introduce and reinforce dissonance to those who are neutral or negative (Festinger, 1957). This change in affective attitudes would then lead to a more permanent change in behavioural attitudes.

Krombeen (1983) criticizes education in several countries for producing young managers who lack both the cultural and professional skills required to make positive changes in their countries. He, like Ahmed (1981a, 1981b), Garrison (1961), Fulbright (1977) and Fayweather (1975) stresses the importance of addressing the attitudes and perceptions held by students towards both local firms and foreign firms.

Some authors have expressed concern for the use of students as subjects in international business research. The research indicates that students are selected for several reasons. Students, as tomorrow's managers, will become future decision-makers who can act as agents of change. Students also play a large role in decision-making in many corporations. Finally, business

students are interested in the operations of private and public businesses. Thus, they are always evaluating their role in management.

Ewing and Harold (1964) conducted a study of foreign students' attitudes towards American businesses. They found that attitudes were favourable for those students who were in the United States for more than six years, came from western societies and studied business. It would appear, then, that the exposure to American attitudes assimilates students from similar political environments to American ideas. Education can and does influence attitudes.

Garrison (1961) found similar results for the worldmindedness of students in the United States. Students' views of world problems tend to increase as the person progresses through college, when they come from urban and professional backgrounds and when their major field of study is social psychology. It also increases relative to increases in church attendance. Paul (1966) conducted a similar study of worldmindedness among Panjab university students in India. He found that worldmindedness is related to political inclination, father's occupation, intended occupation and economic status.

Ahmed's (1981a) study of French Canadian and English Canadian students' perceptions of business showed an improvement in the French students' attitudes towards business. This longitudinal research study showed that the French students were more negative regarding the social performance of business than the English students. French students generally had positive perceptions of business.

### **Achievement Motivation**

Achievement motivation is embedded within a country's culture. Researchers have used personality measures such as achievement to investigate cultural

differences. The following section reviews the literature dealing with achievement motivation.

As the pioneer of achievement research, McClelland (1961) emphasizes the importance of the achievement motive in economic development efforts. According to him, achievement need structure is influenced by the culture within a given society. The need for achievement has long been recognized as a need which significantly affects a person's performance. Individuals high in the need for achievement are primarily concerned with achievement in itself as opposed to the reward resulting from the achievement. They also require immediate feedback on progress and prefer working independently (White and Badnar, 1986).

Heckhausen (1967) argues that achievement-related items differ in their degree of generalization over certain situations. Atkinson (1960) describes achievement-oriented behaviour to be the result of the motive to succeed minus the motive to avoid failure. Barrett and Bass (1976) emphasizes that managerial success is, in part, related to achievement motivation. It has also been shown that, by improving the environment's compatibility with the needs of individuals, one should be able to improve motivation and performance (Gordon, 1983).

Heckhausen (1967) contends that, contrary to conventional theory, achievement is a multi-dimensional motive. Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976) empirically derived six distinct dimensions of achievement: Concern for Excellence, Acquisitiveness, Status With Peers, Competitiveness, Status With Experts and Independence. The researchers constructed definitions for each dimension and then measured each one with five different methods. Thirty measures were incorporated into a multitrait-multimethod matrix and subjected to factor analysis and correlation analysis. The results indicated a substantial amount of psychometric reliability for separate achievement dimensions. This Six Dimensional Achievement Scale (Jackson,

Ahmed and Heapy, 1976) provides a richer description of achievement needs than other scales. The scale has also been used successfully for making cross-national comparisons (Ahmed, 1987).

Ahmed has made extensive use of the scale in a number of studies. In his study of international tourists' psychological profiles (1987), he found that Sri Lankan elites scored higher on the dimensions Excellence, Status with Peers and Status with Experts compared to English, French and German tourists. Ahmed (1977) used the scale to uncover differences within countries also. Compared to English Canadians, French Canadians tend to score higher on Excellence, Acquisitiveness and Status with Experts, yet score lower on the Competitiveness dimension. In another study comparing Sri Lankan Sinhalese and Tamils, Ahmed (1987) found the two groups to be quite similar with respect to their needs for achievement. Expert and Peer Status should be more important for Sri Lankans since this is a group-oriented society where parental and authority figures are very respected and affiliative needs are stressed.

Ahmed and Jabes (1988) used the scale to compare English Canadian students with French students. They found that the English Canadians show a greater concern for Excellence, Independence, Expert Status and Competitiveness and less concern for Status with Peers. Islam and Ahmed (1984) also used the scale as part of a study that examined perceptual differences of public and private business enterprises.

The scale has particular relevance to the present research study. Knowledge of achievement motivation differences between Canadian and Sri Lankan students can provide valuable information on work-related and pedagogical issues which will motivate students from Canada and Sri Lanka.

Meade's (1961) study of leadership in India provides evidence that authoritarianism leads to better performance among followers than does a

democratic leadership style. The research was based on an experimental study of 24 grade school boys aged 10 and 11. The boys were placed into one of two boys' clubs in which they had to complete several projects. One club had a democratic leader and the other had an authoritarian leader. The results showed that there was a greater rate of absenteeism in the democratic groups, the boys preferred the authoritarian leader over the democratic leader and projects were completed faster and with more quality by the groups working under the authoritarian leader. Thus, in India, authoritarian leadership leads to better performance and higher morale.

These findings are contrary to the research findings of Lippitt and White (1943). These authors conducted the original experiment with American boys and discovered that a democratic leadership style led to better performance. However, these findings still support the theoretical explanation that leadership effectiveness is related to the satisfaction of the follower's needs and the efficiency with which the leader promotes them. Both cultural and personality differences are important considerations in determining the effectiveness of leadership style.

Meade and Whittaker (1967) studied samples of college students in the United States, Hong Kong, Arabia, India, Rhodesia and Brazil. Respondents were asked to complete the California F Scale which is designed to measure the personality factor of authoritarianism. Using a seven-point scale for each item, respondents expressed their degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement. The t-test analysis showed that American students were the least authoritarian. The Indian and Rhodesian students were more authoritarian than all of the other cultures tested.

Barrett and Bass (1976) argue that lower level needs such as survival are more important in developing nations. Respondents from developing countries also tend to score lower on the achievement motivation test according to McClelland (1961). Anti-social emotions and confrontations are also avoided

in these countries (Bourgeois and Boltvinik, 1981). Compared to North Americans, people from developing nations possess a belief that individuals are not capable of being good leaders or exercising leadership (Haire, Ghiselli and Porter, 1966).

Triandis and Vassiliou (1972) studied 43 Americans employed by a large American firm in Athens, Greece and 43 Greeks employed by a large Athenian firms. Respondents were asked whether they would hire 16 potential job applicants based upon four bipolar characteristics. Three sets of analysis were conducted: one excluding the sex of the respondents, one excluding their social class and one excluding their nationality. All three of these groups of analyses showed similar results. Analysis of covariance showed that Greeks are more likely than Americans to attach importance to recommendations made by close friends and relatives in the employee selection process. Hofstede's (1980) findings support this. He reported that employees of firms in Canada and the United States were more individualistic than those in Indian firms.

### Values in Comparative Research

In order to examine cultural differences between countries, some researchers have focused on value differences. The following section reviews the literature that addresses cross-cultural value comparisons.

Rokeach (1973) defines a value as,

"...an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence."

Values are neither stable nor unstable. Instead, they are enduring. Values are initially learned in isolation from other values. As we grow, we may find that a particular value may come into conflict with other values.

Values are said to change in their relative importance to one another. Furthermore, values are distinguished from attitudes in that the latter are defined as an organization of several beliefs around a specific observation or object. They are further differentiated by the fact that values act as standards while attitudes do not since the evaluations of attitude objects may be based upon a relatively small number of values acting as standards. Finally, Dichter (1984) emphasizes the importance of studying values that lie behind attitudes.

Since values hold a more central position than attitudes within an individual's personality and cognitive system, they act as determinants of attitudes and behaviour. Behaviour is the manifestation of an individual's attitudes and values (Rokeach, 1973). Thus, values are often used as independent variables in cross-cultural studies. While some researchers have argued for the use of values as dependent variables (Munson, 1984), many have used values to explain differences or similarities across nations.

Rokeach (1973), defines values as "end-states of existence", which he labels terminal values, and as "modes of conduct", which he labels instrumental values. He further classifies terminal values as being personal (self-centred, intrapersonal) and social (society-oriented, interpersonal). End-states such as salvation and peace of mind are personal, while world of peace and brotherhood are social values. Instrumental values are classified as moral values and competence values. The moral values have an interpersonal focus which, if violated, arouse feelings of guilt and wrongdoing. This includes values such as honesty and love. Competence values, sometimes referred to as self-actualization values, are more personal and include values such as being logical and imaginative.

Pizam and Reichel (1977) studied the attitudes of Israeli managers participating in executive development programs. The sample included

managers from Israel's two dominant subcultures, the Western culture and the Oriental culture. Fifty managers were of Western descent -- their fathers' birth place was Europe or North America. Forty-two managers were of Oriental descent -- their fathers' birth place was Asia or Africa. The two groups matched demographically with respect to age, sex and positions in organizations. The authors found that the Oriental managers in Israel are less inclined toward centralized decision-making, involve more their peers in the evaluation of subordinates, believe more in long-term commitment to one employer, are more paternalistic and individualistic and have less respect for formal authority. In general, support was given for the idea that values persist with second generation managers in Israel.

Kiggundu, Jorgenson and Hafsi (1983) conducted a scientific review of the literature dealing with the practice of administrative techniques in developing countries. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which there is a strong link in the use of these techniques. Authors who investigated organizational tools and technology are most likely to find a strong fit. On the other hand, those authors who focused on the organization's relationship with the environment are more likely to find a weak fit. The importance of different economies, institutions and values has a strong influence on the applicability of administrative techniques. The researchers also noted that managers from tradition-oriented societies differ from those in the more advanced societies of the West.

Hofstede (1976) notes that values are part of any nation's culture but alone do not completely define culture. In his study of employees working in multinational corporations in over forty countries, he found value differences between South Asian nations and Western nations such as the United States, Australia and English Canada. In another study of personal values across five countries including Japan, Australia, Korea, India and the United States, England (1978) found both similarities and differences in managers' values. These values were not susceptible to rapid change.

Ahmed (1987) researched the psychological profiles of Sri Lankan elites and English, French and German tourists travelling in Sri Lanka. The Rokeach Value Scale (1973) was used to measure value differences. The findings showed that the Sri Lankans differed most significantly with the English tourists with respect to their desired end-states of existence. The Sri Lankans attached more importance to the means employed to reach these end-states of existence.

Kanungo, Gorn and Dauderis (1976) studied the motivational orientation of Anglophone and Francophone managers in Montreal, Quebec corporations. They found that Francophones were more satisfied with their job outcomes than the Anglophones based upon the Newman Keuls comparative test. The results were explained in terms of the cultural differences that exist between the two groups. The authors believe that the more intrinsic motivation of the Anglophone managers is based upon the Protestant Work Ethic which places emphasis on work for its own sake. Their lives centre around work and therefore work is seen as the primary vehicle through which personal goals are achieved. The Francophones, on the other hand, were driven by the catholic ethic which emphasizes the family. Work is perceived to be for the sake of the family. The researchers did not conduct any empirical analysis to support the link between work motivation and cultural attitudes.

One author (Triandis, 1980) reported how American students hold different values (Rokeach, 1973) compared to Indian students. The influence of religion in India, namely Hinduism, transcends values such as social restraint and self-control. The Americans are more self-indulgent and tend to be activists. Indian students attach more importance to becoming a respected and influential person.

Reynolds (1984) examined the value differences (Rokeach, 1973) between American and German university students. Based upon the rank-ordered scores

on terminal and instrumental values, he found that the German students were socially-oriented in their end-states. The American students were more personal-oriented. The Germans also tended to be competence-oriented with a personal focus in their mode of conduct. The Americans were more oriented to moral values which have an interpersonal focus.

Ahmed and Jabes (1988) also found differences in values (Rokeach, 1973) between English Canadian and French business students. The analysis of ranked Rokeach values was based upon a nonparametric median test. The authors discovered that the results based upon a normal t-test were quite similar. English Canadians value more personal and materialistic end-states than the French students. The English Canadians approach to life is more pragmatic and self-directed while the French students' approach to life reflects a search for ultimate, absolute truths. The French students also placed more importance on spiritual and society-oriented goals.

Rokeach (1973) used samples of students from the United States, Canada and Israel with an existing sample of Australian students collected by Feather (1970) to compare values cross-nationally. Although the values were not tested for significance, marked differences in values appeared. The most different value pattern was evident in the Israeli college sample but some differences between the other three samples were also apparent. The Canadian sample came from 125 University of Western Ontario students, a predominantly English-speaking institution. The findings show that Canadians are less achievement-oriented than the other students, yet more concerned with egalitarianism than American students. It should be noted that the Canadian sample was not representative of college students in Canada. Ahmed (1978), for instance, attests to cultural, job attribute and attitude differences between English Canadian and French Canadian business students.

Values seem to have particular relevance to cross-cultural research. Based upon the literature to be reviewed below, one should expect to find value differences between Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

Triandis (1980) stresses the importance of religion in influencing value systems. In Sri Lanka, 70 percent of the population practices Buddhism. Like citizens of India who practice Hinduism, Sri Lankans would be expected to value social restraint and self-control. Buddhism also discourages the acquisition of wealth and material goods (Ahmed, 1987). Salvation is a Judeo-Christian belief and one would expect Sri Lankans to value this less. Sexual morals are also very strict in Sri Lanka. Spiritual and sexual intimacy is probably less important for Sri Lankans.

Inhabitants of developing countries such as Sri Lanka also value more long-term, personal relationships compared to persons in advanced nations (Blanton, 1976). According to Hall (1976), there is little need for urgency, confrontation or anti-social behaviour in these countries as well. Hofstede (1976) reported that individualism is more important for Western nations such as Canada than for developing nations such as Sri Lanka.

Researchers such as Ahmed (1978) and Karungo and Dauderis (1983) found that English and French Canadians have different motivations and needs. However, one would expect English and French Canadian students together to have substantially different value systems from Sri Lankan students.

Hofstede and Bond (1984) analyzed data that was collected by other researchers from students in nine countries using a modified version of the Rokeach Value Survey. Six of the countries in this study also appeared in Hofstede's (1980) study of work-related values among employees in forty countries. For the overlapping countries, the researchers conducted a correlation analysis between Hofstede's four cultural dimensions and the five factor scores for values found by the other researchers. The findings

indicate some useful and practical methods for categorizing Rokeach values into Hofstede's four cultural dimensions. In this way, this research study can be linked to a broader base of findings in the comparative management literature.

The findings of this study identified relationships between the variables in the following manner:

- **Power Distance**, the extent to which those less powerful members of society accept unequal power distributions, is closely tied to the Rokeach values Salvation, Courageous, Capable, Social Recognition and Imaginative.
- **Uncertainty Avoidance**, the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations, is related to the Rokeach values Cheerful, Polite, Obedient, Happiness and A Comfortable Life.
- **Individualism** is a situation where people look after themselves and their immediate family only. **Collectivism** is a situation where people belong to in-groups which are supposed to care for them in exchange for loyalty. This dimension is tied to the Rokeach values An Exciting Life and A World of Beauty.
- **Masculinity** is defined as a situation in which the dominant values are success, money and materialism. **Femininity** is defined as a situation where the dominant values are caring for others and the quality of life. This Hofstede dimension is closely related to the Rokeach values Independent, Self-Controlled, Inner Harmony and Self-Respect.

### Cross-Cultural Research

The literature dealing with cross-cultural research is overwhelming. But, if differences in job characteristics and perceptions of business and government are expected to be found, one must consider what best explains these differences between Canada and Sri Lanka. The following section reviews this literature.

Negandhi (1975, 1983) has written some of the most comprehensive articles on issues in cross-cultural research. One of his foremost concerns centres on the definition of culture. He argues that, since a true definition of the term has not yet been developed, one cannot truly claim that the literature investigating country comparisons is cross-cultural. His basic concern is that researchers are using national boundaries as proxies for culture when, in fact, the norms and values within a culture can transcend national boundaries. He prefers to call such studies cross-national as opposed to cross-cultural (Negandhi, 1983). Schollhammer (1969) and Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986), in their reviews of the literature, also warn against assuming that national boundaries represent homogeneous, environmental variables.

Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970) emphasize that the pitfall of this area of analysis is that the term culture is ill-defined. They argue, therefore, that it may be difficult to state that culture is the best predictor of dependent variables. Sekaran (1983) expresses a similar point of view. He states that some researchers feel that, since culture has not been defined, there is no reason for researching a "black box". While such arguments have merit, one must acknowledge that this field of study is still in its infancy. Like any other discipline, cross-cultural management needs to acquire a core knowledge. This can only be achieved by conducting research that allows more advanced theories to be tested. Moreover, two groups could not be much more culturally distinct than Canadians and Sri Lankans.

The research findings reported in the literature are confusing and inconclusive. On the one hand, some academics have found that cultural differences lead to measurable differences in the way organizations operate and the way managers and employees behave. On the other hand, others argue that organizations around the world are becoming more alike, that managers see what they want to see and that the effect of culture is grossly exaggerated.

Hofstede (1980) found four empirically-derived dimensions upon which countries differ. These include power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity. In a study of managers in five countries including the United States, Australia, Japan, Korea and India, England (1975) found differences and some similarities in personal values. Bass and Eldridge (1973) also found distinct differences in the objectives that managers from twelve different countries pursue.

Whitehill Jr. (1964) investigated the willingness of production workers in Japan and the United States to enter into a set of reciprocal obligations with managers. He found this to be dependent on the cultural environment of the local country. He argues that this exerts a significant influence upon the attitudes and behaviour of workers.

Oberg (1963) conducted research on the problems faced by Brazilian and American senior managers. He employed a sample of businessmen in the state of Michigan whose firms were comparable in size and activity with the sample of Brazilian firms. He asked the respondents to state the two or three most difficult problems they were facing. Analysis was based upon the frequency with which the problems were mentioned. No correlations were calculated. The researcher found that some of the problems were quite similar for the two groups of managers. However, he noted that the situations upon which these problems surfaced were distinctly different.

The two sets of managers were found to be "playing the same game". However, the "local ground rules", which includes key dimensions of local culture such as laws, language and religion, were almost opposing in nature. At that time, the author concluded that, if management principles are truly universal, then they must face the challenge of other business cultures. He predicted that this challenge would be a major one.

Adherents to the divergence hypothesis believe in the statement made long ago by Hagen (1958),

"...Principles of business administration are not absolute; they are relative to the society..."

Alternatively, Levitt (1983), and numerous other academics, adhere to the convergence hypothesis. He argues that technology drives consumers toward the same common goals. He feels that the past is always a good guide to the future. In the past, barriers against superior technologies and economies have always fallen.

"...Everywhere everything gets more like everything else as the world's preference structure is relentlessly homogenized...Gone are accustomed differences in national or regional preference."

It should be mentioned that Levitt did not support his arguments with any empirical evidence.

Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986), in their review of the comparative management literature, list many authors who in one way or another find support for the convergence hypothesis. Such authors suggest that organizational patterns, structures and management practices around the world are converging due to the increasing advance of technology. Those who believe in the convergence hypothesis contend that management is a universally-applicable science, the same wherever it is practiced.

Gonzalez and MacMillan (1961) believe that management does hold some scientific principles but that they stop being universal when one begins to enter the realm of interpersonal relationships. Child (1981) discovered that researchers are finding different results based upon the variables they are investigating. More specifically, he found that those who are using macro-level variables are finding few differences across countries while those who were using more micro-level variables were finding many differences across countries. Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986) suggest that culture may affect the formal organization but the increasing prevalence of common technology tends to reduce its impact. They expect to find the most profound differences to appear at the informal organizational level where people interact. Negandhi (1983) found that similarities are explained in terms of the levels of industrialization in countries and that differences are explained in terms of cultural differences between countries.

The convergence-divergence argument will continue for a long time. However, researchers have also used a vast number of variables as explanatory variables in their studies. Which types of variables best predict local attitudes and behaviour has also been debated.

Negandhi (1975, 1983) is probably best known for his review of the literature. The manner in which he categorized the studies into three different approaches is also well-known. First, the economic development approach is a macro approach in that it examines the basic trends of managerial development which are important to the economic development of poorer countries. He argues that this approach is too general and does not add to the progress already made in the cross-cultural management field. Second, the environmental approach attempts to highlight the socioeconomic, political, legal and cultural impact on management practices. Interfirm differences are explained on the basis of local environmental conditions. This approach has been praised for drawing attention to the complex

environment within which organizations operate. It has been criticized for showing that the environment-organization influence is unidirectional. The environment is always portrayed as having a significant influence on the organization but there is little thought given to the influence that organizations have on their environments. Third, the behavioural approach tries to explain behavioural patterns between groups in organizations. Within this approach are the attitudes and perceptions that managers hold regarding some aspect of management. Differences in these dimensions have been found both between and within nations. This approach has been criticized mostly for its use of concepts which are poorly defined. The approach is also accused of using measures that are poorly conceived.

Years before this research was published, Schollhammer (1969) reviewed the research and also classified the cross-cultural studies into three categories. The categories are very similar to the ones developed by Negandhi (1975, 1983). The only real difference is that Schollhammer named them the socioeconomic approach, the ecological approach and the behavioural approach respectively. He did add another which he called eclectic-empirical. Such studies refer to single country studies based upon empirical evidence that describes aspects of managerial attitudes and practices. His criticisms of each approach are similar to those raised by Negandhi (1975, 1983).

Despite these criticisms, Negandhi (1975) found that cultural factors were considered to be the most important influencing variables. Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970), who also reviewed the research, identified their own groups of studies which they called economic, cultural and psychological. In the latter group, they included studies dealing with achievement motivation. They discovered that cultural explanations for differences in dependent variables far outweigh other explanations. Nonetheless, they reason that one can only argue that a particular approach explains better than another. They contend that, for explaining social phenomena such as management,

there is no such thing as "the" explanation.

For this research study, the independent variables include demographics, achievement motivations and values. Hofstede (1976) defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one group from another". This, he states, includes the system of values. With reference to the studies described above, this study incorporates the behavioural, cultural and psychological approaches. From this perspective one can assess which approach explains more differences between the attitudes and perceptions held by Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) studied leadership in fourteen countries to determine managers' views of effective leadership and the satisfaction they expect and obtain from the job. The researchers discovered that managers' needs may be similar but their level of satisfaction with these needs differs considerably from country to country. Furthermore, countries cluster together on leadership dimensions and attitudes. These clusters of countries tend to follow ethnic or cultural lines rather than the level of industrialization.

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) empirically clustered eight other empirical studies on attitudinal dimensions in order to group countries based upon their relative similarity across relevant organizational variables. The range of variables studied was broad but there was substantial overlap. For clustering purposes, emphasis was placed on variables which measured work goals. The authors found that the countries grouped together by location, religion and language. Eight clusters emerged from the analysis. Canada was included in a cluster along with England, Australia and the United States. A Far Eastern cluster also emerged. It included nations such as the Philippines, Taiwan and Singapore. The authors noted that the Far Eastern cluster required more research since, at present, it was probably an oversimplification.

These studies suggest that cultural variables may do well to distinguish Canadian students from Sri Lankan students.

### CHAPTER III HYPOTHESES FORMATION

This chapter develops specific hypotheses for the research objectives presented in Chapter I. The hypotheses are based on the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. The research literature presented in this chapter is meant only to facilitate the development of the research hypotheses. More detailed discussions of the research literature appear in Chapter II. The first section of this chapter formulates a hypothesis for job factor outcomes. The second section details hypotheses for perceptions of private and public business enterprises. Section three includes a discussion of the hypothesis related to achievement motivation. Section four develops hypotheses for the comparison of values. The final section includes hypotheses related to the relative strength of independent variables in cross-cultural research.

#### Job Characteristics

The motivation to work is determined by a number of factors. These include employee characteristics and job characteristics. Job characteristics can be categorized into two groups. Extrinsic job characteristics are those which are obtained by one individual from another individual and generally provide immediate gratification. They include such factors as salary, training programs, security and job prestige. Intrinsic job characteristics come from within the individual. The satisfaction one obtains from these outcomes is more latent and abstract. They include job interest, job experience, promotability and job environment.

The research literature suggests that both workers and students in developing countries have lower level needs. As such, they could be expected to take a more instrumental view of work. Alternatively, workers and students from more advanced nations are reported to have higher level

needs. They could be expected to hold a more expressive view of work. These findings are supported by authors such as Slocum Jr. (1971), Hofstede (1980), Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rcsner, Vianello and Weiser (1972), Triandis (1972) and Badaway (1980). Similar findings have been uncovered within countries as well (Kanungo, Gorn and Dauderis, 1976) but the evidence in Canada for English and French Canadian managers is less conclusive (Ahmed, 1981a).

Why differences in job characteristics exist is often explained by two key factors. Some researchers report that differences exist because of the cultural differences between the groups under investigation. Some others attribute differences to structural factors that make each society unique. For the moment, suffice to say that the importance of job characteristics varies from one country to another and there is little reason to suspect that this would differ for Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

**Hypothesis #1: Canadian students will attach more importance to intrinsic job factors such as job interest, job environment, promotability and job experience whereas the Sri Lankan students will attach more importance to extrinsic job factors such as salary, job security, job prestige and training program.**

### Private and Public Sector Business Perceptions

Corporate responsibility can be classified into two broad categories according to Carroll (1979). The research literature reported in the previous chapter points to differences in the performance of private and public business enterprises. Furthermore, corporate performance differs from one country to another. The literature gives indications about the way in which both public and private business enterprises differ from one nation to the next.

The concept of corporate social responsibility has been gaining popularity among North American private business organizations (Lynn Jr., 1984). Some North American firms are sacrificing profits and investments in order to pursue social goals. Gill and Leinbach (1983) found that private businesses in even more advanced developing nations such as Hong Kong have not yet accepted the notion of corporate social responsibility, instead believing that this is the responsibility of the public sector. Sinha (1979) supports the idea that private sector businesses in developing countries carry out their economic responsibilities quite well. However, they fail to even approach the level of effort undertaken by the public sector to pursue social benefits. Given the improved economic climate in Sri Lanka and the social problems that still exist, one might expect the gap between the economic and social performance of private businesses in Sri Lanka to be greater than the gap in Canada. Based on this, the following hypotheses were formulated.

**HYPOTHESIS #2a: Sri Lankan students will evaluate the economic performance of private business more favourably than the Canadian students.**

**HYPOTHESIS #2b: Sri Lankan students will evaluate the discretionary social performance of private business less favourably than Canadian students.**

Public corporations operate in complicated, multi-constituency political environments. As such, they face more complicated challenges than many private corporations (Whorton and Worthley, 1981). Lynn Jr. (1984) notes that business managers who move to the public sector tend to encounter difficulties not found in the private sector. These difficulties often centre on the noneconomic responsibilities that confront public managers. Public corporations in the west are often criticized for their economic inefficiencies. This, however, is often overshadowed by the strong social

orientation of these companies (O'Toole, 1984).

The Sri Lankan economy still requires a great deal of economic development and both public and private businesses will need to promote this. Given the review of the literature, Sri Lankans may look to both sectors to overcome economic problems yet they may view the nation's social problems to be in the domain of the public sector. As before, one might expect the gap between the economic and social performance of public businesses in Sri Lanka to be greater than the gap in Canada. Based on this, the hypotheses for public enterprises are:

**HYPOTHESIS #2c:** Canadian students will evaluate the economic performance of government enterprises less favourably than the Sri Lankan students.

**HYPOTHESIS #2d:** Canadian students are expected to evaluate the discretionary social performance of public enterprises more favourably than the Sri Lankan students.

### The Achievement Motive

The need for achievement is not a new phenomena in cross-cultural research. McClelland (1961) emphasizes the importance of the achievement motive in a nation's economic development efforts since it is closely tied to individual performance. For years, achievement was treated by scholars as a unitary construct. Heckhausen (1967) argued that achievement was not a unitary construct. Instead, he felt that it should be treated and measured as a multi-dimensional motive. If the Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976) six dimensional scale can be used as a base point, then some hypothetical comparisons can be drawn between Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

Redding (1980) found that the Chinese place less emphasis on autonomy.

This was supported by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) who found that the Chinese had a lower belief in the capacity of individuals to exercise leadership. Bourgeois and Boltvinik (1981) found that members of developing countries prefer to avoid conflict. They also tend to place more emphasis on the extended family, authority of the elder, kinship relationships and collective leadership (Pizam and Reichel, 1977). Sri Lankans may place more importance on expert advice and peer relations since it is a group oriented society where parental and authority figures are respected and affiliative needs are stressed.

In another study, Hofstede (1980) reports that workers in the United States and Canada tend to be more individualistic than workers in developing countries such as India. Competitiveness and materialistic needs are more relevant to members of advanced nations (Bourgeois and Boltvinik, 1981).

Based on this discussion, the hypothesis for achievement motivation was developed.

**HYPOTHESIS #3: Canadian students will score higher on the dimensions Excellence, Acquisitiveness, Achievement via Independence and Competitiveness, but will score lower on the dimensions Status with Peers and Status with Experts compared to the Sri Lankan students.**

### Value Comparisons

The Rokeach Value Scale (1973) has been used by numerous researchers to compare values across nations. Studies conducted in the past have shown many value differences between individuals from different countries both in terms of their end-states of existence and in their desired modes of conduct.

With respect to the terminal Rokeach values, Ahmed (1987) found that Sri Lankan elites placed slightly more importance on societal values than English tourists travelling in Sri Lanka. Triandis (1980) found that American students were more self-indulgent than Indian students and tended to be activists. Inhabitants of developing countries such as Sri Lanka also value more long-term, personal relationships compared to persons in advanced nations (Blanton, 1976). Hofstede (1976) reports that individualism is more important in western societies. Domino and Mo (1987) compared the value system of individuals from China with individuals from the United States and found that the Chinese placed more importance on moral and ethical values. Given this, the following hypotheses were formulated for terminal values.

**HYPOTHESIS #4a:** Canadian students will score higher on personal terminal values compared to Sri Lankan students.

**HYPOTHESIS #4b:** Sri Lankan students will score higher on social terminal values compared to Canadian students.

With respect to the instrumental Rokeach values, Hall (1976) found that people from developing nations were characterized as having little need for urgency, confrontation or anti-social behaviour. Due to the influence of Buddhism, Sri Lankans could be expected to value social restraint and self-control (Triandis, 1980). Ahmed (1987) also found that Sri Lankan elites placed more importance on the means to achieve their end-states compared to English tourists in Sri Lanka. These Sri Lankans placed more importance on moral modes of conduct. In light of this, the following hypotheses were developed.

**HYPOTHESIS #4c:** Canadian students will score higher on competence instrumental values compared to Sri Lankan students.

**HYPOTHESIS #4d: Sri Lankan students will score higher on moral instrumental values compared to Canadian students.**

#### Discriminant Effectiveness of Independent Variables

The position taken in this research is that differences will emerge between the two groups of students for the variables under investigation. One area of interest in this research study requires uncovering why these differences exist. Do they exist because of cultural differences or are they a function of other differences? The answer to this question will provide clues to determine why differences in attitudes may exist. It will also provide a practical guide to determine which types of variables to use in future research studies.

According to the research reviewed in the previous chapter, many of the authors have taken the position that cultural variables explain differences better than other types of variables. Neganthi (1975) found that cultural factors were considered to be the most important influencing variables. Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970) discovered that cultural explanations were much more common than other explanations. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) as well as Hofstede (1976) and Ronen and Shenkar (1985) used cultural variables to explain differences across countries as well.

These studies, in addition to the other research reviewed, suggests that cultural variables may do well to distinguish Canadian students from Sri Lankan students. In this respect, the following hypothesis is presented.

**HYPOTHESIS #5a: Differences in values, as cultural variables, between Canadian and Sri Lankan students will do better to differentiate the two groups of students than achievement motivation and demographic differences.**

The research literature provides less evidence for the relative strength of the other independents used in this research study. However, given the tendency among researchers such as Child (1980) and Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986) to refer to the psychological differences across nations in their reviews of the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed.

**HYPOTHESIS #5b: Differences in achievement motivation, as psychological variables, between Canadian and Sri Lankan students will do better to differentiate the two groups of students than demographic differences.**

## CHAPTER IV METHODOLOGICAL AND OPERATIONAL ISSUES

This chapter of the research details specific decisions for the actual implementation of the research objectives outlined in Chapter I. This research study requires specific data so that each hypothesis can be tested with statistical rigor. Included in this chapter are sections which discuss the procedures for sample selection, response elicitation, concerns regarding construct validity, choice of job factors, perceptions of business and government, achievement motivation, value, and demographic measures, within-country differences in Canada, response bias, selection of discriminant models and the questionnaire itself.

### Sample Selection

Researchers who have investigated the differences between cultural or national groups have used a variety of subjects as sample respondents. These include managers (Karungo, Gorn and Dauderis, 1983; England, 1978; Gill and Leinbach, 1973) and employees of multinational corporations (Slocum Jr., 1971). The use of such subjects would be particularly appropriate for determining the applicability of management techniques for corporations in the third world. However, if the objective is to increase or improve the development efforts in a developing nation, then these types of subjects may not be in a position to act as change agents. We need to learn more about future managers and employees to complement and assure long-term changes.

Students, who someday will enter the work force in their countries, can act as change agents. University students may not be representative samples of the broader societies in which they live but they do represent the future pool of managers and employees for their countries. Students have not yet begun their careers. One can control internal threats to validity that can confound national differences. Therefore, the differences in attitudes

toward a specific object would reflect national differences rather than organizational differences. Kramer (1984) notes that a college education affects an individual's values. Students can be expected to place different importance on values compared to adults.

Sekaren (1983) states that samples used in cross-cultural research should be representative of the population. Students are not representative of the local population but they do represent a convenient sample. The sample for this research should at least be representative of the student population.

Ahmed (1981a, 1977), and Kamungo and Bhatnager (1978) note that Canadian students collectively represent the two predominant cultural groups in Canada, namely English and French Canadians. Thus, the Canadian sample should consist of students from both cultural groups. Eastern Ontario and Western Quebec are two suitable locations for universities that have both Anglophone and Francophone students.

Very little research has been conducted on Sri Lankan managers or students, especially for the purpose of comparative research. Furthermore, it is difficult to determine a sample universe or sampling frame for Sri Lankan students since no a priori data exists for this country. This presents problems in determining the representativeness of the Sri Lankan sample. Nonetheless, one would expect the Sri Lankan sample to reflect the realities of the local country including the predominance of rural inhabitants and low income farm families. A sample of students from one or two of the larger universities should fulfill this requirement.

Since the purpose of the research is to examine the attitudes, job motivations and achievement motivations of the pool of future managers and employees who have the potential to lead their countries and act as catalysts of change, business students would represent the most appropriate sample subjects.

### Response Elicitation

There are many ways in which data can be collected for this research. The task of collecting data in Sri Lanka is an expensive one. Cost alone negates the use of interviews and mail surveys. Sekaren (1983) states that data collection methods in cross-cultural research should be as similar as possible for the countries under consideration. Moreover, he recommends the use trained local researchers to assist in the collection of data. Thus, it was decided that business professors would administer the questionnaires to students in their classrooms. A number of professors in Canadian and Sri Lankan universities were willing to administer the questionnaires to their senior students.

It was important that the Canadian sample of students include both French Canadian and English Canadian students. Canadian business students were sampled from five Canadian universities. These included Bishop's University, Carleton University (predominantly English mother tongue), University of Laval and Sherbrooke University (predominantly French mother tongue) and University of Ottawa (both English and French mother tongue). The Sri Lankan sample included students enrolled in the faculty of Commerce and Administration at the University of Jayewardenapura and the University of Videolanka. Both of these universities have Sinhalese students only. Tamil students are not represented in these schools.

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) emphasizes the importance of a careful translation procedure for this type of research. Sekaran (1983) echoes a similar viewpoint and recommends a double translation. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) feel that this is not enough. They argue that the questionnaire items must carry the same expression in all languages so that the potential for cognitive differences in perceptions between national respondents can be minimized.

Mitchell (1968) notes that some subjects in other countries are unfamiliar with questionnaires and some others are prone to positive response bias. Triandis (1972) reports similar problems. Sekaren (1983) warns against hospitality bias in Asian nations. Scheuch (1968) even found that these respondents were sometimes reluctant to answer questions. On the other hand, Faustman and Matheus (1980) discovered that variable measures designed in the West could be successfully used in Sri Lanka.

Based upon these findings, the French and Sinhalese versions of the questionnaire were constructed using a careful double translation procedure and both were pre-tested with Sri Lankan students and French Canadian students.

### Construct Validity

Ensuring the validity of the measurement scales is another issue. Meade and Whittaker (1967) report that members of developing countries may have difficulties completing lengthy questionnaires. They may also be unfamiliar with response elicitation methods. Convergent validity, the ability of a measure to adequately represent a characteristic or variable and correlate with other measures of the same variable, requires that more than one method be employed in the measurement of that variable (Aaker and Day, 1983). Such an approach is preferable for theoretical purity. However, it is not practical. In order to retain construct validity and to prevent the questionnaire from becoming too cumbersome, it was decided that existing scales would be used in this research study.

### Job Factor Selection

Vroom (1961) suggests that the assessment of work motivation should uncover what the job offers, both in terms of intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors, and the level of satisfaction with these job factors. However, if students are to be used as subjects for this research, then their level of satisfaction with job outcomes cannot be determined since they are not yet employed by organizations. Therefore, this study will need to focus on the outcomes which are most important for students. Furthermore, in order to make a reasonable generalization that one group is more extrinsically (or intrinsically) motivated than the other, there will have to be a sufficient number of job items that can be classified into one and only one category of job outcomes.

For the selection of the job factor outcomes measure, two scales were considered. Both scales have been used in previous studies.

To measure the motivational orientation of students at work, Kanungo and Bhatnagar (1978) used a scale that listed 15 job outcomes that people generally look for in their careers. The same scale was also used in a previous study of managers which was conducted by Kanungo, Gorn and Dauderis (1976). The 15 factors were listed in random order and each represented either an extrinsic or an intrinsic reward. The scale included 8 extrinsic job factors that are organizationally-controlled: adequate earnings, fair pay, promotion opportunity, fringe benefits, job security, sound company policy, comfortable working conditions and restricted hours of work. There were also 4 interpersonally mediated extrinsic job outcomes: technically competent supervision, considerate supervision, good peer group relations and recognition. The other outcomes were intrinsic in nature and included: responsibility and independence, a sense of achievement and interesting nature of work. Respondents were asked to rank order the list of job outcomes according to their perceived importance.

One has to question whether the outcomes relevant to managers are equally relevant to students. Most students are primarily employed during the months of summer, seldom receive fair pay and are limited in their exposure to various company policies. Furthermore, forcing respondents to rank order 15 items can be cumbersome. Finally, a ranking procedure does not allow for individual job outcomes to be perceived as being equally important.

Ahmed (1978) studied the importance placed on job factors by English and French Canadian students. One of his concerns was that the job factor scales be relevant to students as opposed to working adults. A scale was generated by students in a marketing research course at Bishop's University in Quebec. Thirty students prepared a ten-item Likert scale for job factors. Upon the discussion with students, the six-item job outcomes scale was constructed. It reflected the majority opinion of the students. The scale was also back-translated in French and administered to French students in a similar course at the University of Sherbrooke in Quebec.

Some interesting comparisons can be made between the scales developed by Karungo and Bhatnagar (1978) and Ahmed (1978). The most obvious comparison is the number of factors in the scales. The scale used by Karungo and Bhatnagar (1978) has 15 job outcomes, some of which are not particularly relevant to students. Ahmed's scale contains 6 outcomes, too few to legitimately assess whether respondents are extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. Moreover, Karungo and Bhatnagar classified the job factor promotion as an extrinsic reward whereas Ahmed grouped it among the intrinsic rewards. Finally, one scale used rank-ordered job outcomes while the other employed rated job outcomes.

It was decided that Ahmed's scale would be used to measure job factors. It was felt to be most appropriate for student respondents. Two additional factors were added to the scale. These are job prestige, an extrinsic

factor, and job experience, an intrinsic factor. The list of factors, classified into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, is shown on table 4-1. The job factors were categorized into these two categories by considering when one receives gratification from the reward. If the gratification is immediate, the reward is more extrinsic. If the gratification is latent or more abstract, the reward is intrinsic.

TABLE 4-1  
JOB FACTORS CLASSIFIED AS INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC  
JOB OUTCOMES

INTRINSIC Job Interest, Promotability, Job Environment and Job Experience
EXTRINSIC Salary, Job Security, Job Prestige and Training Programs

One would expect students to evaluate job factors on their own merit. The rate procedure allows respondents to create their own distance between the factors. Yet, the ranking procedure avoids variances due to positive response bias and acquiescence inherent in the rate method. Thus, both procedures were used to test the hypotheses.

#### Business and Government Enterprises' Performance Measures

According to Carroll (1979), business performance can be grouped into four categories. These include the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities of corporate enterprises. If these four dimensions do represent the responsibilities of business, then a measure must be used in this research that will allow for these various dimensions to be tested empirically.

Authors have used a variety of techniques to compare the performance of public and private corporations across cultures. One such technique is to measure the attitudes held by citizens towards these enterprises. These attitudes are ingrained in culture (McCraw, 1984). Newcomb, Turner and Converse (1985) call these attitudes domain-specific since they have less centrality than global, more abstract, attitudes. These domain-specific attitudes represent the cognitive or knowledge component of attitudes.

Since the objective of the research is to compare attitudes held by Canadians and Sri Lankans, care must be taken to use measurement scales from which meaningful inferences can be drawn. Interval scales allow for objects to be rated on certain attributes. These scales measure the attitudes held by respondents toward some object. The scale must also be constructed so that it reflects dimensions that can be compared cross-nationally; namely, the economic and discretionary aspects of corporate performance. Finally, the scale should reflect dimensions that are relevant to students rather than working adults.

Scales used in previous studies to measure students' perceptions of business performance have measured the corporate performance of private firms only. There is no study reported in the literature which compares students' perceptions of both business and government enterprises. To provide evidence for the hypotheses developed earlier, any corporate performance scale must include both economic and discretionary dimensions of corporate performance.

One such scale was developed by Ahmed (1978). The measure was used in the same study in which the job factors scale was developed. The same students from Bishop's University were exposed to the concepts of corporate performance outlined by Carroll (1979). The students were required to prepare a twenty-item modified semantic differential scale for corporate performance. Upon discussion with the students, changes were made to the

scale to reflect their opinions. The resulting measure of the image of business included 17 items. This scale was also subjected to a double translation procedure and administered to business students at Sherbrooke University to ensure that the attributes were described in words that were familiar to the Francophone respondents.

Ahmed used the final version of the scale in a study comparing English Canadian and French Canadian students (1978, 1981a). Ahmed and Jabes (1988) also found the measure to be particularly useful for the comparison of students in English Canada and France. It was felt that government enterprises could be evaluated on these dimensions also. This would allow for a simple comparison of business and government enterprises as perceived by different students.

The business image scale requests respondents to rate business enterprises on each dimension of corporate performance based on their gut reactions to the statements. In this way, the scores truly represent perceptions. Interest lies in the strength of each dimension as opposed to their relative strength. Hence, a ranking procedure is not necessary. However, to guard against end-piling and a halo effect, in which the location of previous judgments on the scale offsets subsequent judgments because of respondent carelessness, the scale employed randomly altered positive-negative dimensions. Another item, Challenging-Dull, was added to the scale because it was perceived to be relevant to the research effort.

The inherent difficulty with this measure of corporate performance is that it uses both monopolar dimensions such as Flexible-Not Flexible and bipolar dimensions such as Profit Oriented-Employee Oriented. In either case, a respondent merely chooses the end-point only if that adjective is fairly descriptive of business. However, the midpoint of each scale has a different meaning. For the monopolar scale the midpoint is merely a step on the scale from Flexible to Not Flexible (Aaker and Day, 1983). On the

other hand, the midpoint is more neutral on the bipolar scale. It indicates that business is neither Profit-Oriented nor Employee-Oriented. This feature of the scale must be remembered when the results are interpreted.

It was decided to conduct a principal components factor analysis of the perceptions of business and government held by students in Canada and Sri Lanka. These four separate analyses will be subjected to a varimax rotation. The purpose of the analyses is to evaluate whether the two groups of students perceive the dimensions of corporate performance differently.

If different factors were to emerge it would be difficult to categorize items as reflecting either the economic aspects of corporate performance or discretionary aspects of corporate performance. Thus, it was also decided that a modified corporate image and performance scale would be used in a separate questionnaire. This was administered to a group of students in a marketing research course at the University of Ottawa to determine how each dimension should be classified. This short questionnaire asked students to classify each dimension into four categories developed by Carroll (1979): economic, legal, ethical and social. A copy of this questionnaire is in Appendix A. The students were allowed to classify any one dimension into one, two, or more categories of corporate performance. This data was analyzed by examining the frequency with which the students classified each dimension into each category.

In addition, those items which are used to represent the economic and social dimensions of corporate performance were subjected to an item analysis. This analysis computes coefficients of reliability by using the alpha model. The results display which variables together best represent the two dimensions of business performance.

The students can then be compared on the relevant dimensions of economic and

discretionary corporate performance by an analysis of the difference between means using a normal t-test procedure. Here category increments are treated as interval scales. This assumption is questionable (Aaker and Day, 1983), but it allows for more powerful methods of analysis.

#### Achievement Motivation Measures Selection

Researchers such as Heckhausen (1967), Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976) and, more recently, Ahmed (1977) argue that achievement is not a unitary construct. Instead, it is a multi-dimensional motive. To measure such a multi-dimensional construct, one requires a multi-dimensional scale.

The most appropriate scale is the six dimensional achievement scale developed by Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976). The researchers used a sample of 84 male and 71 female university students and designed a study in which five methods were used to assess each person's location on each of the six dimensions of achievement. A total of 30 individual measures of achievement were measured by each of the five methods. The primary concern was in developing item definitions that were mutually exclusive. This would later provide evidence for convergent and discriminatory validity.

The first measure asked the respondents to self-rate themselves on a nine-point bipolar scale. Each of the 30 scales were defined in terms of characteristics that were judged to be relevant to only one dimension of achievement. The score for each of the six dimensions was the average of the three ratings made for that facet. The authors were also careful to avoid the halo effect by randomly reflecting the polarity for each scale.

The second method asked respondents to rate themselves relative to their degree of similarity with a description of a person found in a descriptive paragraph. Each description was based upon a single facet of achievement. A total of six descriptions were used, one for each facet.

The third method, the internation simulation, employed titles of government officials and brief descriptions of each. The subjects were required to rate their preference for each representative on a nine-point scale. Again, both the title of the individual and the accompanying description of each were written to represent only one dimension of achievement motivation.

The fourth method was an adjective checklist presented in the standard format. To represent each facet, 19 or 20 adjectives were selected yielding a total of 118 adjectives. The respondents were asked to place an X in the space provided for each adjective that applied to them personally.

The fifth method was a standard personality questionnaire which employed a true-false format. Each of the six scales had 28 items, half of which were keyed true and half of which were keyed false. The researchers also used an additional personality scale, designed to measure desirability, to identify a potential response bias in the correlations among achievement measures.

The analysis began with a correlation matrix, organized so that traits were grouped according to method, and was subjected to a principal components factor analysis with patterned orthogonal rotation. Two additional analyses were conducted to assess factor reliability. A second order factor analysis was also undertaken. Results indicated that the evidence for all six factors was fairly strong. The factor reliability analysis confirmed the presence of six factors all with loadings over 0.40 (except for Competitiveness when measured by internation simulation). Substantial evidence for convergent and discriminant validity appeared in the study. A second order factor analysis extracted three factors. Thus, even the second order factor analysis did not provide evidence for a single, unitary achievement motive. A brief description of each dimension of achievement appears in table 4-2.

TABLE 4-2

**TRAIT DESCRIPTIONS FOR SIX DIMENSIONAL  
ACHIEVEMENT SCALE**

**EXCELLENCE:** does a good job, works hard to win, maintains high work standards, assures that the finished product looks good, spends extra time to improve the quality of the final product, concentrates effort on one job, sticks with a difficult task, works hard to achieve high standards, corrects every detail, aims for perfection, tries hard to do well, work comes before all else.

**ACQUISITIVENESS:** values high-paying job, respects self-made rich persons, works hard to make money, seeks out opportunities to become rich, salary is very important, relates performance to salary paid.

**PEER STATUS:** values what people think, works hard for a popular teacher, cares what others think of his work, likes publicity about his work, works to impress friends, displays his work to others, likes efforts to be appreciated, displays his abilities to others.

**ACHIEVEMENT VIA INDEPENDENCE:** likes to be evaluated solely on his own performance, dislikes team work, depends on his own efforts to get ahead, likes working alone, likes rewards based on initiative, takes personal responsibility for his success, enjoys the challenge of a new job, likes special bonuses for outstanding performance.

**EXPERT STATUS:** depends upon the opinion of experts, measures himself against acknowledged experts' work, seeks high regard from superiors, anticipates criticisms of experts, achieves respect of renowned authority, works closely with superiors, learns from a teacher.

**COMPETITIVENESS:** likes to be more successful than others, is annoyed when passed on highways, enjoys competitive games, admires those who fought their way to the top, believes in survival of the fittest, enjoys the struggle for power, enjoys the intense rivalry among business executives, likes heated arguments, likes playing sports with someone better.

For this study, it was decided that one of the five methods described above would be used to measure achievement. Since the adjective checklist and the personality inventory employ a large number of items, the shorter 18 item

self-rating measure was a logical choice. This prevented the questionnaire from becoming too long and provided sufficient evidence to test the hypothesis. To guard against the halo effect, the individual items had the direction of the poles randomly reflected.

The analysis will begin by summing the three ratings made for each facet, after adjusting for the direction of polarity. A t-test analysis of the difference between means will be calculated to examine if statistically significant differences exist between the two groups of students.

### Value Measures Selection

In order to examine value differences between Canadian and Sri Lankan students, several key points must be considered. First, there are limitations in attempting to draw inferences about an individual's values from their behaviour. Such a procedure is very time-consuming, expensive and may be biased by an individual's own values. Asking a person to tell in their own words what their values are is subject to responses that are socially-desirable. Second, the range of values used to compare the two groups must be relevant to each group. The students must attach some importance to all of the values under consideration. Third, the importance attached to individual values must be evaluated relative to other values. Fourth, the value measure chosen must empirically test the hypotheses developed in Chapter III. More specifically, the scale should yield information about students' desired goals in life and their approach to life. An interval scaling procedure should be used so that statistically significant comparisons can be made.

The Rokeach Value Scale (Rokeach, 1973) is particularly useful for this purpose. The scale employs two lists of 18 alphabetically-arranged terminal and instrumental values. The procedure requires respondents to rank the values in each list according to their order of importance as guiding

principles in their lives. This instrument was designed to elicit information about values that a respondent would be willing to admit. There is no suggested stimulus and the respondents have only their own individual system of values to explain how the 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values should be ranked.

The scale has been used by many researchers for making value comparisons both across national borders and within national borders. Adler and Graham (1987) used the scale to compare negotiation strategies among English Canadian, French Canadian and American managers. Munson (1983) even used the instrument to explain differences in brand selection behaviour.

Feather (1975) provides evidence that the value scale is an effective research instrument. Vinson, Munson and Nakanishi (1977) derived factor structures which indicate the existence of two distinct value categories, namely terminal and instrumental values. Robinson and Shaver (1971) reported that the scale had relatively high test-retest reliability coefficients. Rokeach (1973) himself found the value scale useful for differentiating men from women and caucasians from blacks.

While evidence exists to show that the value scale is a useful comparative research instrument, some authors have expressed concerns about the ranking procedure employed in the scale. Feather (1975) found that the value scale was effective for comparative research among people who have had a reasonable standard of education. Triandis (1980) expressed concern that people from different cultures may interpret the value concepts in different ways, especially students from developing countries. However, Ahmed (1987) found that students from developing nations, despite taking more time to complete the questionnaire, had relatively little difficulty completing the scale.

The ranking procedure assumes that it is not the absolute presence or

absence of a value that is of interest, but rather their relative order (Rokeach, 1973). The ranking method is also an ipsative procedure since it generates nonindependent data. Given that most advanced statistical procedures are designed for parametric statistics, the rank scores of individuals would not be appropriate for such methods.

Munson (1984) reported that the ranking method provides less information and forces values to be separated even if they are viewed as being equally important. Moreover, ranking cannot uncover differences in intensity with which a particular value is held. Nonetheless, he admits that the ranking procedure provides theoretical purity while the rating procedure is strategically useful.

To counter these problems, researchers suggest a number of alternative procedures. Feather (1975) recommends that the ranked values be transformed into standard scores corresponding to a division of 18 equal areas under the normal curve. This assumes that respondents have less difficulty ranking values at the extremes of high or low importance than ranking values in the middle range. Munson and McIntyre (1979) recommend the use of a seven or nine-point Likert scaling procedure. This method was found to be easier and less time-consuming for respondents. The authors also found that the rating procedure produced results similar to the ranking procedure and that the end-piling phenomenon did not affect the performance of the rating approach.

However, the rating procedure does not truly account for the relative importance of values as does the forced ranking approach. Reynolds and Joly (1980) found that rating was less reliable than ranking. Munson (1984) recommends using both methods by asking respondents to first rank and then rate the values or by dropping values ranked or rated in the middle range and dealing with the fewer number of values at the high and low extremes.

Both approaches appear to have both strengths and weaknesses and a definite

conclusion cannot yet be made. The final choice should rest with pragmatic considerations. If possible, both approaches should be used to provide validity checks for the research being undertaken. This is the approach that has been adopted in this research.

To compare Canadian and Sri Lankan students for the present research, the rated value scores elicited by means of a nine-point Likert scale will be subjected to normal t-tests of the difference between means. The rank scores will be subjected to the Wilcoxon rank-sum test which is a chi-square approximation for nonparametric data. The rank scores will also be subjected to a median test. The rated and ranked value differences will then be compared in order to examine whether the two approaches produced different results.

#### Demographic Variables

No attempt is made in this research to match the demographic characteristics of Canadian and Sri Lankan students. Matching is not practical because the educational systems in both countries vary. Sri Lankans, for instance, tend to enrol in university at an older age than Canadians. The only dimensions upon which the two samples were matched is with respect to university year and type of student.

In order to obtain some idea of the backgrounds and interests of Sri Lankan students, certain demographic areas were investigated. These include the following: name of university, year of study, age, sex, rural-urban background, study status, father's occupation, languages spoken and field of specialization. Canadian and Sri Lankan students may have very different job market environments and different attitudes towards this environment. Hence, data was collected on an additional six variables, namely: held or holding a permanent job, chances of obtaining employment in desired field, assurance of permanent employment upon graduation, contacts for permanent

employment, preferred sector of employment and preferred size of industry. Ahmed and Jabes (1988) found these variables to be very useful for comparative research.

### Canadian Within-Country Differences

As a nation, Canada has a distinct culture. However, it must be acknowledged that there exists two subcultures in Canadian society; namely, English Canada and French Canada. The research evidence supports this notion as well. Authors such as Ahmed (1977, 1981a) and Kanungo and Bhatnagar (1978) have found that Anglophone and Francophone business students have different attitudes towards job factors and business enterprises. They also possess different achievement orientations.

Given this evidence, it was decided that within-country differences in Canada would be investigated for all of the variables in this research. The analysis will use t-tests to assess differences for rated data and the Wilcoxon rank-sum test for rank-ordered data. In this way, one will be able to examine whether the differences between Canadian students and Sri Lankan students is attributable to differences between Sri Lankan students and one of the Canadian subcultures.

### Response Bias

Researchers such as Mitchell (1968), Triandis (1972) and Sekaren (1983) report problems with data collection in developing countries. Many of these problems centre on response bias. It was decided that the extent of response bias should be assessed. To do this, a separate scale was constructed. This procedure would also provide some safeguard for fatigue bias by giving respondents a break from the questionnaire subject matter.

This scale had to be relevant to student respondents. Seven university

attributes that business students use to evaluate business schools were employed for this purpose. These attributes included: emphasis on case method, research reputation of professor, teaching ability of professor, social life and recreation, cost of education, reputation of the degree and emphasis on the use of computers. The students are asked to rate and rank these attributes according to their perceived importance in choosing a university business program.

To assess response bias, a response bias scale was constructed. The response bias scale was the sum of a respondent's score on each of the individual seven-point rated university attribute items. An individual's score on the response bias measure could vary between 7 (overall low importance) and 49 (overall high importance). This measure would then be subjected to a stepwise discriminant analysis to determine if the overall score was statistically different between the two country samples. A second stepwise discriminant analysis will be conducted on the seven individual variables so that a comparison can be drawn with the first stepwise discriminant analysis. This type of analysis would give some indication about the level of response bias in the data.

The two groups of students are expected to place different degrees of importance on these seven university attributes. However, for one national sample, one would expect to find a summated score in the mid-range of the response bias scale. Since the same would hold true for another national sample, any significant difference uncovered by the stepwise discriminant analysis would be the result of a response bias on the part of one national sample.

### Analysis of Discriminatory Power

The research literature suggests that values, as cultural variables, and achievement motivations, as psychological variables, may do well to differentiate the two groups of students. However, Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970) warn against making conclusions that state that one group of variables provide the best discriminatory power. Instead, conclusions indicating that one set of variables discriminates better than another are preferable.

A discriminant model of demographics only, one of achievement motivations only and one of values only will be developed using discriminant procedures relevant to each scale. Another model will be developed to assess the discriminatory power of all three sets of variables collectively.

The first model will use a forward stepwise discriminant analysis. This procedure assumes that the classes are multivariate normal with a common covariance matrix. The method begins with no variables in the model. At each step in the model a variable is selected to enter. This variable is the one which contributes the most to the discriminatory power of the model based upon Wilk's lambda, the likelihood ratio criterion. This statistic tests the hypothesis that the means of the two groups of students on the selected variables are equal in the population. When the remaining variables after each step no longer meet the criterion to enter the model the procedure stops. The demographic variables are not normally distributed since they employ nominal scales. However, it will be assumed that they are normal in order to facilitate comparison. The other two groups of variables will include achievement motivations and rated values. Each of the three groups of independent variables will be included separately in the model to assess which group of variables have the largest average squared canonical correlation. All three groups of independent variables will be included in another model to assess which variables have the most discriminatory power.

The second model will employ a canonical discriminant analysis. This method derives linear combinations of the quantitative variables that summarize the between-class variation. Each canonical correlation tests the hypothesis that it and all smaller canonical correlations are zero in the population. As with the stepwise procedure, this method assumes that the variables have a multivariate normal distribution. The first three models used in the stepwise discriminant model will also be used here, primarily as a check. Three models, each one with a different group of independent variables, will be compared based on their canonical correlation, adjusted canonical correlation and squared canonical correlation. As before, demographic variables will be assumed to possess normal, independent distributions.

The third method to be employed, which also assumes that the distribution within each group is approximately multivariate normal, is a linear discriminant function. This method classifies observations into two or more groups on the basis of numeric independent variables. The function is determined by Rao's measure of generalized squared distance based on individual within-group covariance matrices. Each observation is placed in the class from which it has the smallest generalized squared distance. This procedure determines a type of 'hit ratio' by identifying how many respondents are correctly classified according to their scores on independent variables. Again demographics, achievement motivations and rated values will be used as independents.

The fourth and final procedure to be used is the nearest neighbour discriminant analysis. This model is a nonparametric method that classifies observations. Each observation is classified according to the nearest neighbour rule. For a particular observation, the method considers the next observation closest to it. Mahalanobis' distance is used to determine proximity. The observation is put into that class that has the largest proportion of nearest neighbours. The nearest neighbour discriminant analysis will be conducted using ranked values as the classification

variables. In this way, a comparison can be drawn between the 'hit ratio' of rated values and the 'hit ratio' of rank-ordered values. This analysis will provide insight into the future use of the Rokeach Values Scale (Rokeach, 1973) based upon rated scores.

### Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into six sections. The first section was preceded by a brief introduction. The study was introduced to students by explaining that the purpose was to determine students' attitudes and perceptions towards present day business in their respective countries. Course instructors gave students a similar introduction to the purpose of the study. In order to give respondents some time to prepare themselves for the more thought-provoking sections such as values and perceptions of business, the demographic questions were placed at the beginning.

Questions regarding employment status were included in the second section prior to the eight-item scale designed to measure job factor outcomes. For the job factors, respondents were first asked to rate each factor from 1 (low importance) to 7 (high importance). They were then asked to rank order the factors from 1 to 8. It was felt that this procedure would sensitize the respondents to the job factor outcome measures. The second section also included questions regarding students' perceptions of university attributes. This was used to guard against fatigue bias and to check for potential response biases.

The third section of the questionnaire required the students to rate private businesses along the 18 attributes discussed previously. Respondents were then asked to indicate the name of their hometown as a means of waking them up. The scale designed to measure the students' perceptions of government enterprises was placed at the end of the questionnaire, in section six, to guard against order bias.

Section four dealt with achievement motivations. Section five required students to first rank order and then rate 18 individual terminal values. At this point the respondents were asked if they liked the questionnaire. As before, this was deliberately placed here to minimize fatigue bias.

The questionnaire was pre-tested in Canada in both English and French following a double translation procedure. The Canadian students had no difficulties with the questionnaire. The Sinhalese version of the questionnaire was also subjected to a careful double translation procedure. The original questionnaire was modified slightly to make it easily understood by the Sri Lankan students. For instance, the scales dealing with the image of public and private sector businesses were made unipolar to facilitate the responses of the Sri Lankan students. It was also felt that the Sri Lankan students, after being asked if they liked the questionnaire, might be predisposed into believing that they had finished and would subsequently forget to complete section six. Therefore, the question regarding their attitudes towards the questionnaire was placed at the end.

The pre-tested Sinhalese version of the questionnaire was well understood by the Sri Lankan students. The Sri Lankans did, however, take longer to complete the questionnaire. Nonetheless, no other difficulties were encountered. No further changes were made and the questionnaires were distributed to both samples of students. Copies of the French and Sinhalese versions of the questionnaire are included under Appendix C and Appendix D respectively.

CHAPTER V  
PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section discusses the sample characteristics and compares the Canadian and Sri Lankan students on this dimension. The second section examines the adequacy of the research sample. Next, the two samples of students are compared with respect to their employment status. The fourth section discusses the potential for grouping corporate performance measures into key dimensions of corporate performance and responsibility. The fifth section explores within-country differences in the Canadian sample. The sixth section examines evidence for the presence of response bias in the data.

Sample Characteristics

The data for this research study was collected during the last six months of 1986 from two universities in Sri Lanka and from five universities in Canada. Class supervisors at each of the universities in Canada and Sri Lanka supervised the administration of the questionnaire. When the questionnaires were completed, they were returned to Ottawa by mail.

A total of 811 completed questionnaires were collected to represent the Canadian students. Alternatively, 389 Sri Lankan students completed the Sinhalese questionnaires. This yielded a usable sample of 1200. The response rate was 100%. Aside from a few minor out-of-bounds responses, all of the questionnaires were properly completed. The answers to demographic questions are grouped in table 5-1.

Both sub-samples represent a wide range of undergraduate students in Canada and Sri Lanka. All of the Sri Lankan students were Sinhalese. No Tamils were included in the sample so the results apply only to Sinhalese Sri Lankan students. The distribution of student's field of specialization is

TABLE 5-1  
 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN SAMPLE

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students
<b>Undergraduate Year</b>		
First	4.0%	19.9%
Second	16.9%	8.3%
Third	33.2%	28.2%
Fourth	45.9%	43.6%
<b>Age</b>		
Under 25	89.6%	92.0%
25 and older	10.4%	8.0%
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	53.1%	52.5%
Female	46.9%	47.5%
<b>Background</b>		
Rural	21.2%	75.9%
Urban	78.8%	24.1%
<b>Study Status</b>		
Full-time	90.6%	98.4%
Part-time	9.4%	1.6%
<b>Father's Occupation</b>		
Managerial/Professional	70.0%	45.4%
Technical	10.9%	13.2%
Clerical/Sales	6.7%	3.0%
Labourer	12.4%	38.4%
<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>811</b>	<b>389</b>

shown in table 5-2. The largest proportion of Canadian students were enrolled in the fourth year of their program. In order to retain a large sample size, the entire range of business students was included in the sample even though it was initially established that students in their final year of study would be used to represent the sample.

TABLE 5-2  
CANADIAN STUDENT'S FIELD OF SPECIALIZATION

FIELD OF SPECIALIZATION	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
MIS	0.9%
Accounting	17.1%
Finance	8.0%
Marketing	51.4%
Human Resources	6.1%
Management Science	3.7%
International Business	0.3%
Public Administration	1.7%
General Management	5.4%
Other	5.4%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100%</b>

Number of Respondents

811

Other results show that most of the Canadian and Sri Lankan students were under the age of 25 and were divided almost equally between male and female. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents were studying full-time. There were more Canadian students studying part-time than Sri Lankan students.

The largest observable demographic differences between the two groups of students were with respect to their socioeconomic backgrounds, as measured by the Rural-Urban and Father's Occupation variables. Almost 80% of the Canadian students came from urban backgrounds, compared to less than 25% for the Sri Lankan students. Furthermore, 70% of the Canadian students came from professional-managerial families. On the other hand, less than 50% of the Sri Lankan students came from this type of background. Almost 40% of the Sri Lankan students came from labour or farming backgrounds.

An interesting observation is that the percentage of Canadian students who have urban backgrounds and those who come from managerial-professional-technical family backgrounds are very similar. However, this was not the case for the Sri Lankan students. Most of the Sri Lankan students had rural backgrounds and fewer students belonged to professional-managerial-technical families. There are two reasons for this. First, agriculture is a major sector of the Sri Lankan economy. Unlike their Canadian counterpart, the Sri Lankan farmer is a professional in terms of socioeconomic status. For this reason, a Sri Lankan farmer was coded among the professional-managerial category of Father's Occupation for the Sri Lankan student sample. Second, the high proportion of students with rural backgrounds in Sri Lanka is simply an economic fact in that country. Few Sri Lankan families can afford to live in cities such as Colombo and instead reside in more rural areas of the country.

#### Adequacy of Research Sample

According to the university breakdown of the Canadian sample in table 5-3, 12.2% were enrolled in predominantly french-speaking schools, 16.5% were studying in predominantly english-speaking schools and 71.3% were attending a bilingual institution (University of Ottawa).

TABLE 5-3

## UNIVERSITIES REPRESENTED BY CANADIAN SAMPLE

UNIVERSITY ATTENDED	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
Ottawa	71.3%
Carleton	4.0%
Bishop's	12.5%
Sherbrooke	10.2%
Laval	2.0%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100%</b>

Number of respondents                      811

The percentage of students who actually attend french-language business schools and the actual proportion who speak french only is much less than the percentages portrayed by this sample. Even though there was a proportionately larger number of english-speaking students, it can be concluded that the sample for this research includes a large number of Francophone students.

### Employment Status

A comparison of the student employment status and preferred employment status is highlighted in table 5-4. The data reveals that very few (2.6%) of the Sri Lankan students had previously held a permanent job. On the other hand, more (31.4%) Canadian students had held permanent positions at one time but this figure was still low. This difference can be attributed

TABLE 5-4

## EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students
<b>Previously Held a Permanent Job</b>		
Yes	31.4%	2.6%
No	68.6%	97.4%
<b>Contacts for Permanent Job</b>		
Yes	48.7%	49.5%
No	51.3%	50.5%
<b>Assurance of Permanent Job</b>		
Yes	18.5%	24.9%
No	81.5%	75.1%
<b>Chances of Obtaining Job in Desired Field</b>		
Good	40.9%	8.4%
Fair	36.0%	53.7%
Poor	6.3%	10.7%
Don't know	16.8%	27.2%
<b>Preferred Enterprise</b>		
Private	57.0%	36.9%
State/Public	10.9%	20.7%
Both	30.3%	37.7%
Neither	1.8%	4.7%
<b>Preferred Size of Industry</b>		
Large	40.3%	35.8%
Medium	32.4%	45.3%
Small	7.8%	5.8%
Don't know	19.5%	13.2%
<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>811</b>	<b>389</b>

to a slightly older Canadian sample that may include some students who decided to return to school after spending several years in the work force.

Both groups of students had little assurance of finding a permanent job. Slightly less than 50% of each group had made contacts for a permanent job upon graduation. However, 76.9% of the Canadian students felt that they had at least some chance of obtaining a job in their desired field. The Sri Lankan students did not share the same optimism. The data revealed that 53% of the Sri Lankan students believed that their chance of getting a job in their desired field was only fair at best. Thus, the Sri Lankan students, relative to the Canadian students, appeared to be more concerned about finding a job upon graduation than finding one in their desired field.

The data related to preferred sector of employment and preferred size of industry revealed some interesting findings. The majority of the Canadian students preferred to work for large (40.3%), private (57.0%) enterprises. Alternatively, the Sri Lankan students were more inclined to prefer organizations that were medium in size (45.3%) and either publicly or privately owned (37.7%). The data shows that the Canadian students preferred larger firms almost as much as the Sri Lankan students preferred medium-sized firms. This preference may have affected the responses by the Sri Lankan students with respect to their perceptions of business enterprises.

#### Assessment of Corporate Responsibility Dimensions

Based upon the decisions that were made in Chapter IV, the Canadian and Sri Lankan business students' perceptions of private and public business enterprises were factor-analyzed using principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. Tables E-1 through E-4 in Appendix E summarize the factor loadings for these perceptions of business.

The factor analysis of business performance dimensions did not allow for a consistent classification of corporate performance dimensions. The findings do suggest that both samples of students evaluated the performance of business enterprises on only a few key dimensions. The analysis did not provide concrete evidence for which variables correspond to the economic performance of enterprises and the discretionary performance of enterprises. The communality estimates for each variable also varied widely depending upon the sample and type of enterprise in question.

Since the factor analysis failed to categorize items into distinct groups of corporate performance, the perceptual schema of students was investigated by using the corporate image and performance questionnaire (Appendix A). The sample for this questionnaire consisted of 76 business students from a fourth year marketing research course at the University of Ottawa. Because the objective was to conceptualize the variables dealing with corporate performance, no attempt was made to make the sample representative.

Responses were coded in a Yes/No format which in effect created 72 (18 variables with 4 categories) variables. For example, if a respondent classified the variables Challenging-Dull into the economic and ethical dimensions of corporate performance, then the new variables Economic Challenging-Dull and Ethical Challenging-Dull were coded '2' and the new variables Social Challenging-Dull and Legal Challenging-Dull were coded '1'. Variables would be classified by choosing the dimension which had the highest mean value for each of the 18 original variables.

The results of this analysis are shown in table E-5 in Appendix E. There were 7 variables which were grouped into the economic dimension, 3 variables which were grouped into the ethical dimension, 8 which were grouped into the social dimension and no variables were grouped into the legal dimension. The classification could have been somewhat different considering that some mean values were close for certain dimensions.

Evidence supporting a consistent grouping of individual variables into one dimension of corporate performance was inconclusive. Thus, for practical purposes, it was decided to group the variables into two dimensions, namely economic and social performance. The two groups of corporate performance variables are shown in table 5-5.

The items which were used to represent the economic and social dimensions of corporate performance were each subjected to an item analysis for the private and public business enterprises. This analysis computes Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability and the standardized item alpha.

The results highlight that the groupings are quite reliable. The economic performance variables for the private businesses had an alpha of 0.6907 and a standardized item alpha of 0.7376. The alpha and standardized alpha for the economic performance dimensions of public enterprises were 0.5143 and 0.5412 respectively. The social performance dimensions of private businesses had an alpha of 0.7682 and a standardized alpha of 0.7891. The two values for the social performance dimensions of public businesses were 0.4117 and 0.4355 respectively. Each of the items had relatively high corrected item-total correlations.

The findings indicate that the two groups of variables in table 5-5 are quite reliable for describing the economic and social performance of business enterprises. The lower scores for government enterprises suggest that these dimensions may be less reliable for measuring the corporate performance of public enterprises. Nonetheless, these variables will be used to examine whether or not there is sufficient evidence to support the hypotheses developed in Chapter III concerning the performance of private and public business enterprises in Canada and Sri Lanka.

TABLE 5-5

**CLASSIFICATION SUMMARY OF CORPORATE  
PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Economic	Social
Challenging/Dull	X	
Honest/Dishonest		X
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious		X
Motivating/ Demotivating	X	
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented	X	
Controls Society/ Society Controlled		X
Flexible/Inflexible	X	
Fair/Unfair		X
Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious	X	
Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics		X
Human/Inhuman		X
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented		X
Responsive/ Unresponsive	X	
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed	X	
Progressive/ Stagnant	X	
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory		X
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible		X
Creative/ Not Creative	X	
<b>Total</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>9</b>

### Canadian Within-Country Differences

This section examines the validity of the data collected in Canada. The purpose of this section is to determine whether the Canadian sample is only a composite of Canada's two cultural groups, namely Anglophones and Francophones. The section is divided into five parts. The first part discusses the method by which the Canadian sample was divided into two subsamples. The four remaining parts examine the differences between these two groups of students with respect to job factor motivations, perceptions of business enterprises, achievement motivations and terminal and instrumental values.

#### **Subsamples**

The Canadian sample was divided into two groups. This division was based on the language question in the research instrument which, unfortunately, did not ask respondents to state their mother tongue. Instead, they were asked what languages they spoke. Many Canadian respondents spoke more than one language. Hence, in order to distinguish English Canadians from French Canadians, it was decided to select students who spoke no english at all to represent the francophone sample.

The result was one group of 769 students representing the English Canadian students and another group of 42 students representing the French Canadian students. Considering the number of french schools which were contacted for this research, there would appear to be a very small number of French Canadian students for this subsample. However, the location of the school can have a definite cultural influence. For instance, the University of Ottawa is a bilingual institution, yet, students are still exposed to the predominant english culture in the city of Ottawa.

### Job Factors

Table F-1 in Appendix F shows the results of the t-test analysis comparing the English and French Canadian students on the rated job factors. Only 1 out of the 8 job factors was significantly different for the two subsamples. The two groups of students differed significantly with respect to Job Environment. This was perceived to be more important by the French respondents. However, one could have expected one significant difference on the basis of chance alone.

The Wilcoxon rank-sum test for the rank-ordered job outcomes in table F-1 highlights two significant differences between the Anglophone and the Francophone students. The English Canadian students placed slightly more importance on the factor Job Prestige while the French Canadian students placed more importance on the factor Job Environment. While some differences did materialize between the two groups of Canadian students, it is difficult to conclude that the Anglophone students are substantially different from the Francophone students with respect to job factor outcomes.

### Perceptions of Business Enterprises

The results of the t-test analysis for testing the differences between means on the perceptions of business variables appear in tables F-2 through F-5 in Appendix F.

For the economic dimensions of private corporate performance, the English Canadian students believed business was more Challenging, Motivating, Flexible and Responsive. The English Canadian students appeared to hold a more positive attitude towards the economic performance of private business enterprises. It should be noted that three pairs of mean scores were on the same side of the midpoint in the scale. Thus, while differences did

materialize, three were due to difference in degree as opposed to divergent attitudes.

Even fewer differences appeared for the social responsibility dimensions of private corporate performance. The French Canadian students believed that private business enterprises were slightly more Honest.

The results of the t-test analyses for the perceptions of government enterprises indicate that there were no differences between the Anglophone and Francophone students. This was true for both the economic and social responsibility performance dimensions. There is little evidence to support the notion that the Anglophone and Francophone business students differed with respect to their perceptions of government enterprises.

#### **Achievement Motivations**

Table F-6 shows the results of the English versus French Canadian students' scores on the achievement motivation scale. Only 1 of the 6 achievement needs were found to be significantly different. This was on the dimension Competitiveness. The Francophone students were less competitive than their Anglophone counterparts. For the remaining five achievement motivation dimensions, the two groups of Canadian students were quite similar.

With only one significant difference, it is difficult to conclude that one group had a higher need for achievement than the other. Ahmed (1981a) reported that Francophone students were less competitive in his longitudinal study comparing English and French Canadian students. The difference found in this sample could be attributed to chance. Whether these differences truly exist can only be uncovered with a larger sample of French Canadian students than the one used in this research.

### Terminal and Instrumental Values

Tables F-7 through F-10 in Appendix F highlight the value comparison of the Anglophone and Francophone students. According to table F-7, 4 of the 18 rank-ordered terminal values were significantly different for the English Canadian and French Canadian students. Relative to the French Canadian students, the English Canadian students placed more importance on the values Happy, National Security and Self-Respect but placed less importance on An Exciting Life.

On the other hand, table F-8 highlights the results of the t-test analyses for the rated terminal value scores of the two groups of Canadian business students. The findings show that 2 of the 18 rated terminal values were significantly different. The English Canadian students were more concerned with National Security and Self-Respect. Despite being significant, the differences were small. Considering that only two of the terminal values were significantly different under the rate procedure, one must question if these differences were the results of chance. Nonetheless, some differences were apparent.

Table F-9 summarizes the results of the Wilcoxon rank-sum test for the rank-ordered instrumental value differences between the Francophone and Anglophone students. Seven of the values were found to be significantly different between the two subgroups. Relative to the French Canadian students, the English Canadian students were less concerned with being Broadminded, Clean, Imaginative and Self-Controlled yet they were more concerned with being Independent, Intellectual and Responsible.

Alternatively, the results for the rated instrumental value differences in table F-10 show four significant differences. The Anglophone students placed less importance on being Broadminded and Self-Controlled yet placed

more importance on being Independent and Responsible. The results support the findings for the rank-ordered instrumental values. They suggest that the French Canadian students may be slightly more concerned with moral modes of conduct than their English Canadian counterparts.

The findings comparing the Anglophone and the Francophone students indicate that the two groups are very similar. The largest differences appeared with respect to their approach to life. Beyond this, however, the two groups of Canadian students did not show marked differences in their job factor outcomes, perceptions of business, achievement motivations or end-states of existence.

#### Assessment of Response Bias

The results of the stepwise discriminant analysis used to assess the extent of response bias in the data appears in table 5-6. The response bias measure, as the independent variable, was able to significantly discriminate Canadian business students from Sri Lankan business students. The average squared canonical correlation was only 0.012. In other words, the response bias measure was only able to explain 1% of the differences between the two groups of business students. The large sample size may have contributed to this significance.

Alternatively, 6 of the 7 rated university attributes, as independent variables, were also able to significantly discriminate Canadian students from Sri Lankan students. The average squared canonical correlation for the university attributes as independents was 0.136. This is larger than the average squared canonical correlation for the response bias measure.

The results indicate that some response bias is present in the data. Whether the bias is the result of end-piling, acquiescence or hospitality bias is not known. Nonetheless, it is obvious that the bias is quite small,

negating its potential harmful effect on the other research findings.

TABLE 5-6

ASSESSMENT OF RESPONSE BIAS USING  
STEPWISE DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

INDEPENDENTS	AVERAGE SQUARED CANONICAL CORRELATION
Response Bias Measure	0.01
University Attributes	0.14

**NOTE:** Results of discriminant analysis are significant to within 5 percent. Individual scores on the response bias scale fluctuate between a low of 7 and a high of 49.

## CHAPTER VI

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESES

The material in this chapter is divided into five sections. Section one provides a brief note on the use of multiple t-tests. Section two explores the differences between the two groups of students with respect to job outcomes. Sections three and four compare the two groups on their perceptions of private and public business enterprises. Section five investigates a comparison of achievement motivations scores. Sections six and seven then discuss terminal and instrumental value differences.

#### Use of Multiple t-tests

Multiple t-tests were used to analyze the findings for rated scores on various dimensions. Some might question the use of multiple t-tests, opting instead for a multivariate, one way analysis of variance (MANOVA). However, multiple t-tests were used for a number of reasons. First, multiple t-tests facilitate the presentation of means and the difference between means. Second, the MANOVA procedure was used as a check and was found to be less rigorous than the multiple t-tests. The MANOVA procedure actually uncovered more differences between Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

#### Job Factors

Table 6-1 compares the mean scores of the Canadian and Sri Lankan students on the job factor characteristics scale. Out of the 8 rated job factors, the two groups of students differed significantly on 6 job outcomes based upon a t-test comparison of the difference between means. This is well beyond what one would expect by chance alone. The Canadian and Sri Lankan students differed significantly with respect to job factor outcomes.

A comparison of the rated mean scores shows that the Canadian students placed more emphasis on Job Interest, Job Environment, Promotability and Job Experience. The Sri Lankan students placed more importance on the factors Job Security and Salary. Differences between the factors Training Program and Job Prestige were not found to be significant. The largest observable differences in the means were found for the variables Salary and Job Environment. The two most important job factors for the Canadian students based upon rated scores were Job Interest and Promotability. The

TABLE 6-1

**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
RATED JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS**

**RATED MEAN SCORES**

<b>JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Intrinsic Factors</b>			
Job Interest	6.38	6.15	0.23**
Job Environment	5.57	5.07	0.50**
Job Experience	5.11	4.70	0.41**
Promotability	5.76	5.37	0.39**
<b>Extrinsic Factors</b>			
Job Security	5.40	5.84	(0.44)**
Salary	5.47	6.05	(0.58)**
Training Programs	5.13	5.09	0.04
Job Prestige	4.63	4.76	(0.12)
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>6</b>

**NOTE:** Job factors rated 1 to 7 where 7 is extremely important and 1 is not important at all. Negative numbers in parentheses.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

two most important factors for the Sri Lankan students were Job Interest and Salary.

As expected, the Canadian students did score higher on all of the intrinsic job factors. The Sri Lankans scored higher on two extrinsic factors, namely Job Security and Salary. Moreover, even though the scores for the two groups on the dimensions Training Programs and Job Prestige were not significant, the proposed direction of the differences was confirmed. These results lend support for the hypothesis that the Canadian students, relative to the Sri Lankan students, placed more importance on the intrinsic job factor outcomes and less importance on the extrinsic job factor outcomes.

The results for the rank-ordered job factor outcomes appear in table 6-2. The findings according to the Wilcoxon rank-sum test and the median test for nonparametric data were identical to the rate results. The only difference was that an additional factor was significantly different for the two groups. The Sri Lankan students placed more importance on the factor Job Prestige. This provides further support for the hypothesis that the Sri Lankan students held a more instrumental view of work while the Canadian students held a more expressive view of work.

The research literature reported in Chapter II highlighted that workers and students in developing countries tend to have lower level needs. On the other hand, workers and students from more advanced nations are reported to have higher level needs. Slocum Jr. (1971) found that Mexican blue-collar workers were motivated by more basic needs than their American counterparts. Similar results were found for Arabs (Triandis, 1972) and Iranians (Simyar, 1984). Tannenbaum, Kavic, Rosner, Vianello and Weiser (1972) reported that managers in developing countries tend to prefer more passive employees. The research findings support the research literature. Sri Lankan business students take a more instrumental view of work whereas Canadian business students hold a more expressive view of work.

TABLE 6-2

COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
RANK-ORDERED JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS

## RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students	Wilcoxon Chi Square	Median Test Chi Square
<b>Intrinsic Factors</b>				
Job Interest	2.05	2.52	28.60**	21.17**
Job Environment	4.38	5.23	49.34**	37.32**
Job Experience	5.39	6.20	45.39**	17.99**
Promotability	4.08	4.52	17.14**	6.33*
<b>Extrinsic Factors</b>				
Job Security	4.42	3.26	91.37**	66.97**
Salary	3.70	2.57	113.91**	63.96**
Training Programs	5.45	5.63	0.03	0.12
Job Prestige	6.43	5.43	48.41**	23.74**
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>7</b>	<b>7</b>

**NOTE:** Rank-ordered job factors vary between 1 for most important and 8 for least important. Negative numbers in parentheses.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

Any attempts to motivate Sri Lankan students to join organizations should address basic needs such as salary and job security. However, this does not deny the need for providing interesting jobs that stimulate and challenge the students. These findings should be of little surprise. Given the disparity of the nation in the past and the uncertainty over violence in the more recent past, it is little wonder that Sri Lankan students would place importance on basic needs such as a secure job and an adequate salary. The

results reported in Chapter V lend further support to these findings. Sri Lankan students were unsure about their ability to obtain a job in their desired field. In fact, these students were more concerned with finding a permanent job after graduation than finding one in their area of interest. Finally, given that the majority of these students came from rural and agricultural backgrounds, it is understandable that they may be more interested in finding employment that takes them to more lucrative urban markets.

Attempts to motivate Canadian students to join organizations must focus on more advanced needs. Offering a training program with a high salary may not provide sufficient rewards for a Canadian business student about to enter the world of work. Employers who place importance on providing graduating students with interesting employment that gives them sound work experience, a conducive work environment and the opportunity for rapid advancement will experience success in attracting and retaining a qualified pool of future managers.

#### Perceptions of Private Business Enterprises

Table 6-3 summarizes the findings for the Canadian and Sri Lankan students' perceptions of the economic performance of private business enterprises. Both groups of students generally held very positive attitudes regarding the economic performance of private businesses. The only observable negative perceptions were that both groups of students believed business was more Performance Conscious than Seniority Conscious.

Of the 9 variables which represented the economic dimensions of corporate performance, 7 were significantly different between the groups. The Canadian students felt that business was more Challenging, Consumer Oriented, Flexible, Progressive, Creative and less Performance Conscious. The Sri Lankan students were more inclined to feel that business was Well-

Managed. The largest differences between the two groups of students were on the variables Consumer Oriented-Product Oriented, Progressive-Stagnant and Seniority Conscious-Performance Conscious.

TABLE 6-3

**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES ON  
ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Challenging/Dull</b>	2.52	2.78	(0.26)*
<b>Motivating/Demotivating</b>	3.09	3.27	(0.18)
<b>Consumer Oriented/Product Oriented</b>	3.89	5.61	(1.72)**
<b>Flexible/Inflexible</b>	4.04	4.47	(0.43)**
<b>Seniority Conscious/Performance Conscious</b>	5.17	6.26	(1.09)**
<b>Responsive/Unresponsive</b>	3.91	4.03	(0.12)
<b>Well Managed/Poorly Managed</b>	4.14	3.52	0.62**
<b>Progressive/Stagnant</b>	3.52	4.75	(1.23)**
<b>Creative/Not Creative</b>	3.57	3.94	(0.37)**
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>7</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the Sri Lankan score is higher.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

There was little support for hypothesis #2a. Sri Lankan students did not evaluate the economic performance of private business enterprises more favourably than the Canadian students. Even when one takes into account that the English Canadian students evaluated the economic performance of private firms more favourably than the French Canadian students, the Sri Lankan students still evaluated the economic performance less favourably than both groups of Canadian students. The findings for the economic performance of private business enterprises were in a direction opposite to that hypothesized in Chapter III.

Table 6-4 summarizes the findings for the students' perceptions of the social performance of private business enterprises. The students' attitudes regarding the social performance of private firms were less positive than those attitudes regarding the economic performance of these firms. This was true for both samples. The Canadian students felt that private businesses performed relatively well on 8 of the social dimensions. The Sri Lankan students felt that private businesses performed well on only 4 of these dimensions. It would appear that the Canadian students had a more positive perception of private firms on the social dimensions of performance.

Of the 9 variables which represented the social dimensions of corporate performance, 8 were significantly different between the groups. The Canadian students felt that private businesses were more Honest, Fair, Human and Socially Responsible and were more Influenced by Politics. The Sri Lankan students perceived that private businesses were less Pollution Conscious, less Employee Oriented but also less Discriminatory. The largest differences between the two groups of students were on the variables Fair-Unfair, Honest-Dishonest and Human-Inhuman. All of these were evaluated more positively by the Canadian students. The hypothesis that the Sri Lankan students would evaluate the discretionary social performance of private enterprises less favourably than the Canadian students was confirmed. Hypothesis #2b was supported.

TABLE 6-4

**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES ON  
SOCIAL PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
Honest/Dishonest	4.70	6.25	(1.55)**
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious	5.58	6.85	(1.27)**
Controls Society/ Society Controlled	4.53	4.65	(0.12)
Fair/Unfair	4.48	6.66	(2.18)**
Influenced by Politics /Influences Politics	4.41	4.73	(0.32)*
Human/Inhuman	4.26	5.79	(1.53)**
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented	2.62	2.12	0.50**
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory	4.63	4.39	0.24*
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible	4.73	5.97	(1.24)**
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>8</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the Sri Lankan score is higher.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

The findings generally show that Canadian students evaluated the economic and social performance of private businesses favourably. The Sri Lankan

students evaluated the economic performance of business much more favourably than the social performance of business but their enthusiasm about the performance of private firms did not equal that of the Canadian students.

The research literature reported in Chapter II leads one to believe that private firms in developing nations perform well on economic dimensions of corporate performance but perform less well on social dimensions. Private firms in developing countries are reported to have undertaken their economic responsibilities relatively well. However, these same businesses often fail to even approach the level of effort undertaken by the public sector to pursue social benefits (Sinha, 1979). The findings of this research do not support the research literature. Sri Lankan students did evaluate the economic performance of private firms positively but their perceptions were less favourable than the Canadian students.

Lynn Jr. (1984) found that corporate social responsibility has been gaining acceptance among North American private businesses. Gill and Leinbach (1983) state that private firms in more advanced developing nations such as Hong Kong have not yet performed well on the dimensions of corporate social responsibility. The findings for this research study support the research literature in this regard.

The results do not support the hypotheses for the performance of private businesses. The results do, however, show that businesses in Sri Lanka and Canada were perceived to perform better on economic dimensions of corporate performance than on the social dimensions. It is only when the Sri Lankans are compared to the Canadians that the economic performance of Sri Lankan businesses appeared to be less favourable.

Businesses in Canada appear to be fulfilling their economic role. Few people would argue with this statement. In relative terms, private Canadian firms are not performing as well on the social dimensions of corporate

performance. Some would argue that businesses in more advanced nations have developed skills in dealing with social responsibility issues. These findings indicate that there is still room for improvement. In a nation that is among leaders in the development of management concepts, tools and theories, these results are not surprising.

Private firms in Sri Lanka are perceived to pay less attention to their economic and social roles. The findings also indicate that these businesses need to promote improved economic and social performance if they wish to achieve a level of development that is similar to Canadian firms. Adopting some of the tools of Canadian businesses may provide part of a solution. A key mechanism for this transfer is through business schools established in that country. Business students who are taught the benefits of improved social performance may assist their country in achieving long-term development objectives. Another solution would be for firms to make use of image-building media campaigns.

#### Perceptions of Public Business Enterprises

Table 6-5 summarizes the findings for the students' perceptions of the economic performance of public business enterprises. Both groups of students held negative attitudes regarding the economic performance of public businesses. The only observable positive perceptions were on the dimensions Consumer Oriented-Product Oriented and Seniority Conscious-Performance Conscious.

For the 9 variables that represent the economic dimensions of corporate performance, 8 were significantly different between the groups. The Sri Lankan students felt that government firms were more Dull, Demotivating, Poorly Managed and Stagnant. The Canadian students felt that government firms were less Consumer Oriented, Performance Conscious and Creative and more Inflexible. The largest differences between the two groups of students

were on the variables Challenging-Dull and Progressive-Stagnant, both of which were perceived more negatively by the Sri Lankan students. The findings did not support hypothesis #2c. Sri Lankan students evaluated the economic performance of public businesses less favourably than the Canadian students.

TABLE 6-5

**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES  
ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Challenging/Dull</b>	<b>5.00</b>	<b>6.21</b>	<b>(1.21)**</b>
<b>Motivating/ Demotivating</b>	<b>5.29</b>	<b>5.64</b>	<b>(0.35)**</b>
<b>Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented</b>	<b>4.17</b>	<b>3.90</b>	<b>0.27*</b>
<b>Flexible/Inflexible</b>	<b>5.70</b>	<b>5.24</b>	<b>0.46**</b>
<b>Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious</b>	<b>3.22</b>	<b>3.83</b>	<b>(0.61)**</b>
<b>Responsive/ Unresponsive</b>	<b>5.09</b>	<b>5.29</b>	<b>(0.20)</b>
<b>Well Managed/ Poorly Managed</b>	<b>5.98</b>	<b>6.58</b>	<b>(0.60)**</b>
<b>Progressive/ Stagnant</b>	<b>5.63</b>	<b>6.33</b>	<b>(0.70)**</b>
<b>Creative/ Not Creative</b>	<b>5.70</b>	<b>5.94</b>	<b>(0.24)*</b>
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>8</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the Sri Lankan score is higher.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

On the other hand, both groups of business students evaluated the social performance of these entities positively. Table 6-6 highlights that very few dimensions were perceived negatively. This is a sharp contrast to the findings on the economic dimensions of corporate performance discussed previously. The only social dimension that was perceived negatively was Discriminatory-Nondiscriminatory.

The t-test results indicate that the two groups of students differed significantly on 4 dimensions of social performance for government enterprises. The Canadian business students perceived these enterprises to be more Honest and more Socially Responsible than the Sri Lankan business students. The Sri Lankan students did find government businesses to be slightly more Fair and more Employee-Oriented than the Canadian students. These differences were small in magnitude. The largest difference appeared for the Profit Oriented-Employee Oriented dimension. There is no conclusive evidence to support hypothesis #2d. The hypothesis that the Canadian students would evaluate the discretionary social performance of public business enterprises more favourably than the Sri Lankan students was not confirmed.

The findings for the government businesses show that both samples evaluated the social performance more favourably than the economic performance. With a few minor exceptions, both groups of students tend to agree that public businesses perform their social duties well. The two groups of business students were negative about the economic performance of these entities but the Sri Lankan students evaluated the economic performance more negatively than the Canadian students.

The literature review points to the complicated challenges that public businesses face due to the complex political environments that limit the bounds of rationality in these organizations (Whorton and Worthley, 1981).

Because of this, government organizations do not always pursue strategies that lead to maximum profits or cash flow. Instead, they often pursue social objectives. Public businesses in developed countries are often

TABLE 6-6

**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES  
SOCIAL PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

MEAN SCORES

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students	Difference Between Means
Honest/Dishonest	4.87	5.28	(0.41)**
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious	4.36	4.15	0.21
Controls Society/ Society Controlled	4.16	4.18	(0.02)
Fair/Unfair	4.84	4.54	0.30**
Influenced by Politics /Influences Politics	2.77	2.79	(0.02)
Human/Inhuman	4.44	4.52	(0.08)
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented	5.12	5.65	(0.53)**
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory	5.43	5.42	0.01
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible	4.15	4.45	(0.30)**
Number of significant differences			4

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the Sri Lankan score is higher.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

criticized for their economic inefficiencies. This is often overshadowed by the strong social orientation of these firms (O'Toole, 1984). One is led to believe that public organizations in developing nations perform better economically than those in more advanced nations and that the opposite holds true for the social performance dimensions.

The findings of this study do not support the literature in this respect. However, the results do show that students in both countries support the notion of the bureaucracy as an inefficient means to pursue economic objectives. Both groups of business students appear to take a more fundamental approach in their evaluation of public sector corporate performance. It would seem that the notion of public firms pursuing public and social objectives would appeal to both groups of students.

Despite negative impressions of public enterprises generally, the Sri Lankan students felt that these institutions pay less attention to their economic roles. The Canadian government enterprises appeared to perform better economically. This can be attributed to two key factors. First, as with private businesses, these Canadian firms are using the most recent tools and techniques of management, many of which are not yet commonplace in Sri Lankan public organizations. Second, the economic hardships of Sri Lanka are more severe at this particular stage in that nation's development. To overcome these problems, developing nations require both managerial competence and financial strength. These two key resources are sorely lacking in Sri Lanka.

### Achievement Motivations

The results for the achievement motivational differences between Canadian and Sri Lankan students appear in table 6-7. The table highlights mean scores for each sample, the differences between the means and their significance.

The three dimensions that received the highest mean scores on the six-dimensional achievement scale were Excellence, Acquisitiveness and Status with Experts. This finding was consistent for both groups of business students. The Competitiveness dimension had the lowest mean score for the Canadian sample. The Status with Peers dimension had the lowest score for the Sri Lankan sample. The t-test comparison of mean scores indicate that the two groups of business students differed significantly on all six dimensions of achievement. The Canadian and Sri Lankan business students differed significantly with respect to achievement motivations.

**TABLE 6-7**  
**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'**  
**ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATIONS**

**RATED MEAN SCORES**

<b>ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATIONS</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Excellence</b>	<b>21.67</b>	<b>20.66</b>	<b>1.01**</b>
<b>Acquisitiveness</b>	<b>19.03</b>	<b>18.36</b>	<b>0.67**</b>
<b>Status with Peers</b>	<b>17.70</b>	<b>14.56</b>	<b>3.14**</b>
<b>Competitiveness</b>	<b>16.08</b>	<b>14.76</b>	<b>1.32**</b>
<b>Status with Experts</b>	<b>18.80</b>	<b>17.71</b>	<b>1.09**</b>
<b>Independence</b>	<b>16.43</b>	<b>15.44</b>	<b>0.99**</b>
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>6</b>

**NOTE:** Achievement motivations rated 3 to 27 where 3 is low and 27 is high. Negative numbers in parentheses.

**\*\*p<0.01**

**\*p<0.05**

The rated mean values for each facet of achievement motivation highlight that the Canadian students placed more importance on all of the dimensions of achievement compared to the Sri Lankan students. The Canadian students obviously possessed a higher need for achievement than their Sri Lankan counterparts. Thus, there was only partial support for hypothesis #3.

These results tend to support the findings of McClelland (1961), the pioneer of achievement motivation research. He found that individuals from developing nations have lower level needs for achievement. Hofstede (1980) found employees of Canadian firms tend to be individualistic. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) uncovered a belief among the Chinese that people have a limited capacity to exercise leadership and Redding (1980) notes that the Chinese place little importance on autonomy.

Citizens of developing countries have been shown to prefer avoiding conflict (Bourgeois and Boltvinik, 1981) and tend to place more emphasis on the family and authority of the elder (Pizam and Reichel, 1977). The findings support the importance of Expert Status to a certain extent but do not support the importance of Peer Status. A comparison of scores with the Canadian students hides this notion. Sri Lankan students did not place a great deal of importance on Status with Peers or Competitiveness but they did place importance on the dimension Status with Experts.

Nonetheless, the Sri Lankans did not have as high a need for achievement as the Canadian students. This is not surprising given the findings for job factor motivations that indicated that the Canadian students tend to have higher level needs. Sri Lanka's economic difficulties provide at least some explanation about the reason for the predominance of lower level needs among its students including the need for achievement.

### Terminal Rokeach Value Profile

Tables 6-8 and 6-9 summarize the comparison of rank-ordered and rated terminal values for Canadian business students and Sri Lankan business students. The rank-ordered values highlight that the Canadian students valued Happiness, Self-Respect and True Friendship the most. The Sri Lankan students valued an Exciting Life, Freedom and Equality the most. The values thought to be the least important for the Canadian students were Salvation, National Security and a World of Beauty. The values thought to be least important for the Sri Lankan students were Salvation, Sense of Accomplishment and Self-Respect. The rated terminal values in table 6-9 support these findings.

The rank-ordered terminal values in table 6-8 indicate that the two groups differed significantly on 15 terminal values according to the Wilcoxon rank sum test and differed on 13 terminal values according to the median test. For those values perceived to be important by the Canadian students, the Canadian students placed more importance on the values Happiness, Self-Respect, True Friendship, Sense of Accomplishment and Mature Love. For those values perceived to be important by the Sri Lankan students, the Sri Lankan students placed more importance on the values Exciting Life, Freedom, Equality, Family Security, Wisdom and World of Peace.

The results for rated terminal values in table 6-9 indicate 15 significant differences between the Canadian and Sri Lankan students. The most important differences were identical to those uncovered with rank-ordered terminal values in table 6-8. The Canadian students again placed more importance on the values Happiness, Self-Respect, True Friendship, Sense of Accomplishment and Mature Love. The Sri Lankan students again placed more importance on the values Exciting Life, Freedom, Equality, Family Security, Wisdom and World of Peace.

TABLE 6-8

COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
ON RANK-ORDERED TERMINAL VALUES

## RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

TERMINAL VALUES	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students	Wilcoxon Chi Square	Median Test Chi Square
Comfortable life	7.15	6.91	7.57**	3.34
Exciting life	7.60	5.23	50.85**	48.93**
Sense of Accomplishment	7.09	14.67	359.71**	328.16**
World of Peace	10.93	8.28	41.82**	53.86**
World of Beauty	13.54	11.91	18.48**	15.69**
Equality	11.65	6.56	203.36**	156.17**
Family Security	8.47	7.04	23.10**	35.91**
Freedom	7.69	5.41	54.42**	77.68**
Happiness	5.68	8.02	49.10**	52.49**
Inner Harmony	9.06	9.46	2.96	0.01
Mature Love	8.31	9.91	27.67**	22.49**
National Security	14.11	10.77	124.84**	96.68**
Pleasure	10.17	9.62	10.70**	2.52
Salvation	14.78	15.47	0.30	0.72
Self-Respect	6.44	12.36	263.12**	241.06**
Social Recognition	11.12	10.99	0.19	0.58
True Friendship	6.95	9.57	95.69**	65.62**
Wisdom	10.04	8.27	17.63**	15.22**
Number of significant differences			15	13

NOTE: Values ranked 1 to 18 where 1 is most important and 18 is least important.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

In general, the terminal value differences between the two groups yielded similar results with rank-ordered scores and rated scores. The Canadian students scored higher, for the most part, on personal terminal values. The Sri Lankan students scored higher on social terminal values. The findings tend to confirm hypothesis #4a and hypothesis #4b.

TABLE 6-9

COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
ON RATED TERMINAL VALUES

RATED MEAN SCORES

INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students	Difference Between Means
Comfortable life	6.03	5.90	0.11
Exciting life	5.85	6.63	(0.78)**
Sense of Accomplishment	6.22	3.03	3.19**
World of Peace	5.17	6.30	(1.13)**
World of Beauty	4.44	4.76	(0.22)*
Equality	4.98	6.50	(1.52)**
Family Security	6.09	6.56	(0.54)**
Freedom	6.44	6.98	(0.53)**
Happiness	6.85	6.32	0.57**
Inner Harmony	5.89	5.96	(0.07)
Mature Love	6.07	5.71	0.38**
National Security	4.53	5.98	(1.45)**
Pleasure	5.62	5.84	(0.22)**
Salvation	3.62	3.02	0.60**
Self-Respect	6.69	4.38	2.31**
Social Recognition	5.12	5.17	(0.05)
True Friendship	6.70	6.21	0.49**
Wisdom	5.76	6.46	(0.70)**
Number of significant differences			15

NOTE: Values rated 0 to 8 where 0 is not important at all and 8 is very important. Negative numbers in parentheses.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

The findings for terminal values in this study support the findings reported in the research literature. Hofstede (1976) found that individualism was more important in western nations such as Canada. People from developing nations have also been found to avoid confrontation or anti-social behaviour

(Hall, 1976) and tend to value long-term relationships (Blanton, 1976).

Canadian students were more individualistic than Sri Lankan students. This was quite apparent in their desired end-states of existence. The Sri Lankans appeared to value end-states that benefit their society as a whole as opposed to end-states that are more self-serving. This supports other findings reported in previous sections of this chapter. Given the relatively depressed state of the Sri Lankan economy and the constant fear of Tamil outbursts, one would expect Sri Lankans to place a high priority on peace, equality and freedom -- end-states that benefit all Sri Lankans.

#### Instrumental Rokeach Value Profile

Tables 6-10 and 6-11 summarize the comparison of rank-ordered and rated instrumental values for the two groups of business students. The rank-ordered values highlight that the Canadian students placed the most importance on the values Honest, Responsible and Ambitious. The Sri Lankan students placed the most importance on the values Honest, Independent and Courageous. The values thought to be the least important for the Canadian students were Obedient, Clean and Forgiving. The values thought to be least important for the Sri Lankan students were Self-Controlled, Responsible and Obedient.

The rated instrumental values in table 6-11 indicate almost identical results for the Canadian students. The results for the Sri Lankan students were similar to those uncovered under the rank procedure. The Sri Lankan students placed the most importance on the values Honest, Polite and Clean and the least importance on Forgiving and Cheerful according to the rated scores.

The rank-ordered instrumental values in table 6-10 indicate that the two groups differed significantly on 11 instrumental values according to both

the Wilcoxon rank-sum test and the median test. For those values perceived to be important by the Canadian students, the Canadian students placed more importance on the values Responsible, Ambitious, Capable and Loving. For those values perceived to be important by the Sri Lankan students, the Sri Lankan students placed more importance on the values Honesty, Clean, Courageous and Helpful.

TABLE 6-10

COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
ON RANK-ORDERED INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

## RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	Canadian Students	Sri Lankan Students	Wilcoxon Chi Square	Median Test Chi Square
Ambitious	6.89	8.31	10.20**	7.91**
Broadminded	8.30	8.35	0.71	0.01
Capable	7.63	8.61	16.55**	10.96**
Cheerful	9.95	9.72	0.03	0.05
Clean	11.88	8.20	118.14**	89.54**
Courageous	10.53	8.28	38.63**	35.65**
Forgiving	11.15	10.58	0.84	2.13
Helpful	10.30	9.02	12.88**	21.25**
Honest	5.69	4.96	10.09**	5.84*
Imaginative	11.02	9.92	6.23*	9.15**
Independent	8.01	7.85	0.05	1.52
Intellectual	8.95	8.46	1.35	3.51
Logical	9.63	9.27	0.22	0.13
Loving	8.16	10.07	32.14**	18.36**
Obedient	14.73	11.17	124.92**	68.28**
Polite	10.82	10.98	0.04	2.38
Responsible	6.71	11.97	193.87**	141.16**
Self-Controlled	10.32	13.61	89.66**	76.30**
Number of significant differences			11	11

NOTE: Values ranked 1 to 18 where 1 is most important and 18 is least important.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

The findings for rated instrumental values in table 6-11 indicate 12 significant differences between the Canadian and Sri Lankan students. The most important differences were similar to those uncovered with rank-ordered instrumental values in table 6-10. The Canadian students again placed more

**TABLE 6-11**  
**COMPARISON OF CANADIAN AND SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'**  
**ON RATED INSTRUMENTAL VALUES**

**RATED MEAN SCORES**

<b>INSTRUMENTAL VALUES</b>	<b>Canadian Students</b>	<b>Sri Lankan Students</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Ambitious</b>	6.22	5.78	0.44**
<b>Broadminded</b>	6.09	5.89	0.20*
<b>Capable</b>	6.35	5.88	0.47**
<b>Cheerful</b>	5.77	5.62	0.15
<b>Clean</b>	5.35	6.31	(0.96)**
<b>Courageous</b>	5.57	5.94	(0.37)**
<b>Forgiving</b>	5.38	5.33	0.05
<b>Helpful</b>	5.55	5.96	(0.41)**
<b>Honest</b>	6.81	6.85	(0.04)
<b>Imaginative</b>	5.51	5.83	(0.32)**
<b>Independent</b>	6.15	6.02	0.13
<b>Intellectual</b>	5.87	6.29	(0.42)**
<b>Logical</b>	5.82	5.90	(0.08)
<b>Loving</b>	6.24	5.88	0.36**
<b>Obedient</b>	4.24	6.27	(2.03)**
<b>Polite</b>	5.64	6.47	(0.83)**
<b>Responsible</b>	6.67	6.17	0.50**
<b>Self-Controlled</b>	5.86	5.78	0.08
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>12</b>

**NOTE:** Values rated 0 to 8 where 0 is not important at all and 8 is very important. Negative numbers in parentheses.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

importance on the values Responsible, Ambitious, Capable and Loving. The Sri Lankan students placed more importance on the values Polite, Clean, Intellectual, Obedient and Helpful.

The findings under the rank procedure and the rate procedure did not produce identical results but did produce similar results. This is primarily attributable to the generally high scores for the Sri Lankan students on the rated instrumental values. These high scores suggest that the Sri Lankan students' responses to the rated instrumental values were subject to a positive response bias.

The instrumental value differences between the Canadian and Sri Lankan students provided some evidence, although not conclusively, that the Canadian students scored higher on competence instrumental values and that the Sri Lankan students scored higher on moral values. The overall scores highlight that the Canadian students tended to place more importance on competence values. The overall scores for the Sri Lankan students indicate that they too placed more importance on competence values but less so than the Canadian students. Thus, there is some support for hypothesis #4c. However, hypothesis #4d is rejected.

The findings for instrumental values tend not to support the research literature. The Chinese, for example, have been found to place more importance on moral and ethical values compared to Americans (Domino and Mo, 1987). Given the influence of Buddhism in Sri Lanka, one would have expected Sri Lankans to value social restraint and self-control. This did not materialize in this research study. Despite the desired differences in end-states, both groups of business students had the same approach to life. This holds true even in consideration of the English and French Canadian differences reported in the previous chapter. The desire of Sri Lankan students to improve their lives may have taken precedence over more traditional values in Sri Lankan society.

Canadian students and Sri Lankan students have the same overall approach to life with only a few minor differences. It is interesting to note that the Sri Lankan students did not evaluate business positively on this dimension. If businesses in Sri Lanka are perceived to be dishonest, then the pool of future managers in that country will bring with them values that will give local businesses the opportunity to change this perception.

There does appear to some contradiction in the findings for the importance attached to employment earnings as a job factor and acquisitiveness as a dimension of achievement. The findings indicate that Sri Lankan students were more motivated by earnings compared to the Canadian students. On the other hand, the Canadian students scored higher on the acquisitiveness dimension of achievement. Given the limited financial resources of Sri Lankans, one could argue that the importance attached to earnings is derived from a need for some personal security. Acquisitiveness is related more to the acquisition of material wealth as a function of achievement. The low score for the Sri Lankans on this dimension is also supported by the low importance attached to being ambitious. This further supports the notion that the Sri Lankans simply have a lower need for achievement.

Given the link between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and Rokeach's values, some conclusions can be drawn for this research study. According to the terminal values and achievement motivations, there is conclusive evidence that the Canadian students are more individualistic. Sri Lankan students were found to be less tolerant of unequal power distributions in society given that they placed less importance on being imaginative and courageous and their low scores on the competitiveness dimension of achievement. The Sri Lankan students also tended to have more masculine types of values given the limited importance they attached to self-respect and have self-control. There was no conclusive evidence to indicate that one group felt more threatened by ambiguous situations than another group.

## CHAPTER VII

### RESULTS OF MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES

The effectiveness of the independent variables for discriminating Canadian and Sri Lankan business students is the subject of this chapter. The objective of this chapter is to assess the practical usefulness of the independent variables used in this research study. The chapter is divided into four sections, each one focussing on a particular analysis. The first section examines the results of the stepwise discriminant analysis. The results of the canonical discriminant analysis are detailed in section two. The third section discusses the findings of the linear discriminant analysis. The fourth section considers the results of the nearest neighbour discriminant analysis for rank-ordered data. The fifth and final section discusses the usefulness of the independent variables in future research.

#### Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

The results of the stepwise discriminant analysis are shown in table 7-1. The results of the model in which demographics were used as independents shows that 7 variables significantly explained 39% of the differences between the Canadian and Sri Lankan students based on the average squared canonical correlation. Four of these variables were related to job market environment differences. One would expect these differences considering the vastly different environments in Canada and Sri Lanka.

On the other hand, 23 rated values significantly explained 69% of the differences between the two groups of students based on the average squared canonical correlation. The number of terminal and instrumental values which entered the model were roughly equal. For the achievement motivations, 3 variables combined to account for 19% of the differences between the two samples. Finally, when all independents were included in one model, 32 variables accounted for 76% of the differences between the Canadian and Sri

Lankan business students. Among all of these variables, 21 were rated values, 5 were demographics and 2 were achievement motivations.

**TABLE 7-1**  
**STRENGTH OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR**  
**DISCRIMINATING STUDENTS USING**  
**STEPWISE DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS**

INDEPENDENTS	AVERAGE SQUARED CANONICAL CORRELATION
Demographics	0.39
Rated Rokeach Values	0.69
Achievement Motivations	0.20
All Independents	0.76

The results of this analysis, designed specifically for multivariate normal data, indicates that values best discriminate Canadian students from Sri Lankan students. It should be noted that a large proportion ( $9/12 = 75\%$ ) of the demographics and job market variables also entered the final model.

#### Canonical Discriminant Analysis

The results of the canonical discriminant analysis appear in table 7-2. With rated values as independents, the canonical correlation was 0.831 and the adjusted canonical correlation was 0.825. The squared canonical correlation was 0.691. Four test statistics were used and all four were significant. For the demographic variable, the canonical correlation, the adjusted canonical correlation and the squared canonical correlation were

0.630, 0.625 and 0.396 respectively. Again, all test statistics were highly significant. Finally, the same three correlations using the achievement motivations as independents were 0.442, 0.439 and 0.196 respectively. All test statistics were significant once again.

TABLE 7-2

**STRENGTH OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR  
DISCRIMINATING STUDENTS USING  
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS**

<b>INDEPENDENTS</b>	<b>Canonical Correlation</b>	<b>Adjusted Canonical Correlation</b>	<b>Squared Canonical Correlation</b>
<b>Demographics</b>	<b>0.630</b>	<b>0.625</b>	<b>0.396</b>
<b>Rated Rokeach Values</b>	<b>0.835</b>	<b>0.828</b>	<b>0.696</b>
<b>Achievement Motivations</b>	<b>0.448</b>	<b>0.444</b>	<b>0.201</b>

The results of the canonical discriminant analysis support the findings for the stepwise discriminant analysis discussed previously. The rated values were best able to differentiate the two groups of students.

### Linear Discriminant Analysis

Table 7-3 highlights the results of the linear discriminant analysis. Based upon the use of demographics as independent variables, 90.5% of the Canadian business students were correctly classified as belonging to that group. The percentage of Sri Lankan business students that were correctly classified using demographics was lower at 69.5%. The posterior probability of membership in each group was very close to the prior probability of belonging to that group.

When the rated values were used as independents, 98.3% of the Canadian respondents were correctly classified and 87.2% of the Sri Lankan students were correctly classified. The posterior probability of membership in each group was closer to the prior probability of belonging to that group than it was for the demographics. Lastly, 91.3% of the Canadian students and 42.7% of the Sri Lankan students were correctly classified when the achievement motivations were used as independent variables. The posterior probability highlights that the achievement motivations classified too many respondents into the Canadian group.

TABLE 7-3

**STRENGTH OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR  
DISCRIMINATING STUDENTS USING  
LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS**

INDEPENDENTS	Prior Probability	Posterior Probability	Percentage Correctly Classified
<b>Demographics</b>			
Canada	71.0%	73.1%	90.5%
Sri Lanka	29.0%	26.9%	69.5%
<b>Rated Rokeach Values</b>			
Canada	67.6%	70.1%	98.1%
Sri Lanka	32.4%	29.9%	88.4%
<b>Achievement Motivations</b>			
Canada	67.9%	78.0%	89.9%
Sri Lanka	32.1%	22.0%	47.1%

**NOTE:** Prior probabilities vary due to variations in the number of missing values for each group of independents.

As with the previous two analyses, the findings of the linear discriminant analysis showed that the rated values, relative to the other independents, did better to differentiate the two groups of business students.

#### Nearest Neighbour Discriminant Analysis

In order to draw a comparison between the 'hit ratio' based upon the rated values and the 'hit ratio' based upon rank-ordered values, a nearest neighbour discriminant analysis was undertaken. The findings appear in table 7-4. The results show that 93.2% of the Canadian business students and 68.4% of the Sri Lankan business students were correctly classified. The posterior probability resembled the prior membership probability.

TABLE 7-4

**STRENGTH OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR  
DISCRIMINATING STUDENTS USING  
NEAREST NEIGHBOUR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS**

INDEPENDENTS	Prior Probability	Posterior Probability	Percentage Correctly Classified
Rank-Ordered Robusach Values			
Canada	73.5%	76.9%	93.2%
Sri Lanka	26.5%	23.1%	68.4%

Upon comparing these percentages with those found for the rated values in the linear discriminant model, it is apparent that the rank-ordered values did not perform quite as well. Nonetheless, the rank-ordered values still did well to discriminate the two groups of students when compared to the demographics and achievement motivations in the previous table.

### Usefulness of Independent Variables

In general, the results of the discriminant analyses lend overwhelming support for hypothesis #5a but little support for hypothesis #5b. The differences in values, as cultural variables, between Canadian and Sri Lankan students did better to differentiate the students than achievement motivation and demographic differences. The differences in achievement motivation, as psychological variables, between Canadian and Sri Lankan students did not perform as well as demographics for differentiating the students. For this research study, 'cultural' variables had a greater discriminant strength than other variables.

Levitt (1983) and other proponents of the convergence hypothesis would find the results of this study somewhat disturbing. They would also state that this study was based on micro-level variables and, like other micro-level studies in the past, naturally uncovered differences across countries (Child, 1981). However, this study was based entirely on the theory that differences do exist. As such, research instruments were selected with the objective of uncovering differences between Sri Lankan and Canadian students.

Cultural explanations for differences found in comparative studies are the most popular reported in the literature. This is supported by the work of Ajiferuke and Boddeyn (1970) and Negandhi (1983). This, however, is probably due to the fact that there are more scales and measures in the management literature designed to measure cultural variables than any other variables. The reason for this is that cultural variables are easily identifiable and lend themselves well to explanation and discussion. Behavioural and psychological variables are often more abstract and more difficult to explain. Cultural variables are practical. Scales such as the Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973) have stood the test of time. Because they are enduring, their use is more widespread.

The findings of this research highlight that cultural variables did well to differentiate Sri Lankan business students from Canadian business students. This finding is supported in the literature by authors such as Hofstede (1976), Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966), Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986) and Negandhi (1975, 1983). The results support the idea that management principles must face the challenge of other business cultures if they are going to be truly universal (Oberg, 1963).

On the other hand, the psychological variables did not perform well relative to the other variables in the study. This should not be surprising though. Achievement motivation represents only one type or group of psychological variables. There are many more psychological variables that have been used in comparative research. Given this, the achievement motivation scale developed by Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976) did well to explain 20% of the variability in the responses of the two student samples.

## CHAPTER VIII

### RESEARCH SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section reviews the research objectives and the methodological decisions that were made to achieve these objectives. The second section summarizes the results of the research findings. The third section briefly reviews the limitations of the study. The fourth section discusses the managerial implications of the results. The final section examines directions for future research.

#### Research Objectives

This research was undertaken for the purpose of providing both educational institutions and multinational corporations with some insight into the needs, perceptions and values of students in two very different countries. For the educational institution, information of this nature is valuable for both curriculum design and course development. Educational institutions can reinforce positive attitudes and values and can also reshape negative attitudes and values. As such, schools can act as agents of social change. Assessing the local attitudes and values of students is one way schools can ensure that they respond to the needs of their clients and the employers students will work for when they graduate. As well, by altering business programs to reflect the needs of the students and the local economy, business schools can play a vital role in the modernization of their countries. For multinational corporations, the knowledge of students' motivations, values and attitudes will provide them with insight into what to expect from the pool of future managers. It also provides them with some basic information that will be useful for developing public awareness and image campaigns.

Studies of this nature have been conducted within advanced countries (Ahmed, 1981a) and across advanced nations (Ahmed and Jabes, 1988). But, no study

has examined these dimensions comparatively between a developed society and one which is still developing. To this end, two very different countries were chosen to be included in this research, namely Canada and Sri Lanka.

Scales used in other similar studies to measure job factor motivations, achievement motivations, perceptions of business enterprises and values were used as the basic methodological tools in this study. This provided scales with construct validity. These measures were also useful for fulfilling the other major research objective which was to determine the strength of various independent variables for differentiating between Canadian and Sri Lankan students.

Potential biases in the data were also identified. Analysis was conducted to examine whether the Canadian sample responses were the resultant effect of the responses of Canada's two dominant cultural groups, English and French Canadians. A response bias measure was also developed to assess whether the rated data was distorted by response biases often found with such rate measurement scales.

### Summary Results

The findings of the research revealed significant differences between Canadian business students and Sri Lankan business students with respect to their job factor motivations, images of public and private enterprises, achievement needs and value systems. The Canadian business students held a more expressive view of work, motivated more by the nature of the work itself. The Sri Lankan business students held a more instrumental view of work, motivated by the tangible work-related rewards.

The Canadian students did evaluate the discretionary social performance of private business enterprises more favourably than the Sri Lankan students. However, there was little support for the hypothesis that the economic

performance of business enterprises was evaluated more positively by the Sri Lankan students. It should be noted that the Sri Lankan students did believe that business enterprises performed well economically. The rated mean values for each group of students did lend support for both hypotheses but on a comparative basis, only one hypothesis was confirmed.

For the public enterprises, the Canadian business students evaluated the economic performance more favourably than the Sri Lankan students. There was no conclusive evidence that the Canadian students evaluated the social performance of government enterprises less favourably than the Sri Lankan students. Based upon overall mean values, both groups of students evaluated the economic performance of government enterprises negatively, yet evaluated the discretionary social performance positively. One finding of particular interest was that the Sri Lankan students perceived both private and public enterprises in their country to be dishonest.

Relative to the Sri Lankan business students, Canadian business students were found to have higher needs for achievement. These findings support the earlier findings of McClelland (1961), who observed empirically that individuals from developing nations have lower needs for achievement. Given the extent of poverty in developing nations such as Sri Lanka, these results are not surprising. One would expect students from poorer nations to be more concerned with safety and security rather than with higher level needs such as achievement.

The results for the value differences indicated that the Canadian business students valued personal end-states of existence such as happiness, self-respect, true friendship and a sense of accomplishment. The Sri Lankan business students valued more society-oriented goals such as freedom, family security, equality and a world of peace. The Canadian students tended to take a more personal, pragmatic, competence-oriented approach to their lives placing more importance on being responsible, capable, loving and

ambitious. Alternatively, the Sri Lankan students did not necessarily take more of a moral or interpersonal approach to their lives as initially hypothesized.

The analyses for determining the strength of independent variables for discriminating Canadian students from Sri Lankan students conclusively showed that values, both terminal and instrumental, were the best discriminators followed by demographics and achievement motivations. Cultural variables were better able to distinguish the two groups of students in this research.

It was acknowledged that the responses of both groups of students may have been subject to biases. Given the presence of two dominant subcultures in Canada, it became apparent that the responses elicited from the Canadian students may have been the sum of the responses given by the English and French Canadian students, of which one subgroup may have held attitudes similar to those of the Sri Lankan respondents. Canadian students were more individualistic than Sri Lankan students. This was quite apparent in their desired end-states of existence. The Sri Lankans appeared to value end-states that benefit their society as a whole. Furthermore, given the response biases often found in data collected in developing countries, it was possible that the data for this research was subject to response biases.

A within-country difference between means test was used to assess the first potential bias while a stepwise discriminant model using a response bias scale was used to assess the second bias. The findings of these analyses showed that there were no significant biases present in this research data.

In light of Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions of culture, this research study indicates that the Sri Lankan students are more concerned with collectivism, are less tolerant of unequal power distributions in society and tend to have masculine values. The Canadian students were more

individualistic, tolerated a larger power distance and tended to have feminine values. There was no conclusive evidence to indicate that one group felt more threatened by ambiguous situations (uncertainty avoidance) than another group. The findings of this study support the larger body of literature reported by Hofstede (1980) in which he classifies countries according to the four cultural dimensions of Individualism-Collectivism, Power Distance, Masculinity-Femininity and Uncertainty Avoidance.

#### Limitations of the Research

This study was not without its limitations. Some of these are detailed below:

- comparative studies including two countries have only limited managerial implications;
- despite the exploratory nature of the study, this research adds little additional insight into the existing research literature for comparative management;
- sample selection was based on a convenient judgmental sample as opposed to employing more sophisticated sampling procedures;
- a limited number of francophone students were included in the Canadian sample;
- no Tamils were included in the Sri Lankan sample;
- a limited number of schools were used to draw the sample;

- some scales may be less reliable than their intended purpose. For instance, the business performance scale did not perform as well for the perceptions of public enterprises; and
- job factor motivations and the corporate performance dimensions may be perceived differently by the Sri Lankan and Canadian business students.

### Implications of the Research

Despite the limitations, the research does present a number of managerial implications.

Business students will choose their employment partly on the basis of the image they hold of the organization and partly on the basis of the organizational rewards that they value. Educational institutions are in a position to reinforce positive attitudes and values and discourage negative attitudes and values of the students. The results of this research suggest that public and private organizations will need to stress different types of job factor rewards to attract the best students. Educational institutions in Canada and Sri Lanka will need to have different curricula in order to motivate these students.

Efforts to attract Sri Lankan business students by the public sector should place emphasis on the strong economic role that the public sector plays in the local economy. The private sector enterprises, on the other hand, should focus on both economic and discretionary aspects of corporate performance to motivate students. Sri Lankan business students were not impressed with the social performance of private enterprises. Medium-sized public and private corporations, which are preferred by these students, should emphasize job context characteristics such as adequate earnings and

employment security where the students are allowed to be expressive, humanistic and caring.

It is important to remember that these perceptions of business may not be based on absolute truths. Instead, they may be based on hearsay or some recent exposure to business. This gives multinational and public organizations the opportunity to market themselves. Multinationals operating in Sri Lanka should develop public awareness and image promotional programs to stress the importance they attach to fulfilling their economic and social roles in society. Honesty and integrity should be stressed as part of the message that is communicated to students. Public corporations in Sri Lanka could adopt similar promotional and image-building programs. However, these public organizations will need to stress the important economic role they play in Sri Lanka, even if their economic performance is only marginal. Like the promotional programs used in Canada for public organizations such as Petro Canada and Canada Post, promotional programs for Sri Lankan public organizations should emphasize that these organizations cannot be expected to have the same economic performance as private firms given the social objectives they are required to pursue.

The students should be encouraged to partake in interpersonal interactions at work that allow them to help each other. Sri Lankan students do not have high level needs. Their needs are much simpler and more basic. The Sri Lankan students were more concerned with finding a job upon graduation than finding one in their desired field.

Educational institutions in Sri Lanka should encourage their students to express their societal-oriented values and attitudes as they enter the local work force. This may help to improve the perceived indifference among many Sri Lankan public and private corporations toward social issues. Business schools should also stress the importance of honesty and integrity in conducting business in Sri Lanka. Case studies and exercises that force

students to balance ethical issues with economic realities would prove to be beneficial for educational curricula.

Such an effort may reverse present perceptions of Sri Lankan businesses as being dishonest and corrupt. If local business enterprises do engage in dishonest business practices, the next generation of managers in these organizations may be able to circumvent this trend. Such practices would support modernization efforts in this country.

Attracting Canadian business students will require organizations to stress different aspects of performance. Private enterprises will need to emphasize much more than their price-earnings ratios and market share in order to attract business students. Private business organizations will need to focus on their record of social performance as well. Private firms could benefit greatly from public awareness programs that promote the organization's concern for the environment or promote the organization's contribution to other social programs.

Canadian students believed that their public organizations were performing better economically compared to Sri Lankan students. Canadian business students also perceived these organizations to be demotivating, inflexible and stagnant — adjectives which have typically been used to characterize bureaucracies in the past. Public enterprises in Canada will need to continue to develop promotional programs that highlight their economic performance in light of the social objectives they pursue.

As a further effort to attract qualified students, Canadian employers should emphasize job content characteristics such as the interesting nature of the work, the opportunities available to students for career growth and advancement and meaningful work environments. These students will be motivated by work environments that satisfy higher level needs such as self-actualization and fulfillment in a competitive, pragmatic environment

that allows for individual success in achieving personal goals such as a sense of self-respect and accomplishment. The Canadian students would prefer to work for large, private business enterprises and their motivations and aspirations correspond to this preference.

Business schools in Canada have done well in the past to prepare students to work in the private sector. However, the research findings indicate that the students' perceptions of public enterprises do not correspond to their work-related needs and aspirations. This could exist for two reasons. One, business schools may not be the best environment in which students can learn about the complexities of managing in the public sector. Business schools may not be able to enlighten students with the idea that purely rational decisions are not always possible in public enterprises. Two, with the knowledge they have gained at school, business students may have formed unrealistic expectations about public organizations, how they function and how they are managed.

Today's business students, both in Canada and Sri Lanka, appear to be accepting the importance of social responsibility in private enterprises, not so much as a necessary evil, but as a way for the firm to sustain profitability in the long run. To prepare students for employment in public businesses, schools will need to develop curricula that educates students specifically on the nature of public organizations and the environments in which they function. However, students will also need to be shown how new developments in public administration have fostered increased economic efficiency and performance. Some schools have already developed curricula like this. Many business schools now offer majors in public administration. Some even offer graduate education programs leading to the degree of M.P.A..

Many researchers report that neither multinational corporations nor business schools have been able to standardize managerial practices across countries and cultures. By examining students' differences in job factor motivations,

perceptions of public and private corporations, achievement motivations and values, these organizations will be able to provide students with the necessary training that will allow them to become successful managers and professionals.

#### Directions for Future Research

The research reported in this thesis was narrow in its focus. It would be erroneous to generalize the results of this research to other nations or cultures. However, the research does provide some insight into directions for future research.

Since the differences found between Canadian and Sri Lankan students in this study were significant, it would be interesting to examine if such differences exist between other nations. For instance, one common assumption used in the cross-cultural literature is that geography is a key variable in influencing peoples' perceptions and values. It would be interesting to compare the perceptions of individuals from Sri Lanka with individuals from India. If perceptions were found to be similar in geographic regions, then research could be conducted to examine perceptual and value differences across continents.

Knowing that national attitudinal and motivational differences may be attributable to cultural differences between countries reinforces the use of values in cross-national research. Whether anyone will be able to conclude that values, as cultural variables, are the best predictors of managerial behaviour is not important. What is important is that values, as part of culture, appear to have great potential for differentiating students and managers in various nations. The Rokeach Value Scale (1973) is particularly well-suited for this purpose.

An enormous amount of literature exists in the field of cross-cultural research and much of it has contributed to the work of Hofstede (1980). However, the field of study is still in its infancy. It is hoped that this discipline will build a core knowledge in the future. This can only be achieved with more research that is exploratory in nature and far-reaching in scope.

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**APPENDIX A**

**CORPORATE IMAGE AND PERFORMANCE QUESTIONNAIRE**

GROUPING OF MANAGEMENT JUDGEMENT ITEMS

These items are designed to obtain your judgement regarding the classification of the following eighteen attributes of social performance of an enterprise. Could you please check the appropriate box indicating your judgement regarding how an item should be classified. The aspects of a corporate social performance are: economic, legal, ethical, and social. Thus an item, "an enterprise is: corrupt - not corrupt" may be classified as ethical or legal or both legal and ethical depending on how you judge the item. It will be appreciated if you answer this question carefully.  
The items are listed below.

ITEMS	Economic	Legal	Ethical	Social
Challenging - Dull				
Honest - Dishonest				
Pollution - Not Pollution Conscious - Conscious				
Motivating - Demotivating				
Consumer - Product Oriented Oriented				
Controls - Society Society - Controlled				
Flexible - Inflexible				
Fair - Unfair				
Seniority - Performance Conscious - Conscious				
Politically - Influences Influenced - Politics				
Human - Inhuman				
Profit - Employee Oriented Oriented				
Responsive - Unresponsive				
Well Managed - Poorly Managed				
Progressive - Stagnant				
Discriminatory - Non discriminatory				
Socially Socially Responsible - Irresponsible				
Creative - Non creative				

**APPENDIX B**  
**ENGLISH SURVEY INSTRUMENT**



## STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND NEEDS

The following questionnaire has been designed to find out the general attitudes and feelings of the students towards present day business in Canada.

Please give your answers to the following questions.

Section I

Listed below are questions dealing with your personal profile.

Col.

1/6 1. What is the name of the university you are presently attending?

---

2. And, what is your university year?

1/7 Undergraduate First  Second  Third  Fourth

Other \_\_\_\_\_  
(please specify)

1/8 Graduate First  Second  Other \_\_\_\_\_  
(please specify)

1/9 3. What is your age? \_\_\_\_ years.

1/10 Your sex? MALE  FEMALE

1/11 4. Would you classify your background as:

RURAL  URBAN

1/12 5. Are you presently a full time or a part time student?

Full time  Part time

6. What is your father's occupation? (If not working, what was his occupation)

- MANAGERIAL
- SMALL BUSINESSMAN
- PROFESSIONAL
- TECHNICAL
- 1/13 CLERICAL & SALES
- CRAFTSMAN
- FARMER
- LABOURER
- OTHER   
(please specify)

7. Have you previously held or are you presently holding a permanent job?

- 1/14 YES  NO

8. Upon graduation, would you prefer to work for a private enterprise or for government/state enterprise?

- 1/15 State enterprise  Private enterprise
- Both  Neither

9. What languages do you speak? Please check and/or state the languages you speak. You may check more than one.

- 1/16 English  French
- Others \_\_\_\_\_ (please specify)

10. What is your desired field of specialization? \_\_\_\_\_  
(e.g. marketing; accounting; sales, etc.)

11. Upon graduation, would you rate your chances of obtaining a job in your desired field as:

- 1/18 GOOD  FAIR  POOR  REALLY DON'T KNOW

Section II

Thank you for answering Section I. Now we would like you to answer the following questions. You will find that some of the statements are rather personal. However, all your responses will be held in strict confidence to protect your anonymity.

Col. 1. Do you presently have assurance of a permanent employment upon graduation?

- 1/19 YES  NO

2. Have you made any contacts for a permanent job?

- 1/20 YES  NO

3. In your opinion, what is the size of industry in which you think you have the greatest opportunity for employment?

1/21 SMALL  MEDIUM  LARGE  DON'T KNOW

4. Listed below are a series of characteristics that you might be looking for in your employment. Please write in a number that best describes your feelings as to how important each of these features is to you.

- 7- Extremely important
- 6- Very important
- 5- Fairly important
- 4- Not too important
- 3- Of very little importance
- 2- Of no importance at all
- 1- Not interested!

1/22 JOB INTEREST  1/23 SECURITY  1/24 PROMOTABILITY

1/25 SALARY  1/26 JOB ENVIRONMENT  1/27 JOB EXPERIENCE

1/28 TRAINING PROGRAM  1/29 JOB PRESTIGE

5. Now please rank these job characteristics in order of importance to you. The job characteristic that is most important to you should be ranked 1. The job characteristic that is least important to you should be ranked 8.

1/30	JOB INTEREST	_____
1/31	SALARY AND FRINGE BENEFITS	_____
1/32	TRAINING PROGRAM	_____
1/33	SECURITY	_____
1/34	JOB ENVIRONMENT	_____
1/35	PROMOTABILITY	_____
1/36	JOB EXPERIENCE	_____
1/37	JOB PRESTIGE	_____

6. Now please list any other characteristics that are important to you but have not been listed above.

1/38 \_\_\_\_\_

7. Here is a list of attributes that a university program in public or private management may possess. Please tell us how important it is that a university possess these attributes. Please write in a number that best describes your feelings concerning how important each one of these attributes is to you.

- 7- Extremely important
- 6- Very important
- 5- Fairly important
- 4- Not too important
- 3- Of very little importance
- 2- Of no importance at all
- 1- Not interested!

Col.		
1/39	Research reputation of professors	<input type="checkbox"/>
1/40	Teaching ability of professors	<input type="checkbox"/>
1/41	Social life and recreation among students	<input type="checkbox"/>
1/42	Cost of education	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 1/43 Reputation of the degree
- 1/44 Emphasis on case and class discussions/participation
- 1/45 Emphasis on using statistical analysis, computers, et cetera quantitative techniques

8. Now please rank these university attributes in order of importance to you. The university attribute that is most important to you should be ranked 1. The university attribute that is least important to you should be ranked 7.

- 1/46 Research reputation of professors \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/47 Teaching ability of professors \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/48 Social life and recreation \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/49 Cost of education \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/50 Reputation of the degree \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/51 Emphasis on case and class discussions/participation \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/52 Emphasis on using statistical analysis computers, et cetera quantitative techniques \_\_\_\_\_

9. Now please list any other attributes that are important to you but have not been listed above.

1/53 \_\_\_\_\_

Section III

This section is designed to obtain your general perceptions regarding the attributes of private sector business enterprises. Could you please circle the appropriate number indicating your feelings towards business in Canada. Thank you.

EXAMPLE: In general is business:

Good      1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Bad

① indicates that you feel business is good

④ indicates that you feel business is fair

⑨ indicates that you feel business is bad

In general, business is:

- 1/54 Challenging    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Dull
- 1/55 Honest            1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Dishonest
- 1/56 Pollution Conscious    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Not Pollution Conscious
- 1/57 Motivating       1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Demotivating
- 1/58 Consumer Oriented    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Product Oriented
- 1/59 Controls Society    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Society Controlled
- 1/60 Flexible           1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Inflexible
- 1/61 Fair                1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9      Unfair

1/62	Seniority Conscious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Performance Conscious
1/63	Politically Influenced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Influences Politics
1/64	Human	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Inhuman
1/65	Profit Oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Employee Oriented
1/66	Responsive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unresponsive
1/67	Well Managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Poorly Managed
1/68	Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Stagnant
1/69	Discrimi- natory	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Nondiscrimi- natory
1/70	Socially Responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Socially Irresponsible
1/71	Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Not creative
1/72	Could you please indicate the <del>name</del> of your home-town.										

Section IV

Rate yourself on the following dimensions by circling the number closest to the position which describes you best. FOR EXAMPLE:

FAT                    1   2   3   4   ⑤   6   7   8   9   Thin  
HONEST                1   2   ③   4   5   6   7   8   9   Dishonest

Col.      This person felt he was neither fat nor thin and circles the dimension midpoint, 5. He also felt he was a fairly honest person and circled 3.

1/73	Perfection-oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unconcerned with perfection
1/74	Trust the experts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Skeptical of authority
1/75	Prefer to work with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Prefer to do things alone
1/76	Not group oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Group oriented
1/77	Very money conscious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Not money conscious at all
1/78	Little respect for authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Respect for authority
1/79	Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Non-competitive
1/80	Do not focus on excellence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Strive for excellence
1/81	Like to be in charge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Like to share responsibility
1/82	Not at all conscious of economic gain	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very conscious of economic gain
1/83	Easy-going	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Like to strive against others

1/84	Approval seeking	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Indifferent to approval of others
1/85	Quality not valued highly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Quality minded
1/86	Like to remain in the background	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Like to surpass others
1/87	Not popular	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Popular
1/88	Favor incentive system of pay	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Favor regular pay increases
1/89	Enjoy the company of experts	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Dislike the company of experts
1/90	Rarely think about being wealthy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Wealth is my measure of success

Section V

A. Listed below are 18 terminal values in alphabetical order. We would like you to indicate HOW important each value is to you as a guiding principle in your life. Firstly, please order the eighteen values in order of importance to you in the column appearing on the left of value list. The most important value should be ranked 1, the second most important value 2, and so on. The least important value should be ranked 18. Secondly, indicate HOW important to you each value is by drawing a circle around a number in the scale appearing on the right of the value list. The greater the number circled, the more important the value to you. In order to help you, labels have been specified for some numbers at the top of the scale. Continue until all values have been rated.

RANK ORDER											
		Extremely Important		Very Important		Moderately Important		Slightly Important		Not Important at all	
1/91-92	A COMFORTABLE LIFE (a prosperous life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/127
1/93-94	AN EXCITING LIFE (a stimulating, active life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/128
1/95-96	A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT (lasting contribution)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/129
1/97-98	A WORLD OF PEACE (free of war and conflict)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/130
1/99-100	A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/131
1/101-102	EQUALITY (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/132
1/103-104	FAMILY SECURITY (taking care of loved ones)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/133
1/105-106	FREEDOM (independence, free choice)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/134
1/107-108	HAPPINESS (contentedness)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/135
1/109-110	INNER HARMONY (freedom from inner conflict)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/136
1/111-112	MATURE LOVE (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/137
1/113-114	NATIONAL SECURITY (protection from attack)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/138
1/115-116	PLEASURE (an enjoyable, leisurely life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/139
1/117-118	SALVATION (saved, eternal life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/140
1/119-120	SELF-RESPECT (self-esteem)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/141
1/121-122	SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, admiration)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/142
1/123-124	TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close companionship)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/143
1/125-126	WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	1/144

Section V

B. Listed below are 18 terminal values in alphabetical order. We would like you to indicate HOW important each value is to you as a guiding principle in your life. Firstly, please order the eighteen values in order of importance to you in the column appearing on the left of value list. The most important value should be ranked 1, the second most important value 2, and so on. The least important value should be ranked 18. Secondly, indicate HOW important to you each value is by drawing a circle around a number in the scale appearing on the right of the value list. The greater the number circled, the more important the value to you. In order to help you, labels have been specified for some numbers at the top of the scale. Continue until all values have been rated.

RANK ORDER											2-26
		Extremely Important	Very Important	Moderately Important	Slightly Important	Not Important at all					
1/145-146	AMBITIOUS (hard-working, aspiring)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-26
1/147-148	BROADMINDED (open-minded)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-27
1/149-150	CAPABLE (competent, effective)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-28
1/151-152	CHEERFUL (lighthearted, joyful)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-29
1/153-154	CLEAN (neat, tidy)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-30
1/155-156	COURAGEOUS (standing up for your beliefs)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-31
1/157-158	FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-32
1/159-160	HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-33
2/6-7	HONEST (sincere, truthful)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-34
2/8-9	IMAGINATIVE (daring, creative)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-35
2/10-11	INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-36
2/12-13	INTELLECTUAL (intelligent, reflective)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-37
2/14-15	LOGICAL (consistent, rational)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-38
2/16-17	LOVING (affectionate, tender)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-39
2-18-19	OBEDIENT (dutiful, respectful)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-40
2-20-21	POLITE (court-ous, well-mannered)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-41
2-22-23	RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-42
2-24-25	SELF-CONTROLLED (understanding of life)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2-43

Did you like the questionnaire until now?

2-44 Yes  No  Don't know

2-45 Why? \_\_\_\_\_

Section VI

This last section is designed to obtain your general perceptions regarding the attributes of public sector business enterprises. Could you please circle the appropriate number indicating your feelings towards business in Canada that is owned and controlled by the government (i.e. C.B.C., Air Canada, A.E.C.L.).

EXAMPLE: In general is public sector business enterprise

Good            1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   Bad

- ① indicates that you feel government-owned business is good
- ④ indicates that you feel government-owned business is fair
- ⑨ indicates that you feel government-owned business is bad

In general, business is:

2-46	Challenging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Dull
2-47	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Dishonest
2-48	Pollution Conscious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Not Pollution Conscious
2-49	Motivating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Demotivating
2-50	Consumer Oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Product Oriented
2-51	Controls Society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Society Controlled
2-52	Flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Inflexible
2-53	Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unfair
2-54	Seniority Conscious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Performance Conscious
2-55	Politically Influenced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Influences Politics
2-56	Human	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Inhuman
2-57	Profit Oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Employee Oriented
2-58	Responsive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unresponsive
2-59	Well Managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Poorly Managed
2-60	Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Stagnant
2-61	Discrimi- natory	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Nondiscrimi- natory
2-62	Socially Responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Socially Irresponsible
2-63	Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Not creative

Thank you very much for taking the time to answer this questionnaire. Your cooperation is fully appreciated.

**APPENDIX C**  
**FRENCH SURVEY INSTRUMENT**



LES PERCEPTIONS ET BESOINS DES ÉTUDIANT/ES

Nous demandons aux étudiants/es en administration des affaires, leur point de vue sur les départements de gestion. Les informations obtenues seront utilisées uniquement à des fins de recherche et seront gardées confidentiellement afin de protéger votre anonymat. Votre collaboration nous est primordiale.

Section I

Tout d'abord, pourriez-vous répondre à des questions d'ordre personnel?

Col.

1/6 1. Dans quelle école (ou université) étudiez-vous?

---

1/7 2. Vous êtes étudiant en quelle année?

Sousgraduée:

Première \_\_\_\_\_

Deuxième \_\_\_\_\_

Troisième \_\_\_\_\_

Quatrième \_\_\_\_\_

Autres (précisez) \_\_\_\_\_

Graduée:

1/8 Première \_\_\_\_\_, Seconde \_\_\_\_\_, Autres (précisez) \_\_\_\_\_

1/9 3. Quel est votre âge? \_\_\_\_\_ ans

1/10 4. Quel est votre sexe? Masculin  Féminin

5. Êtes-vous originaire de:

1/11 Région rurale  Région urbaine

- 1/12 6. Etes-vous actuellement un/e étudiant/e?  
Plein temps  Temps partiel
- 1/13 7. Quelle est la profession de votre père? (S'il ne travaille pas, quelle était son occupation)  
Gestionnaire   
Propriétaire de petite entreprise   
Professionnel   
Technicien   
Vente ou travail de bureau   
Main d'oeuvre spécialisée   
Fermier   
Manoeuvre   
Autre (Précisez) \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/14 8. Avez-vous déjà eu un travail à temps plein?  
(Ne pas inclure vos travaux d'été, s.v.p.) Oui  Non
- 1/15 9. Après l'obtention de votre diplôme, préféreriez-vous travailler pour une entreprise privée ou une entreprise appartenant au gouvernement.  
Entreprise appartenant au gouvernement  Entreprise privée   
Les deux  Ni l'une ni l'autre
- 1/16 10. Quelles langues parlez-vous? Cochez ou mentionnez les langues que vous parlez? Vous pouvez cocher plus d'une langue.  
Anglais  Français  Autre (précisez) \_\_\_\_\_
- 1/17 11. Dans quel domaine vous spécialisez-vous? (Marketing, comptabilité, personnel, etc...)
- 
- 1/18 12. Après l'obtention de votre diplôme quelle est la probabilité que vous puissiez obtenir un emploi dans le domaine choisi?  
Bonne  Moyenne  Pauvre  Ne sait pas

SECTION II

Nous vous remercions d'avoir répondu à la Section I; à présent vous êtes priés de répondre aux questions suivantes.

1/19 1. Etes-vous présentement assuré d'obtenir un emploi permanent après l'obtention de votre diplôme?

Oui  Non

1/20 2. Avez-vous entrepris certaines démarches en vue d'un emploi permanent?

Oui  Non

1/21 3. Dans quel type d'industrie auriez-vous la plus grande opportunité d'obtenir un emploi?

Petite  Moyenne  Grande  Ne sait pas

4. Ci-dessous, vous avez une liste de caractéristiques que vous pourriez rechercher dans votre emploi. Mettez le chiffre qui indique le mieux votre évaluation de ces caractéristiques.

7. Extrêmement important

6. Très important

5. Assez important

4. Pas trop important

3. De très peu d'importance

2. Pas du tout important

1. Pas d'intérêt

1/22 Emploi intéressant  1/23 Sécurité

1/24 Facilité de promotion  1/25 Salaire et bénéfice

1/26 Atmosphère de travail  1/27 Expérience

1/28 Programme de formation  1/29 Prestige

5. Maintenant, s'il vous plaît, numérotez les caractéristiques par ordre d'importance pour vous. La caractéristique d'emploi qui est plus importante pour vous devrait être numérotée 1, la caractéristique d'emploi qui est la dernière en importance devrait être numérotée 8.

1/30 Emploi intéressant

1/31 Salaire et bénéfice

1/32 Programme de formation

1/33 Sécurité

1/34 Atmosphère de travail

1/35 Facilité de promotion

1/36 Expérience

1/37 Prestige

1/38 6. Si vous avez d'autres caractéristiques d'emploi qui sont importantes pour vous, mais ne sont pas mentionnées ci-dessous, précisez:

---

---

7. Une liste d'attributs pour un programme d'études en gestion est fournie.

Pourriez-vous signaler le chiffre décrivant le mieux l'importance que vous attribuez aux caractéristiques que les universités possèdent:

- 7. extrêmement important
- 6. très important
- 5. assez important
- 4. pas très important
- 3. de très peu d'importance
- 2. pas du tout important
- 1. pas d'intérêt

- 1/39 Les professeurs réputés par leurs recherches
- 1/40 Capacité d'enseignement des professeurs
- 1/41 Vie sociale et culturelle
- 1/42 Coût de l'éducation
- 1/43 Réputation du diplôme de l'université
- 1/44 Importance de l'étude de cas et discussion/  
et participation des étudiants/es
- 1/45 Importance des analyses statistiques,  
ordinateur et autres techniques  
quantitatives

8. Maintenant, pourriez-vous numéroter les attributs pour un programme d'études en gestion. L'attribut qui est plus important devrait être numéroté 1; l'attribut qui est le dernier en importance devrait être numéroté 7.

- 1/46 Les professeurs réputés par leurs recherches
- 1/47 Capacité d'enseignement des professeurs
- 1/48 Vie sociale et culturelle
- 1/49 Coût de l'éducation
- 1/50 Réputation du diplôme de l'université
- 1/51 Importance de l'étude de cas et discussion/  
et participation des étudiants/es
- 1/52 Importance des analyses statistiques,  
ordinateur et autres techniques  
quantitatives

9. Si d'autres attributs de programme de gestion sont importants pour vous mais ne sont pas mentionnés ci-dessous, précisez:

---

---

SECTION III

Cette section est construite de façon à dégager la valeur des concepts généraux que vous avez, concernant l'industrie de nos jours, appartenant aux entreprises privées. Pourriez-vous encadrer, s'il vous plaît, le chiffre approprié indiquant le mieux votre évaluation de l'entreprise.

Exemple: "En général, l'entreprise est":  
BONNE (1) 2 3 4 (5) 6 7 8 (9) MAUVAISE

- 1 Indique que l'entreprise est bonne
- 5 Indique que l'entreprise est moyenne
- 9 Indique que l'entreprise est mauvaise

En général, l'entreprise est:

1/54	Relève le défi	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Ennuyante
1/55	Honnête	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Malhonnête
1/56	Consciente de la pollution	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Indifférente à la pollution
1/57	Motivatrice	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Sans motivation
1/58	Orientée vers le consommateur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Orientée vers le produit
1/59	Contrôle la société	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Est contrôlée par la société
1/60	Flexible	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Inflexible
1/61	Juste	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Injuste
1/62	Met l'emphase sur l'ancienneté	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Met l'emphase sur la performance
1/63	Influencée par la politique	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Influencée la politique
1/64	Humaine	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Inhumaine
1/65	Orientée vers le profit	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Orientée vers l'employé
1/66	Impressionnable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Stricte
1/67	Bien administrée	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Mal administrée
1/68	Progressive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Stagnante
1/69	Discriminatoire	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Equitable
1/70	Consciente de son environnement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Indifférente à son environnement
1/71	Créative	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Non-créative

1/72 Pourriez-vous indiquer le nom de la ville où vous habitez habituellement?

SECTION IV

Veillez encercler le nombre qui vous décrit le mieux en vue d'une auto-évaluation.

GROS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mince
HONNÊTE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Malhonnête

Cette personne, s'estimant ni grosse ni mince, a choisi la dimension 5. Elle s'estimait plutôt honnête et elle a encerclé le nombre 3.

- |      |   |                   |  |
|------|---|-------------------|--|
| 1/73 | Perfectionniste                                 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Non perfectionniste                    |
| 1/74 | Fait confiance aux experts                      | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Sceptique à l'égard de l'autorité      |
| 1/75 | Préfère travailler avec les autres              | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Préfère travailler seule               |
| 1/76 | Non intéressée par les autres                   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Intéressée par les groupes             |
| 1/77 | L'argent est important                          | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | L'argent n'importe pas                 |
| 1/78 | Peu de respect pour l'autorité                  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Respect pour l'autorité                |
| 1/79 | Non compétitive                                 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Compétitive                            |
| 1/80 | Ne recherche pas l'excellence                   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Recherche l'excellence                 |
| 2/1  | Aime les responsabilités                        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Aime partager les responsabilités      |
| 2/2  | Non consciente des gains économiques            | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Très consciente des gains économiques  |
| 2/3  | Facile à vivre                                  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Aime la lutte avec les autres          |
| 2/4  | Rcherche l'approbation                          | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Indifférent à l'approbation des autres |
| 2/5  | Ne s'intéresse pas à la qualité                 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | La qualité prime                       |
| 2/6  | Préfère rester à l'écart                        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Aime surpasser les autres              |
| 2/7  | Non populaire                                   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Populaire                              |
| 2/8  | Favorise les systèmes de stimulation financière | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Préfère les accroissements de paie     |
| 2/9  | Aime la compagnie d'experts                     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Hait la compagnie d'experts            |
| 2/10 | Pense rarement à devenir riche                  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | La richesse mesure mon succès          |

SECTION V

A. Vous trouverez ci-dessous une liste de 18 valeurs.

**Première tâche:** numérotez les valeurs par ordre d'importance pour VOUS, en tant que principes qui guident VOTRE VIE: D'abord lisez avec soin et identifiez la valeur la plus importante pour vous; écrivez "1" dans la case correspondante, à la gauche de la liste des valeurs. Ensuite, prenez la deuxième valeur en ordre d'importance pour vous et écrivez "2" dans la case correspondante. Continuez ainsi avec les autres valeurs jusqu'à ce que le nombre "18" soit inscrit dans la case correspondante à la valeur la moins importante pour vous.

**Deuxième tâche:** maintenant que toutes les valeurs sont numérotées, nous aimerions que vous indiquiez le DEGRÉ d'importance de chacune de ces valeurs, en tant que principes qui guident votre vie: Prenez la valeur à laquelle vous avez donné le numéro "1" et indiquez son degré d'importance pour vous en traçant un cercle autour d'un nombre de l'échelle figurant à droite de la liste.

Plus la valeur est importante pour vous, plus le nombre encerclé doit être élevé. Pour vous aider, la signification de quelques-uns de ces nombres a été indiquée en haut de l'échelle. Procédez de la même façon avec la valeur à laquelle vous avez donné le numéro "2". Continuez ainsi jusqu'à ce que toutes les valeurs aient été évaluées.

		Extrêmement Important	Très Important	Moderément Important	Légèrement Important	Sans aucune Importance					
2/11-12	UNE VIE AISE (une vie prospère)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/47
2/13-14	UNE VIE PASSIONNANTE (une vie stimulante, active)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/48
2/15-16	UN SENTIMENT D'ACCOMPLISSEMENT (contribution permanente)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/49
2/17-18	UN MONDE EN PAIX (sans guerre ni conflit)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/50
2/19-20	UN MONDE DE BEAUTE (beauté dans la nature et dans les arts)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/51
2/21-22	L'EGALITE (fraternité, opportunités égales pour tous)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/52
2/23-24	LA SECURITE FAMILIALE (prendre soin des êtres chers)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/53
2/25-26	LA LIBERTE (indépendance, libre choix)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/54
2/27-28	LE BONHEUR (contentement)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/55
2/29-30	L'HARMONIE INTERNE (sans conflit interne)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/56
2/31-32	UN AMOUR MUR (intimité sexuelle et spirituelle)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/57
2/33-34	LA SECURITE NATIONALE (protection contre des attaques)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/58
2/35-36	LE PLAISIR (une vie de loisirs, de jouissances)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/59
2/37-38	LE SALUT (sauvé, vie éternelle)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/60
2/39-40	LE RESPECT DE SOI-MEME (estime de soi)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/61
2/41-42	LA CONSIDERATION SOCIALE (respect, admiration)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/62
2/43-44	UNE AMITIE VERITABLE (des amis intimes)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/63
2/45-46	LA SAGESSE (une saine compréhension de la vie)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/64

B. Vous trouverez ci-dessous une liste de 18 valeurs.

Première tâche: numérotez les valeurs par ordre d'importance pour VOUS, en tant que principes qui guident VOTRE VIE: D'abord lisez avec soin et identifiez la valeur la plus importante pour vous; écrivez "1" dans la case correspondante, à la gauche de la liste des valeurs. — Ensuite, prenez la deuxième valeur en ordre d'importance pour vous et écrivez "2" dans la case correspondante. Continuez ainsi avec les autres valeurs jusqu'à ce que le nombre "18" soit inscrit dans la case correspondante à la valeur la moins importante pour vous.

Deuxième tâche: maintenant que toutes les valeurs sont numérotées, nous aimerions que vous indiquiez le DEGRÉ d'importance de chacune de ces valeurs, en tant que principes qui guident votre vie: Prenez la valeur à laquelle vous avez donné le numéro "1" et indiquez son degré d'importance pour vous en traçant un cercle autour d'un nombre de l'échelle figurant à droite de la liste.

Plus la valeur est importante pour vous, plus le nombre encerclé doit être élevé. Pour vous aider, la signification de quelques-uns de ces nombres a été indiquée en haut de l'échelle. Procédez de la même façon avec la valeur à laquelle vous avez donné le numéro "2". Continuez ainsi jusqu'à ce que toutes les valeurs aient été évaluées.

		Extrêmement Important	Très Important	Modérément Important	Légerement Important	Sans aucune Importance					
2/65-66	AMBITIEUX (qui travaille fort, qui a des aspirations élevées)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/21
2/67-68	LARGE D'ESPRIT (à l'esprit ouvert)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/22
2/69-70	COMPÉTENT (capable, efficace)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/23
2/71-72	GAI (au cœur léger, joyeux)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/24
2/73-74	PROPRE (soigné, bien tenu)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/25
2/75-76	COURAGEUX (qui défend ses croyances)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/26
2/77-78	CLÉMENT (disposé à pardonner aux autres)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/27
2/79-80	SERVIALE (qui agit pour le bien-être des autres)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/28
3/1-2	HONNÊTE (sincère, véridique)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/29
3/3-4	IMAGINATIF (audacieux, créatif)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/30
3/5-6	INDÉPENDANT (qui se fie à lui-même, qui se suffit à lui-même)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/31
3/7-8	INTELLECTUEL (intelligent, qui réfléchit)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/32
3/9-10	LOGIQUE (rationnel, consistant)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/33
3/11-12	AIMANT (affectueux, tendre)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/34
3/13-14	OBEISSANT (soumis, respectueux)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/35
3/15-16	POLI (courtois, qui a de bonnes manières)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/36
3/17-18	LA SAGESSE (une saine compréhension de la vie)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/37
3/19-20	MAÎTRE DE SOI (qui se contrôle, qui se discipline)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	2/38

Avez-vous aimé le questionnaire jusqu'à maintenant?

2/39 Oui  Non  Je ne sais pas

2/40 Pourquoi? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

SECTION VI

Cette section est construite de façon à dégager la valeur des concepts concernant l'entreprise appartenant au gouvernement. Encercler, s'il vous plaît, le chiffre approprié indiquant le mieux votre évaluation de l'entreprise.

Exemple: "En général, l'entreprise est":

BONNE 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 MAUVAISE

- 1 Indique que l'entreprise est bonne
- 5 Indique que l'entreprise est moyenne
- 9 Indique que l'entreprise est mauvaise

En général, l'entreprise est:

- |      |                                 |                   |                                  |
|------|---------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| 2/41 | Relève le défi                  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Ennuyante                        |
| 2/42 | Honnête                         | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Malhonnête                       |
| 2/43 | Consciente de la pollution      | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Indifférente à la pollution      |
| 2/44 | Motivatrice                     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Sans motivation                  |
| 2/45 | Orientée vers le consommateur   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Orientée vers le produit         |
| 2/46 | Contrôle la société             | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Est contrôlée par la société     |
| 2/47 | Flexible                        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Inflexible                       |
| 2/48 | Juste                           | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Injuste                          |
| 2/49 | Met l'emphase sur l'ancienneté  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Met l'emphase sur la performance |
| 2/50 | Influencée par la politique     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Influence la politique           |
| 2/51 | Humaine                         | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Inhumaine                        |
| 2/52 | Orientée vers le profit         | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Orientée vers l'employé          |
| 2/53 | Impressionnable                 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Stricte                          |
| 2/54 | Bien administrée                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Mal administrée                  |
| 2/55 | Progressive                     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Stagnante                        |
| 2/56 | Discriminatoire                 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Equitable                        |
| 2/57 | Consciente de son environnement | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Indifférente à son environnement |
| 2/58 | Créative                        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Non-créative                     |

Merci beaucoup pour avoir pris le temps de répondre à ce questionnaire. Votre coopération est pleinement appréciée.

**APPENDIX D**  
**SINHALESE SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

ප්‍රධාන විශ්වවිද්‍යාලය  
 ප්‍රධාන සේවාරිය  
 කැනඩාව

ශ්‍රී ලංකා ශිෂ්‍යයන්ගේ හැසිරීම් (සායනකය) හා ධුර්වතා

හිතවත් ශිෂ්‍යයා:

පහත පදනම ප්‍රශ්නාවලිය (questionnaire) මගින් මූලික වශයෙන් උත්සාහ කරන ලබන්නේ ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ වර්තමාන ව්‍යාපාරික කටයුතු පිළිබඳ ඔබගේ සාමාන්‍ය දැනුම සහ හැසිරීම් දැනගැනීමටය.

තරුණතර මෙම ප්‍රශ්නාවලිය සැලකිලිමත්ව පිළිතුරු සපයන්න.

බොහෝම ජයවිඳි;

I වන කොටස

- (1) ඔබ දැනට ඉගෙන ගනු ලබන විශ්වවිද්‍යාලය තුළින් ද? : .....
- (2) ඔබ ඉගෙනගනු ලබන්නේ කී වෙනි වර්ෂයේ ද?  

<u>උසස් අධ්‍යාපන</u>	පළමු අවුරුද්ද	<input type="checkbox"/>	දෙවන අවුරුද්ද	<input type="checkbox"/>	තුන්වන අවුරුද්ද	<input type="checkbox"/>
වෙනත්: .....						
<u>පන්වෘත් උසස්:</u>	පළමුවන	<input type="checkbox"/>	දෙවන	<input type="checkbox"/>	වෙනත්	<input type="checkbox"/>
- (3) ඔබගේ වයස ? අවුරුදු : .....

ජීවි පුරුප්පාචය	පුරුප	<input type="checkbox"/>	ජීවි	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----------------	-------	--------------------------	------	--------------------------

- (4) ඔබ විශ්වවිද්‍යාලයට ඇති ප්‍රතිචාරය:  

ශ්‍රාමය	<input type="checkbox"/>	සාහසික	<input type="checkbox"/>
---------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------
- (5) ඔබ පුද්ගලික ශිෂ්‍යයෙක් ද?, අධ්‍යාපන ශිෂ්‍යයෙක් ද?  

පුද්ගලික ශිෂ්‍යයෙක්	<input type="checkbox"/>	අධ්‍යාපන ශිෂ්‍යයෙක්	<input type="checkbox"/>
---------------------	--------------------------	---------------------	--------------------------
- (6) ඔබගේ පියාගේ වෘත්තීය රැකියාව තුළින් ද?  

කළමනාකරණ	<input type="checkbox"/>
වෘත්තීය	<input type="checkbox"/>
ජන ව්‍යාපාරික	<input type="checkbox"/>
ශිල්පීය	<input type="checkbox"/>
වසානකරය	<input type="checkbox"/>

පුර ඉඩම් වැවිලිකරු.

සොවිතැන.

වෙනත්

(7) ඔබ තලිත් පිරිස රැකියාවක් හමු ද? නම් නම් දැනට පිරිස රැකියාවක් කරනවා ද?

ඔව්  නැත

(8) උසාවිය ලබාගැනීමෙන් පසුව ඔබ වැඩිදිරිමට සැලකීමේ පොද්ගලික අංශයේ ද?, රාජ්‍ය අංශයේ ද?

පොද්ගලික අංශය  රාජ්‍ය අංශය

දෙකෙහිම  දෙකෙහිම නොවේ

(9) ඔබ තවදුරටත් භාෂාව දැනීමේ ද? වෙනම වඩා වැඩි සහකාර සවිකරන්නේ නම් ඒ බව පැහැදිලි කරන්න.

ඉංග්‍රීසි  සිංහල  දෙවල

වෙනත් .....

(10) ඔබගේ විශේෂීකරණ විෂය ක්‍ෂේත්‍රය ද? .....

(11) උසාවිය ලබාගැනීමෙන් පසුව ඔබ විෂය ක්‍ෂේත්‍රයේ රැකියාවක් ලබාගැනීමට ඔබට ඇති අවස්ථාවන්:

බොහෝමය  සාමාන්‍යයම  නැත  සැබවින්ම

**II වන කොටස**

පළමුවෙනි කොටසට පිළිතුරු ඇසීමට පිලිබඳව ඔබට එතුමිවන්න වෙයි. දැන් පහත දැක්වෙන ප්‍රශ්නවලට පිළිතුරු සපයන්න. සමහරක් පක්ෂ තරමක් පොද්ගලික බව ඔබට චිත්තු යනු ඇත. එහෙත් ඒ භෑන තලබල කොටන්න. ඔබගේ පිළිතුරුවල රහස්‍ය බව ඇති ලෙස ආරක්ෂා කරනු ඇත.

(1) උසාවිය ලබාගත් අනතුරුව පිරිසවම රැකියාවක් ලබාගැනීමට ඔබට හැකි ද?

ඔව්  නැත

(2) පිරිස රැකියාවක් ලබාගැනීමට සෑහෙන ඔබ පිසියම් උපයාගැනීමේ හොඳ කිසිවක් ද?

ඔව්  නැත

(3) එබඳේ අදහස අනුව, රැකියා වෙළඳාම වැඩිපුරම ඇති පවතින වර්ගය  
 කුමක් ද?

කුඩා  . මධ්‍යම  විශාල  තොරතුරු

(4) එබඳේ රැකියාව එහිම එබේ බලාපොරොත්තුවන පරිදිවල ලැබියදුමක් පහත  
 දක්වේ. මේ වන්නේ වන්නේ වැදගත්ම පිළිවෙළ අනුව දෙය යොදන්න.

- (7) ඉපයීමේ වැදගත්ම.
- (6) ඉතා වැදගත්ම.
- (5) තරමක් වැදගත්ම.
- (4) සුදානම් වැදගත්ම නැත.
- (3) ස්වල්ප වැදගත්ම පමණක් පමණය.
- (2) වැදගත්ම නොවන නැත.
- (1) උපකල්පිත නැත.

රැකියාවේ පැවැත්ම  පුරුද්දකට  උපයවීම   
 වෙනම  රැකියා පරිසරය  රැකියා පළපුරුද්ද   
 පවත්වාගෙන යාම  රැකියාවේ පිළිගැනීම

(5) ඇති ඉහත ඇත්වන රැකියා ලාභය එබේ වටිනාකම වැදගත්ම අනුව පෙළට  
 පවත්නා, එබේ ඉපයීමේ වැදගත්ම ලාභය (1) වශයෙන් දැක්වීම. එබේ  
 අඩුම වැදගත්ම ඇති රැකියා ලාභය (2) වශයෙන් දැක්වීම.

රැකියාවේ පැවැත්ම	.....
වෙනම පහ වෙන් පුරුද්දකට	.....
පුරුද්දකට වැඩිපුරම	.....
පුරුද්දකට	.....
රැකියා පරිසරය	.....
උපයවීම	.....
රැකියා පළපුරුද්ද	.....
රැකියාවේ පිළිගැනීම	.....

(6) ඇති ඉහත ඇත්වන තොරතුරු ලද තුළින් එබේ වැදගත් වෙන් ලාභය පහත  
 ඇත්වන පරිදි.  
 .....  
 .....

(7) පහත ඇත්වන්නේ හොඳමට හෝ පොදු විශ්වාසයට වැඩිපුරම විශ්වාසය  
 උප ලාභය විශ්වාසයට හෝ උප ලාභයට විශ්වාසය වැදගත්ම ඇත්වන  
 පරිදි. මේ උප ලාභයට විශ්වාසය පිළිබඳව එබේ ඇත්වන වැදගත්ම තොරතුරු  
 විස්තරව දෙය ලියන්න.

- (7) ඉතාමත්ම වැදගත්ය.
- (6) ඉතා වැදගත්ය.
- (5) තරමක් වැදගත්ය.
- (4) ප්‍රධානම වැදගත් කැම.
- (3) ඒවල්ල වැදගත්කමින් යුත්තය.
- (2) වැදගත්කමින් තොරවම කැම.
- (1) උනන්දුවක් නැත.

එකඟතාවය / තව්තාවය වරුන්ගේ පර්යේෂණ ප්‍රතිඵලය.   
 එකඟතාවය / තව්තාවය වරුන්ගේ ඉගැන්වීමේ හැකියාව.   
 උසාවි අදහස්වන්නේ පමාපිටිවීමට හෝ විකේන්ද්‍රීකරණය වීමට.   
 අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා දරන වියදම.   
 උසාවියේ පිළිගැනීම.   
 හැකි සාධක / හැකි පහසුකම්වලට දරන අවධානය.   
 පරිගණක යන්ත්‍ර, පාඨක විශ්ලේෂණ යන්ත්‍රයන් භාවිතයට දරන අවධානය.   
 (8) දැන් මේ විකේන්ද්‍රීකරණ උප ලාභය සිබව දැනී වැදගත්කමක්ව පෙනේ නම්.

එකඟතාවය / තව්තාවය වරුන්ගේ පර්යේෂණ ප්‍රතිඵලය.   
 එකඟතාවය / තව්තාවය වරුන්ගේ ඉගැන්වීමේ හැකියාව.   
 උසාවි අදහස්වන්නේ පමාපිටිවීමට හෝ විකේන්ද්‍රීකරණය වීමට.   
 අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා දරන වියදම.   
 උසාවියේ පිළිගැනීම.   
 හැකි සාධක / හැකි පහසුකම්වලට දරන අවධානය.   
 පරිගණක යන්ත්‍ර, පාඨක විශ්ලේෂණ යන්ත්‍රයන් භාවිතයට දරන අවධානය.   
 (9) දැන් ඉහත සඳහන් තොරතුරු ලද තුළින් සිබව වැදගත්කමක් වෙතත් උප ලාභය පහත සඳහන් කරන්න.   
 .....  
 .....

III වන කොටස

වෙම කොටස පසුව කර විකේතනය වර්ගගත පොදුකලීන ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය පිළිබඳ එබඟේ අදහස් ඇතැම්වල් රෙගුලාසි සංස්කරණය, ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය පිළිබඳව වඩාත් අදහස් දැක්වීමට උචිත අංශය වටා රවුලින් අඳින්න.

විද්‍යාපිටි.

උදාහරණය; පොදුවේ පොදුකලීන ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය.  
 කොඳය | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 කරනය

- 1. ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය කොඳයයි එබ් යැකන්න කරයි.
- 4. ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය සාමාන්‍ය යයි එබ් යැකන්න කරයි.
- 9. ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය තරණ යයි එබ් යැකන්න කරයි.

	පොදුවේ ව්‍යාපාරික අංශය									
අභියෝගීය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	උපකේතන කැප.
අවකාශ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විකාශ.
පරිසරය රහිතයි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසරය කොටසයි.
පෙළඹවීම් පහිතය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පෙළඹවීම් පහිත කැප.
පාරිභෝජන ආදායම් වැළැක්වීමේ පනත	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විස්ථාපනය වැළැක්වීමේ පනත.
සමාජය සාලකය කරයි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	සමාජය විධිමත් සාලකය කරනු ලබයි.
නැවතුණ පුරය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කොන්සල් පුරය.
සාමාජිකය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අසාමාජිකය
ප්‍රේමානුකූලය පනතයි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පාර්ශ්ව අරමුණ පනතයි.
දේශසාලකය බලපා හිමි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	දේශසාලකයට බලපා හිමි.
මානුෂිකය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අමානුෂිකය
ලාභය වෙත නැඹුරුව ඇත.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වේදිකයක් වෙත නැඹුරුව ඇත.
ප්‍රතිචාර දක්වයි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	ප්‍රතිචාර කොටසයි.
කළමනාකරණය අසාමාන්‍ය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කළමනාකරණය අසාමාන්‍ය.
ප්‍රතිකර්මය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	ව්‍යාපාරික
වෙනස්කම් කොට පනතයි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වෙනස්කම් කොට කොටසයි.
සමාජීය පුනරුත්ථි ඉටුකරයි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	සමාජීය පුනරුත්ථි ඉටු කොටසයි.
විවිධාකාරීතාව පවත්වා ගනී.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විවිධාකාරීතාව පවත්වා ගනී කොටසයි.

තරණකර එබේ ගමන/පැනක් කෙරේ.

IV වන කොටස

එබ්ව ඉතාමත්ම කොටස් විස්තර කෙරෙන තත්වයට ඉතාමත්ම ආසන්න සංඛ්‍යාව වටා රවුලින් ඇඳ පහත දැක්වෙන පරිදිවිකාශය එක එකකේම ඇඳීමෙන් කරන්න.

උදාහරණ :

ව්‍යාජ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	සිසිප්
අවසාන	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වසා

මේ ප්‍රදේශයේ පවා ව්‍යාජ වෙළුම් සිසිප් ද කොටස බව හැකි බව පරීක්ෂණය මගින් අප (5) වටුම් කරමි. එහි පරමන් අවසාන ප්‍රදේශයෙහි බව හැකි බව පවා මගින් අප (3) වටුම් කරමි.

පරිපූර්ණත්වය පලකපි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිපූර්ණත්වය කොපලකපි
විශේෂයෙන් මුද්‍රණ කරමි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අධිකාරිත්වය පැන කරමි.
අන් අය පමණ වැඩ සිටීමට තැරැණිය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	තනියම වැඩ සිටීමට තැරැණිය.
තනියම පිටීමට තැරැණිය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	තනියම පිටීමට තැරැණිය
ප්‍රදේශවලට ඇතුළු කරමි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	ප්‍රදේශවලට කොපෙන්නම් ඇතුළු කොපෙන්නම්.
අධිකාරිත්වයට වතරම් ගරාපරා කොපෙන්නම්.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අධිකාරිත්වයට ගරාපරා කොපෙන්නම්.
තරණ කාරිය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කපකපාටි කැප.
විශේෂයෙන් කොපලකපි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විශේෂයෙන් කොපලකපි
ප්‍රධානියාවීමට තැරැණිය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වතරම් පාලනවලට තැරැණිය.
කාර්යය වැඩිවීමට පිත් කොපෙන්නම් යොමු කොපෙන්නම්	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කාර්යය වැඩිවීමට පිත් කොපෙන්නම් යොමු කරමි.
විවිධය පැහැදිලිව පලකපි.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අනෙක් අය පමණ තරණ වර්ගව වැරදි වුවහොත් කැප.
වසාකපිත්වයට පැවරෙයි	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අනෙක් අය පමණ වසාකපිත්වයට පැවරෙයි පහතපය.
අන් වැරදි උපය් කොට කොපෙන්නම්.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අන් උපය් කොට පලකපි.
පලකපිව වී සිටීමට තැරැණිය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	අනෙක් අයට වඩා තැරැණියෙන් සිටීමට තැරැණිය
ජනප්‍රියවීමට තැරැණිය කැප.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	ජනප්‍රියවීමට තැරැණිය.
අනෙක් දිව්‍යා කපකපිව තැරැණිය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පැහැදිලිව වැඩසිටීමට තැරැණිය.
විශේෂයෙන් කොපෙන්නම් පැහැදිලිව තැරැණිය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විශේෂයෙන් කොපෙන්නම් පැහැදිලිව තැරැණිය.
වසාකපිව සිටීමට අනෙක් කැප.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වසාකපිව සිටීමට අනෙක් කැප.

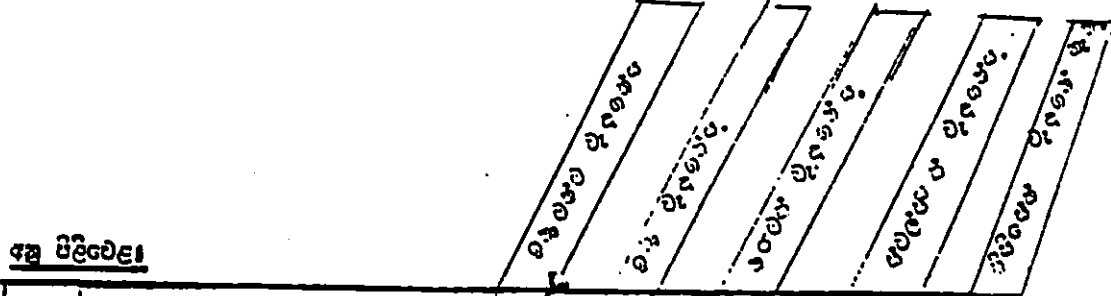
V වැනි කොටස

A. පිහිටි පිටියෙන් අවසාන වටිනාකමට ලැබියදු වන්න පහත දැක්වේ. එබැවින් විවිධයට එක පෙත්වන පිලිබදිනේ වගයෙන් එක් එක් වටිනාකම සිබව කොපෙන්නම් වැනකන් යයි දැන ගැනීමට අප තැරැණිය. පළමුව වටිනාකම කප අව සිබව වැනකන්වන පිලිබදින ලැබියදු වේ වම් පත්තේ පෙහෙක පිරුවේ පැහැත් කරන්න. ඉතාමත් වැනකන් වටිනාකම | වගයෙන් පෙළ ගැස්විය යුතුය.



B. පහත දැක්වෙන්නේ උපකාරණාත්මක වටිනාකම් (instrumental values) 18 යි. එබැවින් පිටිතයට එක පෙත්වන මුලධර්මයන් වශයෙන් එක් එක් වටිනාකම තෝරාගත වැදගත් ද යන්න පැහැදිලි කරන ලෙස අපි එබැවින් ඉල්ලමු. පැහැදිලිව වටිනාකම් ලැයිස්තුවේ වටිනාකමක් දැක්වෙන තීරුවෙහි නිවැරදි වැදගත්කම ඇති වටිනාකම් පෙළට ලියන්න. ඉතාමත්ම වැදගත් වටිනාකම 1 හැටියට ද දෙවන වැදගත් වටිනාකම 2 යනාදී වශයෙනි. අමුතර වැදගත් කමින් යුත් වටිනාකම 18 වශයෙන් පැහැදිලි කරන්න.

දෙවනුව වටිනාකම් ලැයිස්තුවේ අතුරු පැත්තෙහි දැක්වෙන පරිමාණයෙහි අගයන් වටා රටුවක් ඇඳීමෙන් එක් එක් වටිනාකම පිළිබඳව තෝරාගත වැදගත් ද යන්න පැහැදිලි කරන්න. අවසාන අගය විශාල වනස් වූ තරුවට එම වටිනාකම පිළිබඳව ඉතා වැදගත්ය. පිළිබඳ උපකාරණාත්මක පරිමාණයේ උච්චතම අගය පැහැදිලි කරන්න. පිළිබඳ වටිනාකම් අගය කරන තුරු වෙස කරන්න.



අනු පිටුවෙහි

	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
අනාවරණ බහුලය (එකතුවේ වැඩි කරය, උපායවිධි බලපෑමයෙන්ද යන)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
සුළු මානව දැන. (විවිධ මානව දැන.)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
භෞතිකවත් සාමාන්‍ය (භෞතිකවත් වලංගු වීම)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
සමතුල්විච්ඡේද (සමතුල්විච්ඡේදය, ප්‍රතිවිච්ඡේදය)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
පිටිපිළිය (පවිත්‍රය, ප්‍රතිපිළිය)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස්වීම (වෙනස්වීමේ විශ්වාසයන්වලට විරුද්ධව පවතී)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස් වැඩි. (වෙනස් අගයන් වැරදි අවබෝධයන්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
උපකාර වෙස (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත් පැහැදිලි වැඩි කරයි.)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
අවිච්ඡේද (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
පිටිපිළිය (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස් වැඩි. (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
සමතුල්විච්ඡේද (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස් වැඩි. (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස් වැඩි. (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වෙනස් වැඩි. (වෙනස් අගයන් භෞතිකවත්)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

සිතරාය (සූතුව ඉවුනරයි, හරාපරායන්වයි)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
ආචාරශීලිය (ශීලාචාරය, ව්‍යාජචාරයන්වයි)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
වගුණි පසුතය (රජාපැවැත්ම හැසිය, විශ්වාසනීය හැසිය)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
ජවදා සාලිය (විශ්වාසී සහනය, ජවයා විනය පසුතය)	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

**VI වන කොටස**

මෙහි කොටස සාපේකෂව වර්තමාන රාජ්‍ය කොටස ව්‍යාපාර පිළිබඳව  
මෙහි දැක්වූ දැක්වීම් අරමුණින් කෙරේ. රාජ්‍ය කොටස පිළිබඳව මෙහි දැක්වූ  
උචිත දාය වලට රටින් දැක්වේ.

**ජනප්‍රිය.**

කොටස: කොටසේ රාජ්‍ය ව්‍යාපාර කොටස

කොටස 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 නරකය

1. ව්‍යාපාර කොටස කොටසේ මෙහි සැකසී තිබේ.
4. ව්‍යාපාර කොටස සාමාන්‍ය යයි මෙහි සැකසී තිබේ.
9. ව්‍යාපාර කොටස නරක යයි මෙහි සැකසී තිබේ.

**කොටසේ රාජ්‍ය ව්‍යාපාර කොටස**

අභියෝගීය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	උපද්‍රව කලා.
අවකාශ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විකාශ.
පරිසරය රටේ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසරය කොටසයි.
පෙළඹවීම් පසුතය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පෙළඹවීම් පසුතය.
සාමාන්‍යය වැඩකර තොට පසුතය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විශ්වාසීය වැඩකර තොට පසුතය.
පරිසරය සාලිය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසරය විශ්වාසීය සාලිය පසුතය.
කොටස පුවය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කොටස පුවය.
සාමාන්‍යය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	දැක්වූ රජය.
පරිසරය පසුතය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසරය පසුතය.
දේශපාලනය බලකා පසුතය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	දේශපාලනය බලකා පසුතය.
විකාශය	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විකාශය.
කොටස වෙත කැඳවීම කලා.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	කොටස වෙත කැඳවීම කලා.
පරිසර දැක්වීම්.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසර දැක්වීම්.
පළමුකාරකය කොටස	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පළමුකාරකය කොටස.
පසුතය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පසුතය.
වෙතකරම් කොටස පසුතය	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	වෙතකරම් කොටස පසුතය.	
පරිසරය සූතුව ඉවු නරකය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	පරිසරය සූතුව ඉවු නරකය.
විකාශය වෙත කැඳවීම නරකය.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	විකාශය වෙත කැඳවීම නරකය.

එබ් මෙම ප්‍රශ්නාවලියට කැමති ද?

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සේඟු:- .....  
.....

සැලකිලි.

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විමල/සීටී,

1982/05/24.

පළමුකාරණ අධ්‍යයන හා වෘත්තීය විධායක විද්‍යාලය,

ශ්‍රී ජයවර්ධනපුර විශ්වවිද්‍යාලය,

බුද්ධිමයා ව,

**APPENDIX E**

**GROUPING OF BUSINESS PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS**

TABLE E-1

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES

FACTORS

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three	Factor Four	Communality
Challenging/Dull	0.7003				0.5203
Honest/Dishonest		0.6918			0.4855
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious		0.6645			0.4653
Motivating/ Demotivating	0.7452				0.5678
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented	0.4478				0.2874
Controls Society/ Society Controlled				0.8357	0.7377
Flexible/Inflexible	0.6636				0.4740
Fair/Unfair		0.6534			0.5022
Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious			0.6635		0.6252
Politically Influenced /Influences Politics			0.7712		0.6557
Human/Inhuman		0.5860			0.5009
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented		-0.4041			0.4552
Responsive/ Unresponsive	0.6303				0.4530
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed	0.5645				0.5187
Progressive/ Stagnant	0.7205				0.5697
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory		-0.4509			0.3300
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible		0.6597			0.5005
Creative/ Not Creative	0.7309				0.5663
<b>Variance Explained</b>	<b>21.4%</b>	<b>15.5%</b>	<b>8.0%</b>	<b>6.4%</b>	<b>51.2%</b>

TABLE E-2

**FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES**

**FACTORS**

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three	Factor Four	Factor Five	Communality
Challenging/Dull				0.4058		0.2806
Honest/Dishonest	0.6814					0.5217
Pollution Conscious/ Not Poll. Conscious	0.6621					0.4921
Motivating/ Demotivating				0.5054		0.4821
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented				0.4471		0.4451
Controls Society/ Society Controlled			0.6477			0.5668
Flexible/Inflexible				0.7615		0.5930
Fair/Unfair	0.7590					0.6064
Seniority Conscious/ Perf. Conscious		-0.4714				0.2906
Politically Influenced /Influences Politics					0.8002	0.6894
Human/Inhuman	0.7418					0.5777
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented			0.5685			0.4028
Responsive/ Unresponsive			0.5157			0.3974
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed		0.6684				0.6337
Progressive/ Stagnant		0.5398				0.4153
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory					0.4605	0.5372
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible	0.7024					0.5011
Creative/ Not Creative		0.6619				0.4974
<b>Variance Explained</b>	<b>16.4%</b>	<b>10.2%</b>	<b>8.6%</b>	<b>8.1%</b>	<b>6.4%</b>	<b>49.6%</b>

TABLE E-3

**FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES**

**FACTORS**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>Factor One</b>	<b>Factor Two</b>	<b>Factor Three</b>	<b>Communality</b>
<b>Challenging/Dull</b>	0.7614			0.5904
<b>Honest/Dishonest</b>		0.6081		0.4622
<b>Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious Conscious</b>		0.7073		0.5206
<b>Motivating/ Demotivating</b>	0.8146			0.6811
<b>Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented</b>		0.5160		0.3272
<b>Controls Society/ Society Controlled</b>			0.6169	0.4200
<b>Flexible/Inflexible</b>	0.7279			0.5695
<b>Fair/Unfair</b>		0.6212		0.5624
<b>Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious</b>	-0.5659			0.5116
<b>Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics</b>			0.5520	0.5187
<b>Human/Inhuman</b>		0.6353		0.4336
<b>Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented</b>	0.5602			0.5055
<b>Responsive/ Unresponsive</b>	0.6508			0.5404
<b>Well Managed/ Poorly Managed</b>	0.8075			0.6684
<b>Progressive/ Stagnant</b>	0.8306			0.7090
<b>Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory</b>		-0.3940		0.3510
<b>Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible</b>		0.6286		0.4029
<b>Creative/ Not Creative</b>	0.8202			0.6765
<b>Variance Explained</b>	<b>29.0%</b>	<b>16.8%</b>	<b>6.7%</b>	<b>52.5%</b>

TABLE E-4

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SRI LANKAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES

FACTORS

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three	Factor Four	Factor Five	Communality
Challenging/Dull		0.5262				0.4848
Honest/Dishonest	0.7096					0.6120
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious	0.7709					0.6188
Motivating/ Demotivating		0.5918				0.4726
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented	0.5548					0.4838
Controls Society/ Society Controlled					0.7465	0.5878
Flexible/Inflexible				0.8467		0.7426
Fair/Unfair	0.7539					0.6672
Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious			0.5943			0.5266
Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics			0.7225			0.5579
Human/Inhuman	0.6085					0.6207
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented		0.4609				0.5552
Responsive/ Unresponsive		0.6271				0.4613
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed		0.7729				0.6314
Progressive/ Stagnant		0.6503				0.5441
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory					0.5694	0.4520
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible	0.5988					0.5562
Creative/ Not Creative		0.6971				0.5337
<b>Variance Explained</b>	<b>17.8%</b>	<b>17.5%</b>	<b>8.1%</b>	<b>6.6%</b>	<b>6.2%</b>	<b>56.2%</b>

TABLE E-5

GROUPING OF MANAGEMENT JUDGEMENT ITEMS  
PERCEPTIONS OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE

MANAGEMENT JUDGEMENT ITEMS

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	Economic	Legal	Ethical	Social
Challenging/Dull	1.37	1.11	1.12	1.66*
Honest/Dishonest	1.09	1.62	1.95*	1.24
Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious	1.46	1.57	1.63	1.75
Motivating/ Demotivating	1.49	1.03	1.15	1.75*
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented	1.91*	1.04	1.11	1.51
Controls Society/ Society Controlled	1.22	1.46	1.38	1.71*
Flexible/Inflexible	1.59*	1.28	1.15	1.47
Fair/Unfair	1.15	1.49	1.83*	1.42
Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious	1.62*	1.16	1.42	1.43
Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics	1.38	1.47	1.43	1.53
Human/Inhuman	1.08	1.24	1.72	1.75
Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented	1.86*	1.07	1.24	1.57
Responsive/ Unresponsive	1.43	1.12	1.17	1.80*
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed	1.82*	1.11	1.15	1.32
Progressive/ Stagnant	1.86*	1.08	1.05	1.37
Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory	1.11	1.70	1.71*	1.57
Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible	1.24	1.29	1.60	1.88*
Creative/ Not Creative	1.65*	1.04	1.10	1.57
<b>Total</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>8</b>

NOTE: Responses for each group by each item were coded 1 for 'No' and 2 for 'Yes'. Numbers marked \* indicate highest mean value for that dimension.

**APPENDIX F**

**ENGLISH AND FRENCH CANADIAN DIFFERENCES**

TABLE F-1

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
ON JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS

RATED MEAN SCORES

JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS	English Canadian	French Canadian	Difference Between Means
Job Interest	6.37	6.55	
Job Security	5.39	5.48	
Promotability	5.77	5.53	
Salary	5.47	5.40	
Job Environment	5.55	6.20	(0.65)**
Job Experience	5.10	5.18	
Training Programs	5.12	5.35	
Job Prestige	4.64	4.43	
Number of significant differences			1

RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

JOB FACTOR MOTIVATIONS	English Canadian	French Canadian	Chi Square
Job Interest	2.06	1.90	
Job Security	4.39	4.98	
Promotability	4.05	4.63	
Salary	3.69	3.88	
Job Environment	4.44	3.33	14.92**
Job Experience	5.40	5.23	
Training Programs	5.46	5.23	
Job Prestige	6.41	6.85	4.95*
Number of significant differences			2

NOTE: Job factors rated 1 to 7 where 7 is extremely important and 1 is not important at all. Rank-ordered factors vary between 1 for most important and 8 for least important. Negative numbers in parentheses. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-2

**COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES ON  
ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE MEASURES**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>English Canadian</b>	<b>French Canadian</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Challenging/Dull</b>	2.49	3.10	(0.61)**
<b>Motivating/Demotivating</b>	3.07	3.56	(0.49)*
<b>Consumer Oriented/Product Oriented</b>	3.89	3.82	
<b>Flexible/Inflexible</b>	4.03	4.50	(0.47)*
<b>Seniority Conscious/Performance Conscious</b>	5.16	5.08	
<b>Responsive/Unresponsive</b>	3.85	5.08	(1.23)**
<b>Well Managed/Poorly Managed</b>	4.12	4.43	
<b>Progressive/Stagnant</b>	3.50	3.88	
<b>Creative/Not Creative</b>	3.57	3.70	
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>4</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the French Canadian score is higher. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-3

**COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES ON  
SOCIAL PERFORMANCE MEASURES**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>English Canadian</b>	<b>French Canadian</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Honest/Dishonest</b>	<b>4.74</b>	<b>4.03</b>	<b>0.71**</b>
<b>Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious</b>	<b>5.57</b>	<b>5.75</b>	
<b>Controls Society/ Society Controlled</b>	<b>4.53</b>	<b>4.54</b>	
<b>Fair/Unfair</b>	<b>4.48</b>	<b>4.54</b>	
<b>Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics</b>	<b>4.42</b>	<b>4.00</b>	
<b>Human/Inhuman</b>	<b>4.27</b>	<b>4.15</b>	
<b>Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>2.90</b>	
<b>Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory</b>	<b>4.60</b>	<b>5.00</b>	
<b>Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible</b>	<b>4.71</b>	<b>5.20</b>	
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>1</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the French Canadian score is higher. Only significant differences are reported.

**\*\*p<0.01**

**\*p<0.05**

TABLE F-4

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES ON  
ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE MEASURES

## MEAN SCORES

PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS	English Canadian	French Canadian	Difference Between Means
Challenging/Dull	4.98	5.29	
Motivating/ Demotivating	5.29	5.47	
Consumer Oriented/ Product Oriented	4.16	4.13	
Flexible/Inflexible	5.68	5.90	
Seniority Conscious/ Performance Conscious	3.23	2.97	
Responsive/ Unresponsive	5.13	5.51	
Well Managed/ Poorly Managed	6.03	6.23	
Progressive/ Stagnant	5.70	5.63	
Creative/ Not Creative	5.76	5.58	
Number of significant differences			0

NOTE: Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the French Canadian score is higher. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-5

**COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT ENTERPRISES ON  
SOCIAL PERFORMANCE MEASURES**

**MEAN SCORES**

<b>PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>English Canadian</b>	<b>French Canadian</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Honest/Dishonest</b>	<b>4.88</b>	<b>4.66</b>	
<b>Pollution Conscious/ Not Pollution Conscious</b>	<b>4.35</b>	<b>4.66</b>	
<b>Controls Society/ Society Controlled</b>	<b>4.17</b>	<b>3.84</b>	
<b>Fair/Unfair</b>	<b>4.84</b>	<b>4.87</b>	
<b>Politically Influenced/ Influences Politics</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>3.42</b>	
<b>Human/Inhuman</b>	<b>4.45</b>	<b>4.37</b>	
<b>Profit Oriented/ Employee Oriented</b>	<b>5.12</b>	<b>5.18</b>	
<b>Discriminatory/ Nondiscriminatory</b>	<b>5.45</b>	<b>5.50</b>	
<b>Socially Responsible/ Socially Irresponsible</b>	<b>4.15</b>	<b>4.25</b>	
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>0</b>

**NOTE:** Perceptions rated 1 to 9 for each bipolar dimension. Negative numbers in parentheses indicate that the French Canadian score is higher. Only significant differences are reported.

**\*\*p<0.01**

**\*p<0.05**

**TABLE F-6**  
**COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'**  
**ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATIONS**

**RATED MEAN SCORES**

<b>ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATIONS</b>	<b>English Canadian</b>	<b>French Canadian</b>	<b>Difference Between Means</b>
<b>Excellence</b>	21.66	21.85	
<b>Acquisitiveness</b>	19.00	19.56	
<b>Status with Peers</b>	17.64	18.83	
<b>Competitiveness</b>	16.24	13.15	3.09**
<b>Status with Experts</b>	18.76	19.33	
<b>Independence</b>	16.47	15.71	
<b>Number of significant differences</b>			<b>1</b>

**NOTE:** Achievement motivations rated 3 to 27 where 3 is low and 27 is high. Negative numbers in parentheses. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-7

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
ON RANK-ORDERED TERMINAL VALUES

## RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

TERMINAL VALUES	English Canadian	French Canadian	Chi Square
Comfortable Life	7.10	7.85	
Exciting life	7.77	6.23	4.68*
Sense of Accomplishment	7.11	6.73	
World of Peace	10.90	11.58	
World of Beauty	13.53	13.88	
Equality	11.67	11.48	
Family Security	8.47	8.68	
Freedom	7.71	7.55	
Happiness	5.61	7.05	4.93*
Inner Harmony	9.13	7.68	
Mature Love	8.34	7.75	
National Security	14.03	15.28	4.99*
Pleasure	10.14	10.70	
Salvation	14.83	14.15	
Self-Respect	6.35	7.95	4.68*
Social Recognition	11.10	11.33	
True Friendship	6.98	6.08	
Wisdom	10.06	9.60	
Number of significant differences			4

NOTE: Values ranked 1 to 18 where 1 is most important and 18 is least important. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-8

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
ON RATED TERMINAL VALUES

## RATED MEAN SCORES

TERMINAL VALUES	English Canadian	French Canadian	Difference Between Means
Comfortable life	6.04	5.74	
Exciting life	5.83	6.26	
Sense of Accomplishment	6.22	6.18	
World of Peace	5.18	5.13	
World of Beauty	4.46	4.08	
Equality	4.99	4.82	
Family Security	6.10	5.90	
Freedom	6.44	6.45	
Happiness	6.86	6.58	
Inner Harmony	5.88	6.10	
Mature Love	6.07	6.08	
National Security	4.56	3.82	0.74*
Pleasure	5.64	5.28	
Salvation	3.64	3.39	
Self-Respect	6.72	6.15	0.57*
Social Recognition	5.15	4.67	
True Friendship	6.70	6.64	
Wisdom	5.77	5.74	
Number of significant differences			2

NOTE: Values rated 0 to 8 where 0 is not important at all and 8 is very important. Negative numbers in parentheses. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-9

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
ON RANK-ORDERED INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

## RANK-ORDERED MEAN SCORES

INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	English Canadian	French Canadian	Chi Square
Ambitious	6.90	6.80	
Broadminded	8.41	6.15	9.17**
Capable	7.69	6.64	
Cheerful	9.90	10.97	
Clean	12.03	9.33	14.26**
Courageous	10.54	10.28	
Forgiving	11.16	11.00	
Helpful	10.27	10.84	
Honest	5.71	5.18	
Imaginative	11.10	9.31	6.86**
Independent	7.88	10.33	10.86**
Intellectual	8.83	10.54	4.03*
Logical	9.68	8.62	
Loving	8.07	9.54	
Obedient	14.70	15.46	
Polite	10.85	10.49	
Responsible	6.49	11.00	18.62**
Self-Controlled	10.47	7.67	10.60**
Number of significant differences			7

NOTE: Values ranked 1 to 18 where 1 is most important and 18 is least important. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05

TABLE F-10

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH/FRENCH CANADIAN STUDENTS'  
ON RATED INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

## RATED MEAN SCORES

INSTRUMENTAL VALUES	English Canadian	French Canadian	Difference Between Means
Ambitious	6.22	6.41	
Broadminded	6.07	6.59	(0.52)*
Capable	6.35	6.46	
Cheerful	5.79	5.49	
Clean	5.32	5.80	
Courageous	5.58	5.49	
Forgiving	5.39	5.18	
Helpful	5.56	5.54	
Honest	6.80	7.05	
Imaginative	5.50	5.87	
Independent	6.18	5.56	0.62*
Intellectual	5.89	5.54	
Logical	5.80	6.23	
Loving	6.27	5.82	
Obedient	4.27	3.72	
Polite	5.64	5.56	
Responsible	6.75	5.28	1.47**
Self-Controlled	5.82	6.46	(0.64)**
Number of significant differences			4

NOTE: Values rated 0 to 8 where 0 is not important at all and 8 is very important. Negative numbers in parentheses. Only significant differences are reported.

\*\*p<0.01

\*p<0.05