Allied Academies
International Conference

New Orleans, Louisiana
April 7-10, 2004

Academy of Educational Leadership

PROCEEDINGS

Table of Contents

SUGGESTIONS FOR ON-LINE COURSE DEVELOPMENT: WHAT I WISH SOMEONE HAD TOLD ME

Thomas T. Amlie, State University of New York Institute of Technology
amliet@sunyit.edu

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to share some of the experience and insights I've gained through teaching accounting courses over the internet over the past six years. Although my on-line teaching experience is solely in the area of accounting, many if not all of the points which I raise here can be applied to most other asynchronous distance learning endeavors. The purpose of this paper is not to address empirically the questions of whether there is a significant difference in the learning outcomes of distance versus in-person instruction or whether distance learning programs are a viable alternative to the conventional classroom setting. These topics have been explored in a burgeoning body of literature over the past decade. Rather, this paper is intended to provide suggestions and encouragement to those faculty members who are faced with the task of designing and conducting a course on-line. Topics to be addressed include basic course structure issues, academic integrity concerns, evaluation of student work, and interactions with students.

ACCOUNTING MAJORS AND EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES: A BEGINNING

James W. Bovinet, Winona State University
jbovinet@winona.edu
Gloria McVay, Winona State University
gmcvay@winona.edu

ABSTRACT

Educators and accreditation organizations have recently been extolling the value of interdisciplinary education in business. Often, students work in a single-major vacuum and do not see the inevitable working relationships that are established within a company. Interdisciplinary experiential exercises are one way to show students what other majors "bring to the table" in terms of skill sets and complementary information.

One of the objectives of accounting educators is to supply job-ready accounting graduates who possess a skill set demanded by the profession. This objective is addressed by identifying core skills and by formulating strategies to develop well-equipped students. Subsequent to the 1989 Accounting Education Change Commission (AECC) report, accounting educators have been striving to address these changing needs within the accounting curriculum. At the same time, instructional technology has entered the educational arena, providing opportunities to enhance the undergraduate experience through a wider array of learning media.

The computer-based business simulation described in this paper incorporates a number of suggested learning strategies. This paper details the experiences gained when an accounting component was added to an interdisciplinary simulation that previously incorporated marketing, public relations, and advertising students. Some of the background material and results of the first ten years are provided (prior to adding the accounting component), but the focus is on the benefits realized when adding the accounting component in the eleventh year. The objective is to provide accounting instructors with a case study of an interdisciplinary teaching experience, to show how simulations and small group work might facilitate this process of integrating accounting into such an experience, and to provide an overview of a working model.

Overall, the use of technology and small group exercises within the classroom can be quite beneficial to both learning and positive attitudes among students. The simulation exercise detailed here was designed to incorporate a high use of technology and in such a way that small groups were the norm and used by all instructors within this interdisciplinary exercise. The accounting students formed "firms" composed of three students who were hired by the "companies" managed by small-group management teams composed of marketing students.

First, we discuss opportunities for integrating instructional technology into the learning experience while at the same time addressing the core competencies need for entrance into the

accounting profession. Next, the literature on small group learning is reviewed. Simulations and interdisciplinary teaching are then placed in a historical perspective and the advantages of using these pedagogical tools are developed. A model is described to illustrate the learning theory advanced in this experiment. The actual exercise is then described, along with the results of student surveys and a self-reported assessment of core competencies.

This paper also details the pedagogical theories underpinning such an endeavor. The advantages for the accounting majors are detailed. In addition, procedural issues are addressed allowing any accounting educator to devise a similar exercise.

DEVELOPING THE SUCCESSFUL BUSINESS FRESHMEN EXPERIENCE COURSE

Carl J. Case, St. Bonaventure University
ccase@sbu.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper describes a systems approach for designing and implementing the business student's Freshman Experience course. The approach is useful in providing a methodology for effectively selecting and implementing core components and assisting professionals in improving the quality of education. This paper describes the necessary inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback mechanisms. Moreover, examples of operationalized objectives are presented. A detailed description of how the model was utilized in developing and conducting a successful School of Business "Business and Beyond" class is presented.

INTERNATIONALIZING THE CURRICULUM: TALES FROM THE TRIP

Barbara Dalby, University of Mary Hardin-Baylor
bdalby@umhb.edu
James R King Jr., University of Mary Hardin-Baylor
jking@umhb.edu

ABSTRACT

It is almost impossible to read an article today that does not discuss the global nature of our economy and the growing need to develop the necessary skill sets for students to be successful in this changing world. While this is an important task and classroom instruction is a critical component of this instruction, this paper discusses the impact of international trips as a way to develop students' thinking about the world outside their own borders. This paper will discuss a 15-day trip taken by graduate and undergraduate business students from a small Baptist university in central Texas to study microenterprise development in Mexico. This paper covers the students' preparation for the trip, events of the trip, and the impact on their learning. Also, this paper will discuss several non-traditional aspects of the trip, including using Mexican students who wanted to practice their English as the translators and using Baptist missionaries as local connections in the regions. Finally, we discuss the power of this experiential learning experience as a valuable tool in enhancing the global mindset of our students.

DEVELOPING MANAGERIAL EXPERTISE IN MBAS

Carter L. Franklin, II, Our Lady of the Lake University

ABSTRACT

Developing the managerial expertise in MBA students is a principal objective of MBA programs. In the ideal, MBAs will graduate possessing significant managerial expertise along with subject matter knowledge sufficient to make them effective and productive managers. Measurement of managerial expertise is necessary to its effective development in MBA students. Presented here is a scheme for measuring the development of expertise in MBAs and a method of determining whether programmatic objectives (as set by faculty) are being met.

INTRODUCTION: PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

MBA programs exist to educate managers. Objectives of students and programs coincide on this point. Defining statements like the following are readily available.

> *"It is a professional degree - in that it is intended for those who work in business and management i.e., the intention of a program leading to an MBA is to prepare or further prepare individuals for responsible positions in business - usually managerial positions. (California State University),*

The prevalence of MBAs in senior management and the continuing recognized benefits of the degree attest to its enduring value. MBA programs do face continuing challenges and must continually evolve in anticipation of (or in response to) changing business and competitive conditions. What is taught and how it is taught is the focus of program evolution.

DEVELOPING EXPERTISE

MBA faculties are generally responsible for the design and content of programs, a responsibility that extends to performance evaluation and program revision. National subject matter accrediting agencies for business programs, i.e., The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP) require evaluation and revision as do regional accrediting agencies, e.g., Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS).

Broad program goals include subject matter mastery, management expertise, employability, short- and long-term career success and employer satisfaction. The importance of employability, success and satisfaction is undeniable, but they are influenced by many externalities that stand in the way of their use as an effective guide for program revision and improvement. As a matter of practical reality, the faculty perspective ultimately reduces to subject matter mastery - for which

reliable measures are available and which may justifiably be used as the basis for program revision. Here, objective measures of achievement such as the ETS Major Field Tests, (ETS) are available and results are presented in a fashion that facilitates curriculum revision.

Faculty also recognize the importance of developing (or developed) management skills and expertise. While difficult to define and measure, developed expertise in students is important to achieving program objectives. As a practical matter, the development of managerial expertise in students is accomplished informally through faculty sharing their experience and expertise with organizations and their management. Often, this is accomplished without a formal plan or clear programmatic objectives. Guest speakers or executives in residence may be resources for developing expertise in students.

THE STUDENT PERSPECTIVE

Individual (student) motivations for seeking an MBA generally are a mix of three principal elements:

- The knowledge gained from the curriculum
- The credential value of the degree
- Improved management expertise and skill, notably the (self-) confidence gained from successfully completing the degree program

Knowledge of these motives is based on countless interviews with MBA students and prospective students over more than twenty years as MBA faculty and in MBA program management. These factors square well with the results of broad based surveys of MBAs. For example, the 2002 GMAC Global Survey of MBAs, (GMAC) reports that:

> "… graduates said they are most confident that the MBA is giving them the opportunity to improve themselves personally (48%), followed closely by an increase in their career options (41%), and development of management skills (38%). Thirty-three percent said that they are extremely confident both about getting an increase in earning power and about getting the credentials they desire. Job security is at the bottom of the list. At 11%, less than one-fourth as many graduates said they are extremely confident in getting this from their MBA as said they are extremely confident in the opportunity to improve themselves personally

From the student's perspective, the value of the degree as a credential for (enlarged) management responsibility is clearly important. This value of the degree has been significant for many years and promises to remain so. There are some dark clouds on the horizon, notably the Pfeffer study, (Raskin), that questions the value of the degree based on an examination of forty years of data on MBAs. The article, "The End of Business Schools? Less Success than Meets the Eye," (Pope) suggests radical, discontinuous change in MBA programs is on the near horizon. The continuous

improvement tactics mandated by accrediting agencies do not, however, provide a basis for discontinuous change and will not produce results to counter the predicted decline in the (credential) value of the MBA.

MANAGERIAL EXPERTISE

The definition and measurement of management expertise (intersecting in goals of both student and faculty) is our focus in the following paragraphs. We attend principally to expertise since skill must be demonstrated and may be improved through practice, something not typically a part of the MBA program.

Expertise can be developed in an educational program and is not entirely dependent on practice and application. There is a significant and highly developed literature on expertise and how it is developed, see for example, (Bell) and (Smith & Tiberius). Messick, a particularly noted psychologist, observes the following about expertise (Messick):

> *"...developing expertise ... is the differences in modes of information processing between experts or advanced learners and novices or beginning learners. The big surprise is that ... many structural aspects of expert information processing are consistent across fields.*

> "It also appears that experts, in contrast to novices, not only have a vastly richer store of knowledge accessible in memory but also structure and continually restructure knowledge in more complex ways. In particular experts construct complex schemas or mental models that combine some of the dimensions and simpler schemas used by novices into integrated functional patterns, while at the same time discarding as redundant or irrelevant some other dimensions that novices attend to. Thus experts develop mental models representing new and adroitly usable patterns of perceiving, thinking, and acting that direct, organize, and control both the acquisition of new knowledge and the processing of information in the course of problem solving. In particular, the development of relevant mental models facilitating problem representation has been shown to be a critical aspect of expertise in widely disparate fields.

These comments present a picture of developing expertise as uniquely individual and constantly changing. Any static assessment of developing (or developed) expertise, it would seem, is destined to fail by virtue of the fact that experts "structure and continually restructure knowledge." Different individuals will enter an MBA program with different levels of expertise and, through the program, develop their expertise at different paces and in different directions.

Developing expertise, as noted, is illustrated by changes in students' schemas or mental models of business. These changes, we assert, are reflected in student attitudes of what is important in the business organization. Changes to attitudes and the direction of change can be assessed and used as a method of verifying the pace and direction of developing management expertise. Essentially, developing management expertise will be reflected in changes to student attitudes about what constitutes an effective and productive organization.

MEASURING EXPERTISE

Successful (effective and productive) organizations and successful (expert) managers are infinitely varied. No single model dominates for organizations or their managers. Organizations, and what makes them successful, have been the object of more than fifty years of study and MBA programs typically include at least one course devoted to the study of organizations.

Significant resources have been devoted to determining the distinguishing characteristics of organizations and the practices of managers within them. For our present purposes, we attend to a set of organizational characteristics that, in aggregate, define an organization's culture. While, ultimately, it may be true that culture is incapable of complete definition, a set of measures of organizational culture with demonstrated operational validity is useful and valuable. We will employ these measures to reflect an individual's development of management expertise.

Schweiger has identified a set of fifteen dimensions found to be statistically significant in characterizing an organization's culture. These measures are of demonstrated importance in determining the success of mergers and acquisitions. Each dimension represents a spectrum between two extreme characterizations and the culture of an organization is suggested by a profile indicating where it stands with respect to each of the dimensions. Generally speaking, extremes of the dimensions do not represent bad or good (desirable or undesirable) organizational characteristics. This set of dimensions for describing an organization's culture is used as the basis for investigating what a manager feels are important organizational characteristics. It is plausible that the manager's model of an effective organization be couched in terms of dimensions representing organizational culture and that, as this model develops, the relative importance of the dimensions will change. Changes observed should be generally related to the MBA curriculum experienced and should also reflect the opinion of faculty about the relative importance of each characteristic.

THE STUDY

A preliminary study has been undertaken to test these notions. It is designed to demonstrate the applicability of the concept and provide guidance for its use in assessment of developing managerial expertise in MBAs. It is reasonable to expect that, as a result of participating in an MBA program, there would be a change in an individual's opinion of how important different organizational characteristics are to effectiveness and productivity. The survey is designed to elicit these opinions.

We asked students to complete the same survey instrument at two points in the program. First, in a course commonly taken at the beginning of the program and again in a course taken at the end. The instrument presents the fifteen dimensions of the study and asked students to select the ten most important characteristics and indicate their relative ranking. Thus, of 30 characteristics (fifteen pairs of opposed characteristics), students have to select the ten most important and rank their selections. This design requires that the respondent focus on the most important characteristics.

Tables 2 and 3 describe the instrument employed. In the survey instrument, the "Score" columns are blank and the respondent is asked to use the numbers 1 through 10 to indicate the

relative importance of the ten most important characterizations. The instructions emphasize that each number may be used only once in the ranking.

A sample of responses was selected and unusable responses discarded. Data from the resulting twenty responses are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. The Score for each measure is computed as the percentage of respondents ranking the measure in the top ten times the average rank assigned. (Average ranked values were inverted to produce scores that increased with the number selecting the measure and with the relative importance assigned.) Scores could thus be as high as 10 (every respondent selecting a measure and ranking it "1") or as low as zero (measure not selected at all). The highest ranking was 5.4, indicating significant dispersion in measures selected and their relative importance.

Students completing the survey were generally mature individuals with many years of work experience. Table 1 summarizes student demographics.

Table 1: Respondent Demographics

Characteristic	Beginning of Program	End of Program
Sex (% M/F)	30/70	35/65
Average Age	39	37
Work Experience	10+ years	10+ years

In this preliminary study no effort was made to have the same individuals complete the survey at the beginning and end of the program. Data tracking the same persons from beginning to end of the program would be desirable and could easily be accomplished in a routine administration of the survey over several years.

SURVEY RESULTS

As indicated, Tables 2 & 3 describe student rankings at the beginning and end of the MBA program.

Table 2: Beginning of Program

Score	No.	Measure	Measure	No.	Score
3.05	1	Centralized Decisions	Decentralized Decisions	16	1.85
1.35	2	Fast decision making	Slow decision making	17	0.35
0.2	3	Short-term focus	Long-term focus	18	4.55
0.75	4	Individual orientation	Team orientation	19	4.35
1.75	5	Conflict confronted openly	Avoidance of conflict	20	0.25

Table 2: Beginning of Program					
Score	No.	Measure	Measure	No.	Score
1.45	6	High risk tolerance	Low risk tolerance	21	0.0
3.25	7	Focus on results	Focus on process	22	1.7
2.45	8	Individuals held accountable	Groups held accountable	23	2.8
3.45	9	Horizontal cooperation	Little horizontal cooperation	24	0.5
5.1	10	High trust among people	Highly political	25	0.25
0.0	11	Bureaucratic	Entrepreneurial	26	2.1
0.1	12	Resistant to change	Open to change	27	4.6
Communication					
5.4	13	Open & honest communication	Guarded communication	28	0.0
0.8	14	Fast communication	Slow communication	29	0.0
2.3	15	Direct face-to-face communication	Indirect communication	30	0.0

Table 3: End of Program					
Score	No.	Measure	Measure	No.	Score
2.65	1	Centralized Decisions	Decentralized Decisions	16	1.45
2.6	2	Fast decision making	Slow decision making	17	0.0
2.4	3	Short-term focus	Long-term focus	18	4.2
1.65	4	Individual orientation	Team orientation	19	3.1
1.55	5	Conflict confronted openly	Avoidance of conflict	20	0.55
2.35	6	High risk tolerance	Low risk tolerance	21	0.45
3.35	7	Focus on results	Focus on process	22	2.8
2.5	8	Individuals held accountable	Groups held accountable	23	1.35
3.15	9	Horizontal cooperation	Little horizontal cooperation	24	0.1
3.75	10	High trust among people	Highly political	25	0.55
0.5	11	Bureaucratic	Entrepreneurial	26	1.45
0.1	12	Resistant to change	Open to change	27	4.55

Communication					
5.25	13	Open & honest communication	Guarded communication	28	0.55
0.85	14	Fast communication	Slow communication	29	0.55
2.0	15	Direct face-to-face communication	Indirect communication	30	0.0

Table 4 presents a ranking of the top ten dimensions beginning to end of the program.

Table 4: Top Ten, beginning and end of MBA Program

Rank	Beginning of program	Score	End of program	Score
1	Open & honest communication	5.4	Open & honest communication	5.25
2	High trust among people	5.1	Open to change	4.55
3	Open to change	4.6	Long-term focus	4.2
4	Long-term focus	4.55	High trust among people	3.75
5	Team orientation	4.35	Focus on results	3.35
6	Horizontal cooperation	3.45	Horizontal cooperation	3.15
7	Focus on results	3.25	Team orientation	3.1
8	Centralized decisions	3.05	Focus on process	2.8
9	Groups held accountable	2.8	Centralized decisions	2.65
10	Individuals held accountable	2.45	Fast decision making	2.6

Some preliminary observations may be based on these results. In summary form, they are.

- 80% the items on the Top Ten list of ten are essentially unaffected by students' participation in the MBA program.
- There is significant diversity of opinion at the start of the program concerning whether individuals or groups should be held accountable. The importance of both is perceived as significant. At the end of the program, neither is viewed as sufficiently important to make the 'top ten' list (although individual accountability is number 11 on the list).
- The importance of a team orientation falls from beginning to end of the program. Ranked in fifth place at the beginning, it falls to number seven at the end.
- Decentralization in decision-making is not seen as important (either at the start or the end of the program). Indeed, centralized decision-making is in the top ten at program beginning and end.

- The perceived importance of trust declines through the program. Ranked second at the beginning, it is in fourth place at the end. Focus on results rises from seventh place to fifth and focus on process enters the list in eighth place.

In all, the list is remarkably similar from beginning to end of program. Since the study is preliminary, these observations are only illustrative of the kinds of conclusions that might be drawn from a full study. No analysis of the significance of the differences observed was conducted due to the relatively small sample size.

A further use of the results involves a comparison to broadly based surveys of MBAs. Again referring to the 2002 GMAC Global Survey of MBAs, (GMAC), we note that 57% of graduating MBAs prefer performance-based rewards (with the balance preferring group based rewards). The group surveyed for the present study reveals a much higher preference for individual rewards (Accountability score of 2.5 compared to 1.35, nearly a 2:1 ratio). Our group also prefers centralized decision making in approximately the same proportion. This is in sharp contrast to the broad study where 84% preferred decentralized decision-making. If subsequent results confirm these differences, then we may conclude the students surveyed are not typical MBA alumni (at least for these measures).

IMPLICATIONS

The narrow view of these results suggests that not much movement has occurred in student attitudes during the MBA program. Remarkable in their absence from the students' top ten list are entrepreneurial characteristics and risk tolerance. If a subsequent, broader study confirms these conclusions then changes to curriculum and emphasis in individual courses may well be indicated. It should be emphasized that these results are unique to the program from which results were gathered and do not generalize to other programs. They illustrate the kinds of conclusions (and direction for change) that may be developed from survey results.

Taking a broader perspective, it is clear that every MBA program will produce unique, program specific results may be used as the basis for improvement. Thus, the general implications may be summarized as follows:

- The survey described indicates development of managerial expertise in students by tracing changes in perception of organizational characteristics important to effectiveness and productivity.
- Faculty, through curriculum design and instructional methodologies, can influence and encourage the development of managerial expertise in students.
- A comparison of changes in student perceptions relative to the targets indicated by faculty will provide insight into whether faculty objectives for student development are being met and indicate necessary changes to curriculum and teaching methodologies when they are not.

REFERENCES

AACSB, The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business. From the World Wide Web: http://www.aacsb.edu

ACBSP, Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs. From the World Wide Web: http://www.acbsp.org

Bell, M. (1997). *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. 68*(2), 34-38. Published on the World Wide Web: http://www.coe.uga.edu/sportlab/labresearch/completed/expertise/cidevelopment.html

California State University, San Bernardino, The Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree. Available on the World Wide Web at: http://www.sbpa.csusb.edu/mba/

ETS, Educational Testing Service. Princeton, NJ. Available on the World Wide Web: http://www.ets.org

GMAC, Graduate Management Admissions Council. Available on the World Wide Web: http://www.gmac.com/gmac/SurveysandTrends/GlobalMBASurvey2002

MBAInfo http://www.mbainfo.com/mbaintro.html

Messick, S. (Autumn, 1988). Testing for success: Implications of new developments in measurement and cognitive science. *Selections, The Magazine of the Graduate Management Admissions Council.* The Graduate Management Admissions Council. 1-15.

Pfeffer, J. & Fong, C.T., (2002). The end of business schools? Less success than meets the eye *Academy of Management, Academy of Management Learning and Education, 1*(1).

Pope, J. (2002). What's an MBA worth? Associated Press, August 27, 2002

Raskin, A. (2002). What's an MBA really worth? *Business 2.0*, July 2002 Issue http://www.business2.com/articles/mag/print/0,1643,41346,00.html

Schweiger, D. M. (2002) *M&A Integration.* New York: McGraw-Hill. ISBN 0-07-138303-4.

Smith, R.A. & Tiberius, R.G. The nature of expertise: Implication for teachers and teaching *Essays on Teaching Excellence: The Professional & Organizational Development Network in Higher Education.* http://www.ucet.ufl.edu/essays/topic4-1.htm

SACS, Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. http://www.sacs.org

DISTANCE LEARNING AND THE FACULTY: AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS, CONCERNS, AND OPPORTUNITIES

R. Nicholas Gerlich, West Texas A&M University
ngerlich@mail.wtamu.edu
Pamela H. Wilson, West Texas A&M University
phwilson@mail.wtamu.edu

ABSTRACT

Higher education is experiencing a major paradigm shift from the traditional lecture/face-to-face learning environment to online/distance learning. Studies showing student, faculty, administrative, and the institution's adjustments, concerns and attitudes are now becoming available. However, this information is changing very rapidly, as the implementation of new distance learning delivery modes and methods become available. This study focuses on the difference in attitudes and concerns of faculty determined by their age, gender, tenure, PC literacy and whether they have taught an online class previously. Results indicated that the greatest disparity in faculty perceptions of online teaching were apparent between those with and without online teaching experience. Other factors, such as age, gender, tenure, and computer literacy, played little or no role in perceptual differences.

A COMPARISON OF COURSE PERFORMANCE WITH MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR PREFERENCES IN A CLASS DELIVERED IN TWO MODALITIES: EVIDENCE OF SELECTION EFFECTS IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR CLASS

LaVelle H. Mills, West Texas A&M University
lmills@mail.wtamu.edu
R. Nicholas Gerlich, West Texas A&M University
ngerlich@mail.wtamu.edu
Shelley R. Tapp, West Texas A&M University
stapp@mail.wtamu.edu

ABSTRACT

Online courses attract rapidly increasing numbers of students. One regional university has seen a growth in online enrollments from 24 students in 1997 to 2,531 students in 2002. During the 1990s, numerous research studies examined student effectiveness in online courses primarily by measuring learning outcomes and comparing these results with those of students in similar traditional classroom courses. There has been little research focusing on traits and preferences of students that might directly impact the way students learn in an online class format. The purpose of this paper is to identify student preferences as categorized by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and determine if type correlates with learning effectiveness in a graduate level organizational behavior (OB) class and if personality type or other variables might determine student preference for course delivery modality. Students included in this research project self-selected into an online or a traditional delivery graduate OB class. The students completed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and reported their ages, undergraduate GPA's, and GMAT scores. While there were no significant differences in performance across most personality types, one personality type did perform better than the others and there also exists some evidence of selection bias in student choice of delivery modality.

STUDENT WORKING HOURS AND SEMESTER CREDIT HOURS: PROFILES FOR A CBK CLASS AT A REGIONAL AACSB UNIVERSITY

R.Wayne Gober, Middle Tennessee State University
wgober@mtsu.edu
Robert G. Colvard, Middle Tennessee State University
rcolvard@mtsu.edu

ABSTRACT

A recent newspaper article suggested "The major reason students hurt their grade performance while in college is not about ability or talent. It's the simple fact that most of them hold part- or full-time jobs." The article further offered that in many cases, students have to work to have cars, stereos, cell phones, computers and clothes that match the trend lines driven by media and pop culture. Some students may have to work because they have minimal or no parental support. Last year, according to the U.S. Department of Labor, 42.6 percent of full-time and 75.7 percent of part-time students have jobs. For what ever the reasons, the percentage of working students will more than likely continue to increase and be a factor in their academic performance.

The purpose of this paper is to provide an examination of working hours and student credit hours for students at a regional university. Data were collected for students in a Statistics II class, taught by one professor for the Spring and Fall semesters during the years, 1999-2004. Statistics II is a course in the Common Body of Knowledge (CBK) for the College of Business and must be taken by students in all majors usually at the junior class rank or above. Profiles are developed based on demographics of the students, such as age, major, gender, levels of working hours and levels of semester hours credit. Profiles are also developed for the students enrolled at the beginning of the semester, those students who withdrew during the semester and those students who received a grade at the end of the semester.

A CONTRARIAN APPROACH TO TEACHING "PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING"

Susan H. Godar, William Paterson University
godars@wpunj.edu

ABSTRACT

While the introductory course in Marketing appears to have a standard format, with chapters in all popular textbooks arranged in the same order and a typical assignment suggested in them, this paper offers a critique of that method. Building upon learning theory and Marketing itself, I lay out a rationale for a different order of topics and the elimination of a marketing plan writing assignment.

INTRODUCTION

The introductory, or Principles, course in marketing has long had a particular structure. The organization of McCarthy's Basic Marketing: A Managerial Approach, 3rd Ed. published in 1968 is virtually identical to the organization of books published thirty-six years later. Both that old textbook and most new ones start with a discussion of the external variables, the theories, and the "tools" used by marketers, i.e. environmental issues, research, and consumer behavior. They end with discussions of applications of these theories and tools as used in developing a product, place, promotion, and price to meet buyers' needs. Dobscha and Foxman (1998) found that most Principles texts have similar content to one another, and have a similar topic order of basic terminology followed by applications of the four "Ps."

Not only are the texts substantially similar, but also the assignments given by many professors to their Principles classes are similar. An informal survey of Principles syllabi posted on the Web shows that the most common assignment for this course is the development of a marketing plan, usually in teams, which is orally presented to the class and written up for the professor. This assignment is also often suggested in Instructor's Manuals for the introductory course.

In this paper, I give rationale for ignoring this order of material and the use of a marketing plan assignment. This rationale is based upon principles from learning theory and from marketing itself. Learning theories arising from both the cognitivists and the developers of theories on andragogy, and the marketing principle of positioning, lead to a suggested revision in the way we teach this class. By changing the order of topics covered in the class and the types of assignments, we may be better able to address the learning needs of the population of students in the course.

INTRODUCTION

The introductory marketing course is a significant course in most business school curricula. In their study of undergraduate programs, Butler and Straughn-Mizerski (1998) found that Principles of Marketing is a required course for the marketing major in 90.9% of the institutions surveyed. The vast majority of students in any introductory marketing course are not, however, marketing majors. Students with other majors are in the course because it is a requirement of their business program, not because they had any interest in the topic. As with any required course, this means that two target audiences co-exist within the course: those who are interested and those who are not yet interested. This leads to different student needs within the same course.

Because of the two populations in the introductory marketing course, it fills two positions in the curriculum. For marketing majors it is their foundation course in the discipline, while for non-majors it is their introduction to - and possibly only course in - marketing. This means that the course must accomplish two goals. For marketing majors, it must provide the vocabulary of marketing upon which they can build an understanding in subsequent courses. For students not majoring in marketing, the course should provide a survey of marketing theories and practices so that these students will be able to understand the significance of marketing within an organization. It is important to properly introduce both marketing and non-marketing majors to this discipline in the Principles course. Despite these important learning needs of the students and the significant role this course plays in the curriculum of business programs, the introductory course has been little-discussed in the marketing education literature. This paper starts a discussion that may lead to more work being done in studying this course.

At this point in time, accreditation standards are forcing a review of courses as the standard-setting groups encourage schools to identify the learning outcomes for a class. Both regional accreditation bodies like North Central or Middle States and business-specific accreditors like AACSB and IACBE have established ground rules that mandate identification of such outcomes. Often, when professors look at a course in response to either a personal interest in improving a class or to an outside mandate to review it, they changes the curriculum. Upon reviewing the structure of the Principles course in light of the learning outcomes my academic department had identified for this course, I undertook a reorganization of the course.

THE ORGANIZATION AND A CRITIQUE OF THE PRINCIPLES COURSE

The typical marketing textbook is laid out in a standard format. The text starts with tools of marketing, including consumer behavior and marketing research, and theories like segmenting, targeting and positioning. All current best selling marketing textbooks follow this same format (Dobscha and Foxman, 1998).

The books then go into applications, typically following a "four Ps" format, as they discuss applications of product, price, promotion, and place. They may make occasional ties back to the tools. Often, however, the four Ps are covered as if they are stand-alone issues, bearing little relationship to the foundation items covered in the first part of the course. This order, and the lack of connections, do not build upon learning theory to optimize student comprehension and retention

of the material covered in the course. Rather, this structure is counter to major schools of learning theory.

There are many schools of thought about the way that people learn. Two perspectives have informed my decisions about reorganizing the course: cognitive psychology and androgogy.

According to cognitive psychologists, people learn best if they start with something they know and then are taught things that they don't know (Schilling, Vidal, Ployhart, and Marangoni, 2003). From this perspective, we learn best by building on prior knowledge: a learner starts with something known, and then adds on knowledge, changes that knowledge, or makes the knowledge systematic. This is a process called "scaffolding," the building of new knowledge upon an existing knowledge base. This would imply that a course should start with something known to the students. Only then can additional or new knowledge be added.

The andragogy school of thought on education deals with the ways in which adults learn. Pedagogy refers to children; andragogy refers to adult learners. Among the principles of this perspective are that new knowledge should be applied soon after obtained, and that the learner's own experiences can provide a base for new learning (Cheetam and Chivers, 2001). If we think about how people learn skills, we see that they do not learn first numerous details about tools and afterwards learn how to use the tools. If you were teaching someone to be a carpenter, for example, you would teach them how to cut and show them at the same time the salient features of saws, i.e. why different saws have different types of blades, why teeth per inch is significant, and why the set of the blade is different for different tasks. You would not separate the tool from the task. As you were teaching, you would give them constant work on application so they could see those features in action. In the typical marketing textbook, we violate the principles of this learning theory. We neither start with the students' experiences and work to what they don't know, nor do we combine applications, theory, and the tools in close proximity to one another.

From the perspective of learning theories based on cognitive psychology and on andragogy, it appears that the structure of the Principles course is suboptimal for student learning. The textbooks do not start with things that students may know, e.g. applications, and work toward theories. They also separate the tasks from the tools.

Another problem occurs with the typical large assignment made in this course. Many marketing professors use the development of a marketing plan as an assignment in introductory marketing. The students typically make up a product and write a marketing plan for it. Sometimes these plans are developed in systematic ways with incremental assignments. Sometimes they are turned in, complete, at the end of the semester as a project. Often the assignment includes a public speaking requirement with a presentation of the work to the class. These are interesting assignments and probably great fun to read. Students can be very creative. And that is the major problem with this assignment in the curriculum.

By having students in an introductory class write a marketing plan, we tell them two incorrect things. First we tell them that marketing plans do not need to have any basis in fact. This is emphasized by the fact that the core of the paper, the product, is often imaginary. Even if the product is real, the students can make up many of the details that go into their marketing plan. They can do little, if any, outside research to provide any credible evidence for their plan as this is a mythical situation. And unlike the situation that the students will face when they are employed, there are no consequences for a bad marketing plan. The second thing we tell them is that marketing

plans are easy. Anyone, even people in an introductory class, can write a marketing plan. We should remember that most of the students are not marketing majors. This means that they will go out into their companies believing that anyone can write a marketing plan. After all they have done one in their very first class. If we look at other disciplines, we see that this type of assignment is unusual. Students in a management class do not write a human resources program for a company. Students in introductory accounting do not develop an audit plan for an organization. Why do we do it in marketing?

This assignment "positions" marketing incorrectly for students. They believe that it is all make-believe and easy. That was not the positioning I wanted for my course.

A CONTRARY EXAMPLE

There are other ways to teach Principles of Marketing, other than those advocated by the textbook writers. There are many possible alternatives to both the prevailing order of the material and the assignment typically given. Here, I will explain the ones that I selected for my class. These alternatives are based upon the goals and objectives for the class, on the answer to the question "what do I want students to learn in this course?"

When I looked at the objectives my department had set for the course, I realized that the typical way of teaching marketing was not the best way to meet them, based on learning theory and the impressions we were giving with the marketing plan assignment. So I set about to redesign the course, by first changing the order of topics covered in the class and secondly by changing the types of assignments I give.

Using scaffolding and andragogy principles, I rearranged my syllabus to start with things the students know and work to things they do not know, and to start with applications and move to theories. Now my syllabus starts with advertising. The typical college student sees a lot of advertising; they "know" a lot of advertising. It is, therefore, a good topic with which to begin the course. Once we have talked about how ads are made, it becomes natural then to segue easily into things like targeting. They can then evaluate to whom this product is targeted, how it is targeted, and what other segments may exist in the marketplace. By first seeing the application, the students can more easily understand the purpose of the tool/theory. By starting with something they know, the students are immediately drawn into the topic as they build upon their pre-existing knowledge base. As a result, I have rearranged the order of topics in the introductory class. Rather than a theory/tools followed by applications approach, I start with an application area and then show how marketing theories and tools have helped marketers in selecting or improving that application. For example, I start with Integrated Marketing Communications/advertising, and then show the students how segmenting, targeting, positioning, ethics, and relationship management are tied to IMC, before moving on to a discussion of channels. A chart showing the order of topics from Fall 2003 is available.

Rather than assign a marketing plan, I have developed an alternative set of assignments. Students may select three of these assignments and turn them in on the due date for that assignment. The assignments were designed to meet the learning objectives of the class, specifically the ones about language and reading articles with understanding. Students completing these assignments see

actual marketing campaigns and develop ways to analyze them. A sample set of assignments is available.

RESULTS

During the past two years, I have tried these techniques in several sections of Introductory Marketing. There are two measures of success for this. The first is my observation and the second is an anonymous survey that I have asked the students in the course to complete.

My observation is that students are more actively involved in learning in the class. They immediately see applications and are drawn into marketing. They understand why they are learning the things that they are learning. The theories and tools are not just random things to memorize but are things in actual use. They bring examples to the class; they discuss things that they have seen; they try to see if their example fits with what they are learning.

Using http://zoomerang.com, I have created a survey which the students complete anonymously. I send them the URL for the survey site, and receive no information on which individual students have responded. During the past 6 semesters, 154 out of 213 students (72.3%) have completed the survey. The results of the survey are very promising. Students report that they believe that they have a learned a substantial amount of vocabulary in the class, with 86.4% agreeing or strongly agreeing. Students also report that they clearly see the tie between marketing and their majors, with 92% agreeing or strongly agreeing. They are not confused, either, by a reordering of the chapters, with 89.1% agreeing or strongly agreeing. In a future study, I plan to teach one section with a standard order of chapters/marketing plan assignment, and another with the approach advocated in this paper and compare results of learning with a pre- and post-course assessment.

There are shortcomings with this contrarian approach. One problem is that the students do not get all the tools at once, before they start considering applications. That means, for example, that when the class is talking about advertising and they have not yet learned about marketing research, they cannot apply marketing research to advertising. Just as in a regular class material must be tied back to things earned earlier in the course, so too in this class must this be done. Thus, when marketing research is covered, care must be taken to provide examples of how it can be applied in advertising. Students also do not see marketing as a whole process with these assignments, because the assignments cover small pieces of marketing. Were the students to write a marketing plan, they would have to combine the theories and tools together in a unified whole. This, too, provided challenges to the instructor as s/he must ensure that students see marketing as a unified system.

Overall, I believe that this contrarian approach is successful. Students believe that they learn more. I believe that they learn more.

REFERENCES

Available from author.

TARGETED FOR EXTINCTION AS WE KNOW THEM?

Lynn Griffin, Coastal Carolina University
griffinL@coastal.edu
Charles Malone, North Carolina A&T State University
malonec@ncat.edu
William D. Cooper, North Carolina A&T State University
cooperw@ncat.edu

ABSTRACT

Two common threads seem to run through the existing literature on academic professional meetings. One is that they unquestionably provide significant benefits to both attendees and participants. These benefits are that the meetings (a) provide opportunities for networking, (b) provide a conducive setting for idea sharing and for updating oneself on current research on topics of interest, and (c) allow presenters to get feedback on their research prior to journal submission. The second "thread" is that attendance is declining, presumably due, at least in part, to the dwindling availability of travel funds for such conferences. Given that the benefits of attendance are usually substantial, this paper seeks to identify some causes of the decline in attendance, discusses some logistical issues related to organizing and attending professional meetings, and provides some recommendations to enhance future meetings in an effort to stimulate interest and increase attendance.

A survey was conducted to gather information about conference attendees' and nonattendees' attitudes and opinions about attending professional conferences. The survey was distributed to members of the American Accounting Association living in the Southeastern portion of the United States. The main reasons given for not attending conferences were the geographical locations of meetings (presumably being in places that the respondent was not interested in going to, or places that were too expensive to get to) and the lack of employer/university reimbursement for travel costs. Survey results also indicated that many schools did not place much, if any, weight on attendance and/or participation at these meetings when promotion and tenure decisions were made. These findings seem to be consistent with those reported in other disciplines.

As a result of the issues mentioned above, the role of the conference planner has changed and has undoubtedly become more difficult. They now almost have to assume the role of salesperson and regard their job as one that includes making the conference as attractive as possible in an effort to attract as many attendees as possible. One tool that has made this job easier is session-scheduling software, which allows planners to solicit session preferences from participants and incorporate these preferences into the conference schedule. However, while this software may improve things for those attending a meeting, it does nothing for those that do not attend due to lack of available travel funds or for other reasons. Planners have turned to "virtual conferencing" to address this

issue. While the idea of a "virtual conference" has been around for some time, only recently has technology progressed to the point where such a conference could be considered an adequate substitute for the real thing. A cited study revealed that virtual conferences were viewed favorably and the benefits of being lower in cost, having the ability to attract top names, and the fact that faculty members didn't need to miss classes to participate were identified.

RE-ENGINEERING THE LEARNING EXPERIENCE USING TECHNOLOGY AND THE WORLD WIDE WEB

Susan Haugen, University of Wisconsin - Eau Claire
shaugen@uwec.edu

ABSTRACT

American colleges and universities are experiencing a technological revolution as they search for ways to meet the requirements of today's changing educational landscape. Along with students seeking a traditional university education, there are demands for life long learning programs, expanded offerings for non-traditional students and for the flexibility that is available with online, any time, any place education. These programs are often called e-learning, and encompass technical, undergraduate and graduate programs. The vehicle for delivering e-learning programs is the World Wide Web, and coursework can be delivered in either the asynchronous or synchronous format. This educational format is a radical departure from the traditional lecture/bricks and mortar style of learning that we have followed for hundreds of years, and for programs grounded in these traditions significant re-engineering needs to take place if e-learning program and course quality is to be assured.

E-learning quality, as does all educational program quality, begins with standards set by accrediting bodies at the international and national level. These standards are concerned with faculty credentials, curriculum content, instructional resources, and student selection and admissions. Additional standards are required to maintain quality in e-learning programs, including standards such as student communications requirements (especially language skills needed for instructor/student interaction), PC hardware availability and skills, and specific prerequisite coursework requirements. Standards provide the general framework for maintaining program quality; however, they usually are not specific enough to support quality at the individual course level. To date there have not been promulgated any generally accepted e-learning standards that can be universally applied to programs and courses.

When we think of standards as they relate to the development and delivery of e-learning courses and programs, there are four general areas that need to be considered: 1) Learning design and course development; 2) Assessment; 3) Media and technology; and 4) Learner support. The paper explores each of these from the perspective of maintaining quality and re-engineering traditional on-campus programs to provide students with an equivalent experience in the online environment. The intent is not to develop a set of standards, rather it is to illustrate that re-engineering requires looking at the whole learning process in a new way, and that with establishing standards and proper planning, e-learning programs will have a greater chance for delivering a quality learning experience and satisfying both the student and the institution.

Technology and the World Wide Web have changed the way education is delivered. Educators are developing e-learning programs to meet these new and challenging opportunities and to take advantage of the computer and telecommunications technologies that are available as effectively as possible. By establishing and maintaining standards for both course development and delivery, institutions can more effectively re-engineer their learning programs to deliver high quality online education.

KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS ON A TIMELY BASIS

Thomas Higginbotham, Southeastern Louisiana University
higginbotham@selu.edu

ABSTRACT

The student looks on the appropriate site to see how his work has been evaluated. Nothing. The student wonders if the instructor has looked at anything that day. And a little later, the student checks again. And again. And again. And yet again. Did the instructor even get his materials? Frustration coupled with a bit of anger is the result. The student's work is finally evaluated, resulting in high marks (one hopes) for the student and you can be reasonably sure low marks when evaluation time comes for the instructor.

The above is one of the most common complaints that I have heard from students involved in distance learning courses over the past several years. There are some simple approaches to this problem which I have found to be very effective. These are as follows: (1) When posting an assignment, post the time the marks will be posted, (2) When an assignment is received, automatically generate a reply for the student, and (3) my favorite, which is, "All marks posted as of this time and date.

The most effective of the above is, "All marks posted as of this time and date." This informs the student that anything that can be marked has been marked. And even if I have not received anything that day (I do this seven days a week), this informs the student that I have been on the site. When I started doing this, my evaluations on being timely when to the top of the scale, both from the course directors who monitored the courses, and the students

This is more a case of perception than reality. I marked everything that I could and looked over the site every day in the past, but now the students knew this is what I was doing and gave me credit for it. Less frustration for all of us.

DISRUPTION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: FACTORS SURROUNDING EXECUTIVE SUCCESSION

Kevin R. Howell, Appalachian State University
howellkr@appstate.edu

ABSTRACT

Every Community College is on its way to having a new President. Change is the only constant in organizations. More than 60 years of studies have yielded widely varying results concerning executive succession. Many areas of sports, industry and education have been studied. These studies examine a multitude of factors surrounding change in leadership of organizations. Grusky, Thiemann, and Gouldner in separate studies (cited in Kirkland 1990), maintain that "every presidential change is organizationally disruptive". Kirkland, in studying Community Colleges in the Midwest, identified 3 specific factors that are related to levels of disruption; Ritual Scapegoating, Strategic Replacement, and Reorganization. This study serves to identify the relationships between those three and perceptions of disruption in a Community College that has recently experienced a change in executive leadership.

AN EXECUTIVE IN RESIDENCE BUSINESS COURSE DESIGN

Timothy C. Johnston, The University of Tennessee at Martin
johnston@utm.edu

ABSTRACT

An Executive in Residence (EIR) course brings business practitioners to a university campus to meet with students, who receive academic credit for their participation. This paper presents a one-credit EIR course design. The benefits and costs of an EIR course are discussed. An Executive in Residence course is a relatively low-cost way to bring "real-world" experiences into the classroom. Students, instructor, college, and practitioner all benefit from the arrangement. An EIR course may introduce the college to "friends" who provide financial and professional support.

INTRODUCTION

An Executive in Residence course brings business practitioners to a university campus to meet with students, who receive academic credit for their participation. One is motivated to develop an Executive in Residence course by a number of reasons which will be discussed more fully later in this paper. Foremost of these reasons is the need to bring "real-world" practitioner experiences into the classroom.

Who has need for practitioner input into the business classroom? A student needs to better understand business practice and business practitioners. An instructor needs current knowledge of business practice and fresh anecdotes. A college of business needs a current and relevant curriculum, and to further its mission. The author's college, for example, has objectives to "foster multidisciplinary, business, and community alliances that provide diversified developmental experiences for students and faculty," and "engage the support and participation of stakeholders in the continual improvement of the curricula . . ."

In summary, the primary reason for developing an Executive in Residence course is to bring "real-world" experiences into the classroom. Students, instructor, and college all benefit from the input of practitioners. This paper presents an EIR course design. The benefits and costs of an EIR course are discussed.

EXECUTIVE IN RESIDENCE COURSE DESIGN

The design of a EIR-type course can take many forms. This paper describes what could be called an "entry-level" EIR course. "Entry-level" here means a course that introduced practitioner input into the curriculum, with room to grow into more robust program. Three steps are discussed: (1) Publish a formal EIR course offering in the university catalog; (2) Invite practitioners to visit the classroom and (3) Build relationships with practitioners with additional activities.

A formal EIR course in the university catalog has better properties than an informal guest speaker series. A student who completes an EIR course receives one semester hour of credit. Students enroll in the EIR course as usual, and must meet the pre-requisites, which can be successful completion of core marketing, finance, and accounting courses. Students who meet pre-requisite requirements are by definition advanced students who are looking ahead to life after graduation. Formal registration ensures that the course has a meeting room and time, and that a consistent audience of advanced students will be available. The fact that students will earn credit and a grade provides the structure within which the instructor can set course requirements and expectations for performance, as well assign academic tasks.

An academic component was important for learning. Students heard the experiences of practitioners, and then reflected on their learning and reported it in written form. The task of synthesizing research and information from the visitor created a level of learning and rigor not present in a simple guest speaker arrangement.

A few students were matched with each visitor. The selected students performed additional research and wrote a profile of the visitor, his or her organization, the industry, etc. This assignment guaranteed a few cogent questions from the students to the practitioner, and their reports were distributed to other students. A public archive of practitioner and company profiles was created by publishing the reports on the Web.

One could combine the written assignments with oral briefings or debriefings in class meetings prior to or following the practitioner visit.

One's choice of practitioners is important to the success of the EIR program. Patrick (1969) stated that "the most vital determinant of a successful residency is the quality of the participating executive" and that "broadly experienced and knowledgeable top executives are the best candidates." He suggested that "generalists in smaller businesses" are a better choice for EIR than "big corporation specialists." Wendel (1981) suggested that the useful EIR life of a retired CEO is limited, because his "capital (active participation in business) quickly deteriorates."

Prospective EIR participants include practitioners with ties to the local community or to the university. Non-credit EIR programs that feature one or two practitioners per year can focus on highly placed executives. An instructor of an EIR course with ten or more speakers per term would need to cast a net more widely. Table 1 lists the job titles of visitors to an EIR course taught by the author. This list features a variety of local and regional organizations, including those of public and private ownership, corporations and small businesses, profit and not-for-profit corporations.

Table 1: Executive in Residence visiting practitioners
Store Manager, Lowe's home improvement store
Human Resources Manager, Lowe's home improvement store
Local Manager, Frontier Communications telephone company
President, John Deere dealership
Manager, Telemedicine, Health Science Center, teaching hospital

Human Resources Manager, power equipment manufacturer
Director, local Economic Development Corporation
President, sporting goods store
CEO, Public Television station
Safety & Environmental Coordinator, local manufacturer
Owner, restaurant
VP, Hispanic Business Alliance
Affiliate Broker/Owner, Realty company

An EIR course offers the opportunity to build relationships between the college and practitioners with additional activities. "EIR" implies a deeper role for visitors than simply as a guest speaker. One option is to arrange for the few "selected" and interested students to join the practitioner for lunch. Students can get to know the practitioner better in an informal setting with few people. At Dartmouth's Tuck School of Business, the Visiting Executive program "includes informal lunches and dinners with students as well as office hours for individual and small-group meetings" (Tuck, 2004). Treating the practitioner as an honored guest at meals can enhance the "prestige" of serving as an Executive in Residence.

A goal would be to expand the practitioner's role from the "entry-level" EIR class described here into a deeper involvement with the college. One could invite the wider college and university community to attend the practitioner's presentation. The practitioner may teach in subject-area courses in which he or she is qualified, such as management, finance, or marketing. Another option would be to have the practitioner bring along staff members who are specialists in the subject areas, and hence provide input into multiple discipline areas. For example, the practitioner could bring along the company human resources manager and conduct mock (or real) job interviews.

The practitioner's involvement could be expanded outside of the business school as well, with roles in university or community activities taking place over multiple days. The practitioner could dovetail his curricular involvement with extracurricular activities such as a sporting event, advisory or alumni board meeting, or a business event if his or her company has a local presence. And of course the relationship between the practitioner and college could deepen over time with multiple visits.

BENEFITS AND COSTS

The benefits and costs of an EIR course are summarized in Table 2. This table reflects the viewpoint of students, instructor, college and practitioner and the author's experience teaching EIR courses in two academic terms.

Student feedback was the source of information on their benefits and costs. Student benefits were: (1) Learn what employers want in new graduates as employees; (2) Access a network for

potential job opportunities, (3) Learn to match expectations to reality in the working world and (4) Be entertained by speakers.

Many advanced students were very interested in getting a job, so they welcomed insights on job hunting and job prospects. A student commented that "many of these people were smart and gave very informative speeches on how much work it is to get to the point of doing what they were doing now. I loved some of the pointers they gave us about how to look for work, how to present ourselves, and how to stand out in front of an employer. "

Students had the opportunity meet hiring decision-makers. One student obtained an internship with a practitioner's organization. Another commented, "I recommend this course to anyone that would like to do an internship with a company in the surrounding area, anyone that needs a job and is considering staying or working in this area."

The practitioners helped students bring their expectations in line with the reality of the working world. One student commented that "my thoughts were changed about the short term operational goals of first starting businesses, in that the most successful ones do not start off huge. They start off small and work their way up. I also realized owning your own business is more complicated when you hear it from a true entrepreneur instead of just reading it from the book."

Students valued the opportunity to meet with the practitioner in a small group setting, and to learn what is on the minds of business practitioners. Students also found the class entertaining and enjoyed the variety of programs. A student said, "A highlight of this course was I was able to go to dinner with one of the speakers. Each one of us was able to have one on one contact with one of the speakers. Overall, this class was entertaining and informative class." Another stated that "I learned a lot in general about just how the business world operates and what perspective employers are looking for in employees. I particularly enjoyed the fact that it was a hands-on class that allowed you to interact with real people."

One measure of student benefit is the demand for the course. Twelve students participated in the first EIR class. Students filled 22 seats in the second EIR class early, and several students were turned away due to lack of space. The student costs listed in Table 2, such as time spent in class and on homework, are typical for courses and are assumed since students did not give feedback on their costs.

Table 2: Benefits and Costs of an EIR course

	Benefits	Costs
Student	* Learn what employers want in new graduates as employees. * Access a network for potential job opportunities. * Learn to match expectations to reality in the working world. * Be entertained by speakers.	* Time spent in class, doing research, meeting practitioner. * Credit hour costs (no additional cost if a full-time student).

	Benefits	Costs
Instructor	* Learn current business practice to use as examples in teaching. * Learn current career advice to give students.	* Time spent preparing for class, coordinating visits, evaluating assignments, time in class. * Time spent getting a course added to the college catalog (one time).
College	* Provide practitioner input to students in the business curriculum. * Contribution to achieving college mission and objectives. * Potential new "friends" of the college.	* Cost of meals. * Cost of faculty time.
Practitioner	* An attentive audience of students. * A chance to help others with his or her experiences. * Introduction to potential employees. * Association with the Business School. * A free lunch.	* Time and travel costs.

Instructor costs and benefits are based on the author's experience conducting the course. The instructor benefited from (1) learning current business practice to use as examples in teaching and (2) learning current career advice to give students. The instructor heard business anecdotes that were useful for other classes. The instructor also found that having up-to-date information about jobs was valuable to students not in the EIR course. The one-hour format added variety to the curriculum while fitting within the instructor's workload and students' course load.

The instructor was faced with the normal time and effort to manage a course, plus the additional effort to coordinate and host guests to campus. The EIR course took more effort than one-hour of a "traditional" academic course. The instructor also incurred the one-time administrative effort get the course added to the university catalog.

The college benefited from the ability to provide practitioner knowledge as an option in the curriculum for students. The college also made progress toward its mission of involving practitioners and organizations in the teaching process. Since 1995, the objective of the EIR program at Iowa State University has been "to enhance the educational programs in the College of Business by enriching the learning environment of both undergraduate and graduate students and fostering research ideas for faculty and graduate students. The program is also intended to provide faculty and staff involved in outreach activities with new ideas and perspectives on how to serve the business community" (Iowa State, 2004).

EIR visitors may become deeper "friends" of the college and provide professional or monetary support. For example, the EIR program of the Center for Retailing Studies has an objective to "familiarize executives with our retailing program, Mays Business School, and Texas A&M University" (Texas A&M, 2004). The University of Iowa's College of Business got a boost when the chairman emeritus of HON industries (and visiting faculty member in the college's Executive in Residence program) donated $2.5 million for an endowed professorship (FYI, 1998). The college incurred the costs of meals and the cost of instructor time.

The practitioner got the opportunity to share his or her experiences with an attentive, appreciative, and admiring audience. He or she received the satisfaction of helping students by sharing his or her experiences. This benefit is more psychic than tangible, but valuable nonetheless. In describing his EIR experience at Cornell, Wendel (1981) said, "I was exposed to lively inquiring minds, an informal and relaxed atmosphere, a beautiful campus, (and) distinguished scholars in diverse disciplines throughout the university."

The practitioner shared information on job opportunities at his or her organization, and met potential new employees. The practitioner got to associate himself or herself, and his or her organization, with the university. On top of these benefits he or she received a free lunch and a warm thank-you letter on college letterhead. The practitioner spent time and energy on the visit and paid for any travel costs.

CONCLUSION

In summary, an Executive in Residence course was a relatively low-cost way to bring "real-world" experiences into the classroom. Students, instructor, college, and practitioner all benefited from the arrangement.

This paper stressed the value of a formal academic format for an EIR program, and described an "entry-level" one-credit-hour course. This course has the potential to grow into a more robust experience for practitioners and students, and to introduce the college to "friends" who may financial and professional support in the future.

REFERENCES

FYI (1998). "$2.5 million to business school." University of Iowa Faculty and Staff News (June 12). Retrieved February 21, 2004 from http://www.uiowa.edu/~fyi/issues9798/061298web/2_pt_5_mil_061298.html

Iowa State University: College of Business: Outreach: Executive in Residence Program. (n.d.) Retrieved February 21, 2004 from http://www.bus.iastate.edu/CORPORATE/EIR.asp

Patrick, James E. (1969). Bridging the Student-Business Gap. *Business Horizons* (Apr) 12(2), 59-64.

Texas A & M University: Mays Business School: Center for Retailing Studies: For Executives: Executives in Residence. (n.d.) Retrieved February 21, 2004 from http://www.crstamu.org/executive_programs/eir.asp?id=1

Tuck School of Business: Business Community: Visiting Executive Program. (n.d.) Retrieved February 21, 2004 from http://www.dartmouth.edu/tuck/business/visit_exec.html

Wendel, William H. (1981). Desirable job title: Executive in residence. *Harvard Business Review* (Nov/Dec), 59(6), 30-32.

STUDENT ROLE IN ACTIVE LEARNING: A RESEARCH AGENDA

Timothy C. Johnston, The University of Tennessee at Martin
johnston@utm.edu

ABSTRACT

This research examines the role of the student in active learning. Active learning can engage students as a "co-producer" of the learning environment. This research discusses ways of encouraging students to take an active role in the learning process, such as "co-production" and "do-it-yourself" learning. This topic is examined in online and face-to-face environments. The pros and cons of learning projects are discussed.

1. *The theory of co-production*

   "Co-production . . . is the contribution that the ultimate beneficiary must supply in order to achieve the end result ultimately sought by producer and consumer," Edgar Cahn, "The Co-Production Imperative," Essential Books, 2000.

2. *Do-it-yourself learning*

3. *Student projects in the online environment*

   a. *Learning e-commerce with a blog*
   b. *Learning e-commerce with eBay*
   c. *Online assessments of learning*

4. *Student projects in the face-to-face environment*

   a. *Learning marketing management with a trade show*
   b. *The LEAD Academy: Student led learning projects*

5. *Conclusion: The pros and cons of learning projects for students.*

A MARKETING AND SOCIETY COURSE DESIGN

Timothy C. Johnston, The University of Tennessee at Martin
johnston@utm.edu

ABSTRACT

This research is about the design of a course which examines the interaction between marketing and society. In this course, the scope of marketing as a manager's tool for achieving business goals in enlarged and placed in the context of the goals of a society. The reactions of society to marketing's role in the economy are introduced, such as consumer responses or public policies. The roles of marketing in diffusing social goods as well as the de-marketing of social "bads" are considered. Specific course objectives include examining the interaction between marketing and society, and understanding how "anti-corporate" movements affect the decisions of marketing managers.

Course content includes:

1. *Branding/Commercial Media. The overview includes definitions of anti-corporate, brand-busting, etc.*

3. *Materialism/Commercial Development. People's reactions to hyper-commercialism.*

3. *The topics related to global market opportunities and the reactions of people to the behaviors of global companies*

ACCOUNTING LITERACY: A CURRICULAR SYMBIOSIS

Sanford R. Kahn, University of Cincinnati
kahnsr@ucmail.uc.edu
Brandan Jones, University of Cincinnati
Brandan.Jones@uc.edu

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The profession of accountancy has evolved throughout the years. The most recent advance occurred with the advent of computerized information systems that present accounting data to all levels of an organization. The core accounting curriculum must grow as well to maintain value within multidisciplinary business degree programs. Leadership through accounting information should replace traditional accounting details in the core classes for non-accounting majors, while accounting majors should become the technical masters of the field. These core courses, which demonstrate accounting information stretching across all lines of business, will further emphasize the role of accounting as the common language of business. The people in the best position to lead the core accounting curriculum changes are accounting educators.

The old cliché "the more things change, the more they stay the same" describes the historical trend of the introductory accounting sequence offered by most collegiate level business degree programs. Even a precursory review of the introductory curriculum and its plethora of textbooks would find little that has changed over the last century. While it is true that we have kept pace with contemporary accounting theory and that we have introduced electronic accounting methods along with a virtual network of supplements, the primary emphasis has remained the preparation of our students as if they were destined to become accounting professionals. The time has come to recognize that our information society commands a new perspective concerning the role of accounting in the development of our world's future leaders. Persuasive through we may be as accounting educators, the facts do not support the continuation of the accounting status quo, for the reality is that the collegiate introduction to accounting has failed to keep pace with the needs of the information age. As long as the accounting pedagogy continues to promote the stereotypical imagery which limits the availability of the accounting function to the selected few who are capable of perceiving the accounting process as but one step toward the information that facilitates decision making, our first course in accounting will remain nothing more than a mandated academic requirement belabored by both students and faculty. Tom Peters, futurist and management guru, provides what may be the most salient advice to academic accountants when he quotes Army chief of staff General Eric K Shineski: "If you don't like change, you're going to like irrelevance even less." For today's accounting educator, relevance cannot be taken for granted. For no longer is it just our students who question the relevance of required and elective courses, now, it is faculty in

a variety of disciplines who view accounting as a technical skill rather than an academic expertise consistent with the development of intellectual and managerial sophistication.

It is not that accounting principles and procedures are any less important to those who must compete in the new century's technocracy than they were to the historical development of business. Nor is it that we have failed to adopt contemporary technology into our course and textbook offerings. Rather, it is that what the information age has done for other disciplines, it has also done for accounting; technology and the Internet have removed much of the mystique about the accounting process. The accounting enigma has been solved through the development of "user friendly" software. Today's accounting systems, like today's desktop computers, depend not on the skill of those who input and output accounting information but on the ability of the professional accountants to install and maintain a system that is transparent to the user. What has happened is that the routine accounting functions that once required an in-depth knowledge of accounting techniques and were relegated to a few individuals with a specialized skill now require little more than a familiarity with a computer keyboard. Technology has become the contemporary panacea that enables anyone in the organization to provide information for analysis. Its panache is creating a new coterie of business professionals characterized by an intimate familiarity with data interpretation, not data collection and presentation. In this arena, their can be only one raison d être for an introductory accounting course, and that is to professionalize management where the essence of a sophisticated management function is in leadership, not debits and credits, preparing the statements and closing the accounts.

In 1963, Alfred Kuhn in his groundbreaking analysis of the behavioral sciences suggested ".... a movement is under way to combine, synthesize, and simplify some of the related fields of knowledge so that there will be fewer specialties, or at least a greater amount of common knowledge and technique which will permit a person to move more easily among different specialties, and make greater use of their special contributions." He argues persuasively that although it will not make anyone an expert in any one of the specialties, it should enable them to deal with events in any of the integrated disciplines. Long before the impact of the Information Age and the Internet, he prescribed the path that accounting faculties should have taken to integrate our introductory accounting course into specialized business disciplines. Rather, we assumed, as the times permitted, that accounting's importance to the business curriculum would not wan from its importance as the keystone of contemporary business curricula. We have long argued that accounting is the language of business, now we must design our courses so that accounting becomes the common denominator of the business curriculum, a powerful beginning course that unites all of the business specialties into a unified academic endeavor whose goal is to produce leaders prepared to accept the responsibilities and complexities of their society.

If introductory accounting courses are to maintain their importance to a business curriculum, the real challenge is to accounting educators. Can we, in fact, replace tradition with a new and exciting accounting curriculum? What we need is a dynamic and up to date accounting curriculum that reflects that accounting is not an old, traditional discipline, but rather one that has evolved and one that is important to a student's future success without regard to their chosen academic specialty. Course content and teaching methods need consideration but first we must acknowledge that accounting, unlike all other courses in the business curriculum, of necessity crosses all the traditional disciplines. It is this symbiosis that assures that the introductory

accounting sequence will not become little more than an elective except for those who would be accounting professionals. But, our success in remaining a vital component of tomorrow's collegiate business programs demands that our focus needs to turn away from accounting theory and procedures to a perception of the accounting information system as an integrated and important addition to the methodology of decision making. We must recognize and accept that for the majority of our students managerial literacy with accounting information should replace technical competency in accounting methods.

Perhaps the best example of accounting technical details versus accounting leadership comes from the late 1990s. The .com boom, fueled by young entrepreneurs and an aggressive investor base, viewed the accounting profession as old, stodgy, and unnecessary constrainers of innovation. Un-audited pro-forma statements took the place of Generally Accepted Accounting Principals, and 'new economy' valuation models replaced quantitative earnings based models of the past. But after the .com crash of 2000, investors and employees alike began to see the need for accounting leadership. Companies that were to survive had to not only adopt standard measures of financial statements, but also had to view their operations through cost accounting data to drive out costs and inefficiencies. While accounting specialists have the best tools to perform these types of financial and management accounting duties, the general business manager must possess the accounting leadership to recognize that these roles are crucial for success in all stages of a company's life cycle.

Shaw and Weber in a conversation with Wallace Stetinius, chairman of Cadmus Communications Corporation reported that 'nearly everyone in a key management position today manages people who know more about their specialties than he or she does." As the business curriculum adapts to meet the employment realities, many of our students will find less and less opportunity to elect accounting courses beyond their initial exposure in a required course sequence. These students will never understand what accounting can contribute to their success in their chosen specialty; Our future lies in accepting the responsibility that we have to assure that those who complete an introductory accounting course, perhaps their only accounting course, obtain the knowledge that will not only serve as the prerequisite to their adopted career choices but that will enable them to understand and communicate with their organization's specialists.

As members of the accounting professorate and of the accounting profession we must take the lead in curricular reform. The step will be bold; its success will depend upon our ability to free ourselves from the traditional restraints associated with preparation for accounting certification. Donald J. Hart in "The Journal of Accountancy" in 1969 succinctly summarized the need for curricular reform when he suggested that "the viewpoint that might be most helpful is one that would recognize that accounting should not be regarded as dependent upon a set of constraining tools which limit the user's potential, but a set of facilitative and create tools which can continue to enhance and elevate his competency."

CRITICAL ISSUES FACING WEB MBA PROGRAMS

J. Michael McDonald, Georgia Southern University
mmcdonal@georgiasouthern.edu
Joe Bocchi, Georgia WebMBA™
joe_bocchi@coles2.Kennesaw.edu
Carl Gooding, Jacksonville State University
cgooding@jsucc.jsu.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the growth, evolution, and development of Web MBA programs. Trends in the Web MBA marketplace are examined. Reasons for the rapid growth of this type of MBA are discussed. Finally, several critical issues are analyzed. The issues of quality, content, added value, drawbacks, and "ownership" are addressed. Finally, the future of on-line MBA education is considered.

INTRODUCTION: TRENDS IN THE WEB MBA MARKETPLACE

In a 2000 *Business Week* survey of "The Best MBA Programs," special attention is devoted to the growth of on-line MBA degrees. According to one estimate, as many as 5000 students were pursuing MBA degrees on-line as of 2000 (Dash, 2000). The research firm (Inter Ed) that developed the estimate for *Business Week* predicted that enrollment in virtual MBA Programs could grow to as many as 50,000 by 2002. Most experts were predicting a boom in on-line MBAs. Even the Director of Accreditation for A.A.C.S.B. International (Milton Blood) was quoted in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, "If you're in Omaha and you could get a degree from the University of Chicago (on-line), how could the local business school possibly compete?" (Mangan, 1999).

Dozens of top business schools jumped into what was considered a lucrative, fast growing market. Millions of dollars were spent as major technology consulting firms partnered up with top tier MBA programs like Harvard, Columbia, and Stanford. However, several of these ventures have collapsed and many schools have pulled back their efforts. In general, most experts say that many programs "misread the market" and that on-line MBA programs will be slower to mature than previously thought (Mangan, 2001).

Even Milton Blood later admits that, "So far, the on-line programs are not stealing students from traditional programs. They're creating new students . . . those who wouldn't have the time, or be in the right place, to enroll in a traditional program." (Mangan, 2001). According to an A.A.C.S.B. 2001 survey of 320 business schools nationwide, a total of 116,494 were taking MBA courses. However, only 2.5 percent (2,967) were enrolled in on-line or other distance programs.

This trend is in contrast to what many experts were predicting, that there would be at least a ten percent increase in enrollment in on-line MBAs by 2001.

In spite of the trends suggesting slow growth in on-line MBAs in traditional schools, some providers are apparently doing well. Schools like Phoenix University state that its on-line MBA enrollment grew from 1, 328 to 2,008 in 2001 alone, a gain of 51 percent. (Mangan, 2001). Other similar nontraditional schools are growing. Regis University in Denver says that it has 1,800 in its on-line MBA (*USA Today*, 2003).

WHAT TYPES OF STUDENTS ARE ATTRACTED TO TRADITIONAL ON-LINE MBA PROGRAMS?

For purposes of this analysis, "traditional" means A.A.C.S.B. accredited on-line MBAs. In general, there is very little empirical data in the literature suggesting a common profile of the on-line MBA student. One such study (Dunning and Vijayaraman, 2001) looked at the motivational factors, personal characteristics, and computer skills of on-line MBAs. Essentially this study finds that such students are mainly motivated by convenience and necessity. Also, the average age (32.5 for men, 30.8 for women) and gender proportions (64% men, 36% women) were similar to regular MBA students. Most on-line MBAs were found to be predominately technically trained as undergraduates. Similarly, on-line MBAs were working in predominately technical fields and possessed average to strong computer skills.

A more recent study (Bocchi, et.al., 2004) of four different class cycles involving 123 students in the Georgia WebMBA™ supports the notion that on-line programs are attracting a type of student that simply can't attend traditional programs. These students average 11 years of business experience, range in age from 30 to 35, are one third female, and travel significantly (10 hours per week). The students' major reasons for pursuing an on-line MBA were in order of priority: accreditation, accessibility, convenience, and fit with both career and personal growth plans. The Georgia WebMBA™ is 100% on-line and A.A.C.S.B. accredited. The program's accessibility and convenience factors are major factors influencing the decision to start the program. One of the most frequent comments from these students is that "the program fits my work schedule."

If on-line and traditional MBA students' only major differences are the "need for a program that fits my work schedule," then what other significant issues face Web MBA programs?

CRITICAL ISSUES AND OPPORTUNITIES FACING WEB MBAs

There are many issues in the evolving on-line MBA environment. Major issues include quality, content, and actual learning outcomes. Additional issues include potential drawbacks to learning on-line, and the measures of program quality that must be established for this new form of MBA course delivery. The final issue to be considered is who will actually "own" the course content.

Some of the critical issues are:

1. Is the educational experience, and actual content obtained in an on-line MBA equivalent to the traditional MBA?

This, perhaps, is the most essential issue facing both students and educators. For example, one emerging "view" is that there are "no significant differences" in learning outcomes between the two types of programs. Arbaugh (2000) has suggested that quality, educational experience, and content obtained are equivalent to the traditional MBA. Studies have suggested that skill sets learned by students taking on-line courses are learned as well if not better than in a traditional classroom setting (Eastman & Swift, 2000).

2) Are there benefits to delivering an MBA over the internet?

Studies also suggest that there might be benefits to delivering on-line MBA programs that are not found in traditional settings. Baily and Coltar (1994) found that students, because of a lack of perceived intimidation, actually prefer to communicate using technology-based format. Arbaugh (2000b) states that female students may participate at a higher rate in internet MBA courses than in traditional courses. As further research is established "significant differences" may be found in how different students conceptualize and utilize MBA material delivered on-line. Some, in fact, might learn more effectively using on-line technology.

3) What are the drawbacks to offering an MBA on the internet?

On the other hand, Dash (2000) suggests that the virtual MBA can have significant drawbacks. One major drawback appears to be that companies view students who have earned a virtual MBA differently than students earning an MBA from a traditional program. In an opinion survey conducted by Dash (2000), corporations report that they do not perceive that students earning an MBA over the internet as learning the same skill sets as their traditional counterparts. This perception of lower quality will be a serious limitation to the growth and credibility of on-line MBAs.

4) How is quality and added value measured for online MBA programs?

Another issue illustrated by Dash (2000) is that many new programs are being offered with no history and with no assurance of quality in instruction. Web MBA programs are not specifically tracked by accreditation groups such as A.A.C.S.B., and potential students may not be aware of the quality of the education that they are receiving. University MBA programs, traditional or on-line, that have satisfied A.A.C.S.B. criteria ensure that the level of program quality and instruction are high. Since students can now log onto the internet and take on-line courses from many places, they may not be aware of that institution's accreditation. The risk is that a student may perceive that they are getting a high quality MBA degree from an institution that may in fact be non-accredited by A.A.C.S.B.

5) Who will actually "own" the course content?

Various schools are approaching this differently according to their respective schools' missions, state regulations, and ownership. The normal situation, at least among state-owned and

state-funded universities, is that course content and instructional design will be owned by the state. Hence, individual professors will not stand to "gain" financially other than through incentives to teach using the internet. Normal incentives include extra pay, reduced course load, graduate assistance help, additional technical support, and better computing software/hardware.

However, some schools, like Duke's GEMBA program are attempting to "incentivize" faculty by designing in a course royalty fee. In a recent GMAC (Graduate Management Admissions Council) Annual Conference in Montreal, representatives from Duke reported that professors who custom design classes would receive a financial incentive to do so.

Several opportunities have surfaced when examining on-line MBA programs. Opportunities include the ability to reach potential students that traditional programs could not, providing universities the opportunity to build their "brand name" and offering greater flexibility in a program that traditional programs cannot offer.

Some of the opportunities:

1) Does a Web MBA program have the ability to reach new students?

The answer to this question is "yes," Web MBA programs do have the ability to reach out to students that traditional programs cannot reach. Because these programs are not geographically bound they have the ability to reach anyone in the world (Eastman & Swift, 2000). As potential students learn about the availability of this educational opportunity, the likelihood of new entrants to MBA programs increases.

2) Can universities build their "brand name" using Web MBA programs?

Universities that fail to offer on-line MBA programs may not be taking advantage of "brand extension." (Mangan, 1999). Criteria for credible business schools may be the presence of an on-line MBA option. Early entrance to the market will likely be an issue here due to the advantages that accrue to first mover advantages. Universities that wait to develop their on-line MBA programs might have a more difficult time building awareness. However, another view is that late arrivers might learn from the mistakes of early entrants. Time and experience will be the final judges of who will emerge with the greater market advantage.

3) Can Web MBA programs offer greater flexibility to students?

The answer to this question is "yes," Web MBA programs do offer a greater level of flexibility. One of the main benefits for students taking courses on the internet is that they are not geographically bound. Universities have also found that they can charge more for these programs because students see the greater flexibility as a value added aspect of the program (Dash, 2000). Students have the flexibility that they can even go to class at any time of the day, any day of the week, from anywhere in the world (Eastman & Swift, 2000). This flexibility will enable many time-pressed, traveling, and geographically isolated students the opportunity to continue their graduate business education.

CONCLUSION

In the emerging market of on-line MBA education, business schools have learned that there are many issues and opportunities facing them. As the issues and opportunities are defined and explored, on-line MBA programs will expand and mature.

Two issues with which business schools must contend are the continuing question of learning outcomes and delivery of on-line programs. Further study is necessary to determine the differences in learning between on-line and traditional MBA programs. As this issue becomes more defined, the issues of quality, perception and ownership of course material must also be resolved. Business schools that address these issues and chose to develop an on-line Web MBA program can benefit from the experiences of early entrants to the market

Opportunities that are present for business schools that develop on-line Web MBA programs include greater flexibility in regards to students, reaching a new market of students and further development of university "brand name". In this new, emerging market, one thing is certain, Web MBA programs are here to stay.

REFERENCES

Arbaugh, J.B. (2000a). Virtual classroom characteristics and student satisfaction with internet-based MBA courses, *Journal of Management Education, 24*(1), 32.

Arbaugh, J.B. (2000b). Virtual classroom versus physical classroom: An exploratory study of class discussion patterns and student learning in an asynchronous internet-based MBA course, *Journal of Management Education, 24*(2), 213.

Baily, E.K. & M. Coltar. (1994). Teaching via the internet, *Communication Education, 43* (April), 184-193.

Blummenstyk, G. (1999). The marketing intensifies in distance learning, *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 45* (April 9), A27-A30.

Bocchi, J., J. K. Eastman & C. Owens Swift. (2004). Retaining the on-line learner: Profile of students in an on-line MBA program and implications for teaching them, (forthcoming), *Journal of Education for Business.*

Boston, R.L. (1992). Remote delivery of instruction via the PC and modem: What have we learned?, *The American Journal of Distance Education, 6* (3), 45-57.

Cook, K. C. (1999). Introduction of reviews on distance education books, *Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 13*(1), 97-100.

Dash, E. (2000). The virtual MBA: A work in progress, *Business Week*, (October 2), 96.

Dunning, K. & B. Vijayaraman. (2000/2001). Motivational factors, characteristics, and computer skills of MBA students in web-based courses, *Journal of Computer Information Systems,* (Winter), *41*(2), 1-9.

Eastman, J. K. & C. Owens Swift. (2000). Online business programs: An overview of opportunities in MBA education, *Association of Marketing Theory and Practice*, (March), 174.

Hartley, D. (1995). The McDonaldization of higher education, *Oxford Review of Education, 21,* 409-423.

Levernier, E.L. (1998). Report on AACSB accredited internet-based MBA programs, unpublished study.

Mangan, K.S. (1999). Top business schools seek to ride a bull market in on-line MBA's, *The Chronicle of Higher Education, XLV* (19), 27-28.

McDonald, J. M. & E. L. Levernier. (2000). The evolution of web-based MBA programs: Driving forces and common themes, *Association of Marketing Theory and Practice*, (March), 170-173.

Merisotis, J. P. & R. A. Phipps. (1999). What's the difference? *Change, 31* (3), 12-17.

Newman, R. & F. Johnson. (1999). Sites for power and knowledge? Towards a critique of the virtual university. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 20*(1), 79-88.

Ridley, D. & H. Sammour. (1996). Viable alternative means of instruction delivery: Online courses as an alternative teaching method, *College Student Journal, 30* (September), 337-339.

Schneider, M. (2000). From B-school to E-venture, *Business Week*, (July 10), 10.

Sonner, B. S. (1999). Success in the capstone business course-Assessing the effectiveness of distance learning, *Journal of Education for Business, 74*(4), 243-247.

More students get MBAs on-line, *U.S.A. Today*, Feb. 11, 2003.

Author Biographies

J. Michael McDonald received his Ph.D. from the University of Georgia and is currently Director of COBA Graduate Studies at Georgia Southern University. He helped originate the Georgia WebMBA™.

Joe Bocci received his Doctorate of Arts in English from the State University of New York at Albany. He is Director of the Georgia WebMBA™.

Carl Gooding received his Ph.D. from the University of Georgia and currently teaches in the College of Business at Jacksonville State University. He helped found the Georgia WebMBA™.

AN ASSESSMENT OF UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS PROGRAM ADMISSIONS STANDARDS

James Morgan, Northern Arizona University
James.Morgan@nau.edu
Gary Tallman, Northern Arizona University
Gary.Tallman@nau.edu
Robert Williams, Northern Arizona University
Robert.Williams@nau.edu

ABSTRACT

Some business schools apply selection criteria to limit student admissions to their undergraduate program (major status). Other schools allow all students accepted for admission to the university to major in business. Where additional admissions criteria are used, there appear to be substantial variations in the timing of admission to the professional program, and a variety of alternative criteria used in determining which students to admit.

This paper examines undergraduate professional program admission criteria used by a random sample of one-fourth of all U.S. business schools accredited by the AACSB. Characteristics of admissions criteria across the schools in our sample together with some general demographic information about the distribution of schools are presented here.

BACKGROUND

AACSB International recognizes in its standards the importance of admission policies designed to support the achievement of the school's mission, and it further states that admission standards are an influential factor in determining the character of a school. The AACSB indicates that a variety of information can be used in making admission decisions and includes "scholastic achievement, leadership experience, scores on standardized exams, work record, and other indices" (AACSB, 2003). There are no specific procedures established by the AACSB as to how schools are to implement an admissions policy.

A number of studies have looked at demographic characteristics of students such as their age, sex, race and years of work experience, GMAT scores and undergraduate GPA measures as predictors of student performance in graduate programs. However, little attention has been given to undergraduate admission standards. Two past studies have looked at the issue of defining effective admission criteria for undergraduate business programs. One study focused on admission to accounting programs and found that GPA at 45 semester hours in conjunction with other variables proved to be a strong predictor of success (Clark and Sweeney, 1985). Another study used a composite GPA for five sophomore level courses required for admission to the business college and found a strong predictive value for this variable (Pharr, Bailey, and Dangerfield, 1993). They also

found that performance in these sophomore level required courses to be a stronger predictor of performance in the business major than ACT and SAT scores achieved prior to university admission. While the studies cited above looked at specific proposed admission criteria for business programs, there are no available studies that systematically examine what admission strategies are actually being used in undergraduate business programs. Do schools require minimum university GPA scores to be considered for admission? Can students enter into the major as a freshman? Are there multiple stages for entry to a major? These and other questions are the focus of this paper.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

Data for this study were collected from the Member Profile section for each domestic (only U.S schools were analyzed) undergraduate school or college of business on the AACSB accreditation list, from the school or college's web site and from the school or college catalog. There are 412 accredited U.S. schools or colleges of business on the AACSB accreditation list

A systematic sampling procedure was used to gather data from every fourth school. If for some reason the school or college chosen did not have material posted on the Member Profile section of the AACSB web site or did not have an undergraduate program, the school immediately below the selected one was used. In the rare case when the second school or college also did not have data, the school or college above the first one was used. The sampling procedure resulted in a sample size of 103 school or colleges of business for investigation.

Data collected from the sample members included the funding source of the school, public or private, whether accreditation was business only or business and accounting and whether a doctoral program was present. School web sites and on-line catalog information were used to determine the type of criteria used by these sample schools to determine which students are admitted and retained in their undergraduate business major programs. This information was coded by the authors of the paper in a standard format after initial coding samples were used to insure consistency in data collection. The details of this data set are discussed below.

FINDINGS

This section provides a set of descriptive statistics summarizing the results of our investigation. A major thrust of this study is the attempt to identify each of the distinct methods that business schools have used to control admissions to the professional business program. We were able to identify a total of six methods, three of them used by schools allowing freshmen to be admitted to the business school and three used by schools requiring formal admission to the business program at a later point. These alternative methods are

Freshman admission

Based on University admission with no further restrictions
Based on distinct and more stringent requirements than those for University admission
Based on University admission, but with restriction on continuation in the major

Professional Program Admission

Based on University GPA
Based on performance in a set of prescribed courses
Based on a combination of University GPA and grades in a set of prescribed courses

The first criterion under freshman admission, in essence says that anyone admitted to the university can be a business major. The second applies standards based upon standardized test scores, high school grades, and sometimes application letters and related criteria. To be placed in this category the school must have a defined quantitative standard that is higher than that for University admission or must have stated that admission of freshmen is on a competitive basis and is controlled by the school. The third allows anyone accepted to the university into the business major, but requires that students meet some performance standard to remain a business major. The performance standards used are very similar to the standards for professional program admission described below.

Programs requiring a formal process for admission to the professional business program generally base their admission decisions on University GPA, GPA in, or successful completion of, a set of prescribed courses, or a combination of these two criteria. A small number of schools evaluate additional criteria, such as, essays or interviews as a part of their admission decision. For schools requiring a prescribed set of courses (often referred to as the lower division core) it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between having a set of prerequisite courses and having an admission standard to the professional program. For the purposes of this study, performance in a set of prescribed courses is considered to be an admission standard only if a GPA of at least 2.0 is required for those courses.

Table 1 presents the distribution of private and public schools across the admission criteria types described above. Note that a strong majority of the schools are public. There is a substantial difference between the criteria used by private versus public schools and this is reflected in the highly significant Chi-Square statistic. Almost two-thirds of the private schools allow freshman admission to the business school based on university admission with no additional criteria, while less than a quarter of public schools take this approach. Only four schools in the sample use a professional program admission standard based upon university GPA alone, while each of the other criteria are employed by at least ten percent of the schools in the study.

Table 1: Distribution of Business School Admission Criteria by Funding Status

Criteria Used	Private		Public		Total	
Freshman Admission						
University Standard	18	(62%)	17	(23%)	35	(33%)
Higher Business School Standard	3	(10%)	10	(14%)	13	(12%)
Univ. Standard with Contin. Standard	4	(14%)	16	(22%)	20	(19%)

Criteria Used	Private		Public		Total	
Professional Program Admission						
University GPA	1	(3%)	3	(4%)	4	(4%)
Prescribed Courses GPA	1	(3%)	12	(16%)	13	(12%)
Univ. and Prescribed Courses GPAs	2	(7%)	16	(22%)	18	(17%)
Chi-Square: Value 15.5, Degrees of Freedom 5, Probability Private and Public have = distribution .0085						

Including programs that allow freshman admissions but require students to meet a standard to continue as business majors as well as programs that require professional program admission, more than half of the schools impose some form of performance standard in all university classes and/or a set of prescribed courses. The remaining tables look at descriptive statistics relating to these performance standards.

The first two columns of Table 2 present the distribution of required University GPA levels among schools requiring students to meet such a requirement. The most common required levels are in the range from 2.0 through 2.75 with a smattering of higher levels.

Table 2: Required GPAs for Business School Admission or Continuation

	University GPA		LD Core Class GPA	
Required GPA Level	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
None or < 2.0	64	62.1%	50	48.5%
2.00 - 2.24	12	11.7%	37	36.5%
2.25 - 2.49	9	8.7%	6	5.8%
2.50 - 2.74	14	13.6%	6	5.8%
2.75 - 2.99	1	1.0%	2	1.9%
3.00 - 3.24	2	1.9%	1	1.0%
3.25-2.49	1	1.0%		

The last two columns of Table 2 present a similar set of required grade distributions for sets of prescribed lower division (LD) courses. Over 50 percent of our sample schools use criteria of this type. The strong clustering at the level of 2.0 is in part due to a number of schools requiring a "C" or better in each of the courses in the set. If that was the only requirement listed, the required GPA was shown as 2.0, although, no Ds in any of the classes is undoubtedly a higher standard than just a 2.0 GPA. About 60% of the schools with a lower division core admission standard (33 of them) do require a C or better in each course. In most cases, these GPA levels are stated as criteria

for consideration for admission. Note that very few schools have a standard for this criterion that is 2.75 or above.

It is also of interest to note which courses are most frequently included in the set of lower division courses used in program admission or continuation standards. Table 3 lists these courses in order from the most to the least frequently required. It should be noted that classes are included in this list only if they are used in the admission / continuation criteria. English and math classes are almost universally required, but grades in these classes are not always included in the admission / continuation GPA.

Table 3: Required Lower Division Core Classes in Business School Admission/Continuation Standards

Course	Schools Requiring	
	Number	Percentage
Financial Accounting	52	96.3%
Microeconomics	52	96.3%
Macroeconomics	52	96.3%
Managerial Accounting	45	83.3%
Statistics 1	44	81.5%
Computer or Mgt. Info Systems	39	72.2%
English 1	25	46.3%
College Algebra / Finite Math	25	46.3%
Business Calculus	24	44.4%
Business Law	21	38.9%
English 2	19	35.2%
Oral Communications	13	24.1%
Statistics 2	12	22.2%
Introduction to Business	11	20.4%
Calculus 1	9	16.7%
Business Communications	7	13.0%

Table 4 shows the distribution of the number of required lower division classes included in admission and continuation standards. Most schools appear to include from 6 to 10 classes in these standards with 6 being the most frequent number. Schools do very somewhat with respect to the timing of admission decisions. It was not possible to systematically capture these differences, but

it is fair to say that most programs with 6 or fewer required class before acceptance are designed to admit students after 3 semesters or less while those with 8 or more required classes would rarely admit students prior to the end of their fourth semester.

Table 4: Number of Lower Division Required Classes in Admission / Continuation Standards

Number of Classes	Schools Requiring	
	Number	Percentage
4	2	3.7%
5	3	5.6%
6	16	29.6%
7	6	11.1%
8	10	18.5%
9	8	14.8%
10	6	11.1%
11	3	5.6%

SUMMARY

This study presents results from an analysis of admission criteria of accredited business schools. A variety of types of admission and retention standards are used. Schools allowing freshman admission in some cases applied no standard beyond that required for university admission, while others required a higher standard for freshmen admitted to the business school and still others allowed admission of all accepted students, but used continuation standards to assure the quality of their graduates. Schools not allowing freshman admission to the business major almost always used some combination of the students overall GPA and/or their grades in a set of lower division core courses as their primary admission criteria.

Another important finding is the difference between the standards applied by publicly funded schools and those of private schools. Private schools were much less likely to have formal program admissions processes separate from university admission. This may reflect a greater ability of private schools to secure resources needed to effectively teach all qualified applicants or it may reflect stronger pressure for private school to insure sufficient enrollment.

REFERENCES

AACSB International. (2003). Accreditation Standards. Retrieved from http:/www.aacsb.edu/accreditation/standards.asp, 31.

Clark, R.L., R. B. Sweeney (1985). Admission to Accounting Programs: Using a Discriminant Model as a Classification Procedure. *The Accounting Review, LX*(3), 508-518.

Pharr, S., J. Bailey, B. Dangerfield, (1993). Admission/Continuance Standards as Predictors of Academic Performance of Business Students. *Journal of Education for Business,* (November/December), 69-74.

IMPROVISATIONAL TEACHING: HOW A MANAGEMENT EDUCATOR IS LIKE A JAZZ SOLOIST

Gordon Meyer, Canisius College
meyerg@canisius.edu
Girish Shambu, Canisius College
shambu@canisius.edu

ABSTRACT

Jazz improvisation can be a fruitful metaphor for effective teaching, provoking us to think of teaching in different and stimulating ways. Jazz soloists engage audiences by improvising spontaneous, unrehearsed, not-written-down performances. Teachers in higher education are increasingly expected to engage students in active learning. Those teachers who are able to improvise - and respond to the emergent dynamics of the classroom - are more able to foster such student engagement.

In this paper, we develop the metaphor of classroom teacher as jazz improviser. Our emphasis is on the improvisational solo and how teachers can be like effective jazz soloists. Remaining in touch with the musical and ensemble contexts are keys to effective jazz soloing; similarly, awareness of the substantive context and of student-teacher interactions is important to improvisational teaching. Good jazz solos swing, providing momentum to the performance. We argue that improvisational teaching can also swing and, in doing so, promote participant engagement and increase the likelihood that the contributions of both teachers and students will take a class session to unexpected places.

Jazz improvisation can be a fruitful metaphor for effective teaching, provoking us to think of teaching in different and stimulating ways. Jazz soloists engage audiences by improvising spontaneous, unrehearsed, not-written-down performances. In this paper, we develop the metaphor of classroom teacher as jazz improviser. Borrowing from Gridley (1994), we develop parallels between jazz soloing and teaching. Six practices form the foundation for jazz soloing and improvisational teaching. We discuss the importance of teachers rooting their improvisations in a structure for the class and developing ideas that are compatible with it. Swing provides momentum and energy to a jazz performance and to an effective learning environment. We note how teachers need to "edit" their improvisations, and "think ahead." Finally, teachers can view their students as accompanists who can stimulate improvisational teaching.

PRACTICE #1: REMEMBER THE CHORD CHANGES

In most jazz performances, a tune or composition is first played once through, this statement of the tune being known as the "head." After the head is played, improvisation on the tune begins.

While improvisation is occurring, the underlying instrumental accompaniment consists of the chord changes of the tune. Thus, while the solo departs from the melody of the original tune, the performance itself remains anchored to a supporting foundation consisting of the chord changes of the tune. The chord changes therefore provide an underlying structure which grounds the improvisation and renders it more accessible than it otherwise might have been.

Similarly, it is useful to formulate, as a preparation for improvisation in the classroom, an underpinning structure for both the course and any particular class session. In an undergraduate production/operations management course, we might allocate five hours to the topic of facilities layout, working from an estimate that it might take four hours to cover the topic using a traditional approach that made little or no use of classroom improvisation. The extra hour would allow for exploration of unforeseen areas of inquiry in the classroom. In the context of a particular classroom session, we may identify the structure to be, for example: an introduction to three common layout models (product-, process- and cellular); and an examination of the issues of workflow, capital and labor intensivities, required skill levels and throughput time in each of the three models. This structure would serve an analogous function to the underlying "chord changes" of a jazz performance.

Springing from the above example, we would attempt to stimulate discussion in several potential directions, depending upon the willingness and interest of the class to explore these directions. For example, in the facilities layout session above, discussion in a past class session led from capital intensivity of a product layout to equipment inflexibility, equipment investment levels, high entry and exit barriers, financial justification of expensive specialized machinery, and the critical importance of machine utilization levels, concluding by resurrecting a debate on efficiency- and effectiveness-based performance measures.

In another section of the same course, the discussion took seed, as before, in the capital intensivity of the process, but then led into the resulting low labor intensivity of those processes, required level of employee skill, employee authority and responsibility in quality control decision-making, reliance on final inspections, levels of scrap and rework costs, long throughput times, and thus poor effectiveness in quick response to customers. Curiously, in a surprise typical of improvisation, the discussion ended just as it had in the other section, with a contrasting of effectiveness- and efficiency-based measures. The presence of the underlying structure (contrasting the three layout models on a certain set of criteria) allowed a home base from which to depart on journeys to new ports of interest over the course of the class session.

PRACTICE #2: SWING

In jazz, the all-important feeling of "swing" is characterized by a steady tempo, a sense of group cohesion, and an energy and spirit. Swing provides a momentum to the performance, giving it a rhythmic tug that carries the ensemble forward. A performance does not necessarily have to be up-tempo and fast in order to swing. Slower-tempo tunes ("ballads") can swing too, as jazz pianist/arranger Alan Broadbent points out, crediting pioneer Bill Evans with that revelation. Syncopation (accenting "weak" beats rather than "strong" ones, thus subverting expectation) and playing slightly behind the beat also contribute to the sense of swing.

A classroom session swings by the presence of momentum and energy, which help foster a sense of engagement. Syncopation has its analogue in consciously employing an element of "surprise" in the classroom. This might be achieved by varying the mode of presentation, for example, by choosing and alternating between using the blackboard, slides, and throwing questions out directly to students. We often create impromptu in-class group assignments, depending on a turn a class discussion might have taken. For example, a discussion of mass production and The Machine That Changed The World (Womack, Jones and Roos, 1991), led to the beginnings of a debate on standardization. Instead of continuing with the debate in the large-class format, we divided the class into small groups and assigned them the separate tasks of cataloging the benefits and drawbacks of product and process standardization. We had each group choose someone who would record its work on a transparency. Each group was given ten minutes to prepare its points, and then we requested that the person sitting to the right of the recorder present the group's work to the class. We mention this example to point out the element of "unpredictability" that can be incorporated into a classroom. This element of "chance," integral to improvisation, prevents the ensemble from settling comfortably into pre-determined patterns and roles, thus fostering an "active" and alert spirit in the classroom.

PRACTICE #3: CREATE PHRASES COMPATIBLE WITH THE CHORD CHANGES

One of Gridley's invocations for improvisers is to "create phrases compatible with the chord changes" (page 28). Again, we see how fundamental the underlying structure of the composition is to improvisational jazz. As we noted above, there are multiple possible sources of such "changes" that provide a basic and shared structure for a class session. In teaching, the "phrases" created by the improviser can be rooted in the content of a session or in the processes that are used to facilitate learning of that content. For instance, an improvising teacher might ask students to respond to a list of questions or to complete tasks that relate to the topic of the session and are rooted in assigned reading or linked to a session outline. An improvising teacher might also make an on-the-spot decision to use a small group process for discussion in order to sustain the swing of a session. At another time, because she wants to generate quick participation and individual accountability, she might give students some individual reflection time and then simply call on individual students in some announced order. The key to this principle of effective improvisation is that the teacher introduces elements that fit the underlying structure of the session. This means, of course, that the teacher must consistently remain cognizant of that structure - the content, process and feel of the session.

It also means that the teacher will find herself choosing not to play potential "phrases" which might take the session too far from its "chord changes." When a student question threatens to take the session in a direction that will depart from the underlying structure, the teacher must be willing either to reframe the question such that responding to it does fit within the structure or to choose not to address the question within that session. In addition, a teacher must be willing to reject a process that is not synchronous with the structure of the session.

In an organizational behavior or human resource management course, we will often teach equity theory as a way of understanding workplace motivation. A central concept in equity theory is a person's perception of the ratio of his or hre outcomes from doing the job to what he or she

contributes or puts into the job. As an instructor, one can invite students to improvise by listing factors that they consider when evaluating whether they are being treated fairly on the job. An improvising instructor might record those factors so that all students can see them in two columns sorted as work outcomes or inputs, but without labeling the columns. Inevitably, some items fit into both categories. For example, some students think taking a less popular or more onerous work schedule is an input that merits special reward. But one's work schedule can also be an outcome/reward for good performance. Such a phrase from a student soloist allows the improvising instructor to reinforce how central individual perceptions are to equity theory and what concepts are compatible with that theory. In a further example of soloing in a way that is compatible with the changes when discussing equity theory, we note that one might choose to resist the temptation, in the context a discussion of motivation, to note that equity is only one norm that might inform judgments of justice. While a professor might note that rewards can be allocated on the basis of equality or need, rather than equity, doing so could be seen as a failure to play within the structure - the chord changes - of equity theory. This illustration is also consistent with the next principle: edit your work as a soloist.

PRACTICE #4: EDIT YOUR WORK

Gridley notes that in jazz, successful improvisers seek to create clear musical statements by editing their work. With experience, we have come to understand the value of editing our statements for clarity. One of us uses overheads as a teaching tool; over the years, his overheads have become much less wordy and now emphasize only the essential points. We have had similar lessons with regard to class handouts.

This feature of jazz improvisation can help remind improvising teachers that improvisation does not mean being profligate by telling meandering stories that lack focus and clarity. It also should discourage teachers from concluding that sharing more knowledge is always better than being concise and cogent. Improvising teachers should learn to be vigilant about pruning their verbal contributions of elements that obfuscate or detract from the critical points. For us, teaching multiple sections of the same course in back-to-back periods provides many opportunities for editing our solos. It is common for us to remind ourselves in the second session where we do not want to return to from the earlier session.

PRACTICE #5: THINK AHEAD

Often, good jazz improvisers play solos which are composed of phrases and lines that seem carefully thought-through in advance. It is often said that a good improvised solo tells a story, taking us from point A to point B in a journey that seems logical, interesting and yet surprising. This means that the improviser is both attentive to the present (as he plays his solo, moving from one note to the next) but is also thinking ahead to how each new phrase fits into the overall context of the "story" the solo is telling. Often, he may even have a certain destination that he will eventually wind his solo toward as he begins to conclude his performance.

And so it is in the classroom. For example, beginning a discussion of changeover time reduction, we try to get the class to reflect upon the impact on batch size. Once the class realizes

that shorter changeover times can mean smaller, more frequent batches, we can help steer the discussion so that by the end of the class session, we have addressed at least three important points that I have thought ahead to: the quickness of response to customers; lower inventory carrying costs; and lower rework costs. Thus, while arguments unfold and a class discussion progresses, it is useful to think ahead to certain intermediate destinations in mind. This not only helps control the line of discussion so it does not veer completely off-course, but also ensures the treatment of certain critical ideas that may be lost in the shuffle of a freewheeling, completely improvisatory class session.

PRACTICE #6: RESPOND TO YOUR ACCOMPANISTS

Readers may be asking themselves whether we consider teaching to be a solo performance in the absence of an accompanying ensemble. We, most decidedly, do not. In fact, we find that our students are very often very capable accompanists and even fellow soloists. Seeing students as such is essential to using improvisational teaching to engage students in their learning. Thus, Gridley's suggestion that an improviser "responds to the rhythmic figures of his accompanists so that a creative interaction will occur" (page 28) is very appropriate to the classroom. Effective improvisational teaching builds upon the musical contributions - both rhythmic and melodic - of students. In fact, this feature of teaching - the interdependence of teacher and students - is what makes improvisation requisite. Because we cannot always predict the content of student questions or the swing of a class session, it is desirable to be flexible enough to adapt to our students as accompanists and fellow soloists. In leading discussions, skilled teachers point out how points made by individual students are related and how such points can contribute to one's understanding of a topic.

DOWNSIDES TO IMPROVISATIONAL TEACHING

We are aware that improvisational teaching involves giving up some things that teachers sometimes hold dear. By its very nature, such teaching means that one should not expect uniformity of either the processes or outcomes of class sessions. Therefore, testing and other evaluation processes must be sensitive to the specific experiences of an ensemble. This may mean that a teacher's favorite questions or assignments are not appropriate to a given group's experiences. (Unless, of course, as is common in our teaching, you build your sessions and soloing on a structure which assumes those favorite questions.)

Improvisational teaching is also not for those who are not willing and eager to embrace a certain level of ambiguity in the classroom. We are not always able to predict where our students' solos will take us or that we will be able to answer their questions satisfactorily. Our students do not always remember the chord changes, leaving us with the burden of working to understand their ideas and questions and, when possible, to respond to them in ways that help them learn those changes. Needless to say, the improvisational teacher can not always predict and control the music made in his or her classroom.

A CODA

Improvisational teaching is fraught with risks, uncertainties, and the unexpected. And yet these challenges can result in a teaching experience that is exciting, surprising, and more rewarding than the assured comforts of a pre-arranged teaching plan.

REFERENCES

Gridley, Mark (1994). *Jazz Styles: History and Analysis* (5th edition). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Womack, James P., Jones, Daniel T., and Roos, Daniel (1990). *The Machine That Changed The World.* New York: Harper-Perennial.

THE PREPAREDNESS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CONCERNING THE EDUCATION OF LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

David K. Christiansen, Idaho State University
chridav2@isu.edu
Susan J. Jenkins, Idaho State University
jenksusa@isu.edu
Janaan Haskell, Idaho State University
econed@isu.edu

ABSTRACT

As the number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students increases in American secondary schools, so does the need to properly educate them. An increasing challenge for educators is to enable LEP students to gain access to the core curriculum in the mainstream classroom. The following paper discusses research conducted in three, rural, Utah school districts, pertaining to secondary teachers' feelings of preparedness in educating LEP students. Results of the surveys indicated that teachers were not able to recognize the unique needs of LEP students, nor understand how to help them gain access to the mainstream curriculum. The need for specific training on LEP teaching strategies and techniques was an underlying concern for most educators.

INTRODUCTION

In the year 2000, the number of LEP (Limited English Proficient) students nationwide was estimated at 2.4 million (Triennial Comprehensive Report on Immigration, 2000). States with large, urban school districts, such as California, Texas, and New York, have been addressing the challenge of how to educate LEP students for years. However, these large, urban districts are not alone in facing the challenge. Rural school districts throughout the nation are showing huge gains in the number of LEP students enrolled. For example, according to the Idaho Evaluation of Programs (2000), the number of LEP students in Idaho increased from 2,992 in 1990 to 16,338 in 2000. Utah had an increase of almost 2,000 LEP students between the years 2001 and 2002, and that number is still increasing (Utah Office of Education, 2003). With the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLBA), all states are now accountable for the education and performance of all students, and LEP students are specifically included in this accountability.

The issue of particular interest in this research was whether or not teachers from rural schools feel prepared for educating LEP students; and if teachers do not feel prepared, what can be done to help them become more prepared. The following research questions were addressed: 1) In general, what are the problems that educators face when educating LEP students? 2) How can LEP students gain access to the mainstream, core curriculum? and 3) What more can be done to better prepare educators for teaching LEP students?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A growing challenge facing teachers today is that of helping LEP students to gain access to the mainstream, core curriculum including math, science, English, and social studies. Because of the language barrier, teachers can become frustrated, discouraged, and even give up on these students. According to a qualitative study conducted by Markham (2000), the majority of teachers stated that working with LEP students was very stressful. Most indicated that a challenge for them was learning how to cope with language and cultural barriers. Another issue cited was the lack of support and training provided by the school district. Some teachers commented that little is being done to integrate the LEP students into the mainstream curriculum. A rural, elementary school teacher stated:

Children who have experienced a lot of disruption in the recent past are brought to the U.S. and immediately enrolled in my classes. Many times it takes months to recover from the culture shock in order for them to feel ready to learn. They might also be educationally, emotionally, and socially deprived. It takes a very long time for them to be ready to learn. Sometimes I wonder if the gap will ever be narrow enough for them to be completely accepted socially and emotionally. (Markham, 2000, p. 273)

Many teachers are overwhelmed and confused with the LEP students that are in their classrooms. Some feel that it is a language issue, but according to Baker (1999) language is not the real issue. "Teachers shouldn't worry much about how they *teach* English as long as they use *enough* English. The research shows that nothing else matters all that much in the normal classroom setting" (p. 708). Ultimately, the real issue, which is often overlooked, is that the teachers' main objective is to help all students gain access to the mainstream, core curriculum. In mostly rural states, there are many small, isolated school districts with no English as a Second Language (ESL) programs for the LEP students. Therefore, the LEP students are placed into the mainstream curriculum, and the teachers are left to decide for themselves how best to educate these students. Specific strategies for teaching and training need to be developed for these rural school districts.

In an attempt to identify key concerns with respect to the education of LEP students in *American secondary* schools, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSCO) (1993) conducted a telephone survey of ESL and bilingual educators. A total of 33 state directors in 32 states responded to the survey. The states included in the survey contained over 75% of the *total* LEP student population enrolled in schools nationally The issue of greatest concern was that LEP students were unable to gain access to the mainstream, core curriculum. Not only must the LEP students learn English, but all the other skills necessary to fulfill standard requirements..

Directors from states with *rural* school districts (CCSCO, 1993) expressed concerns about how they would properly implement LEP programs into their schools. Most of these states have experienced growth in LEP students, but their numbers are still comparatively low, and therefore, limited funds are available for these programs.

A national survey of school teachers was conducted by Roseberry and Eicholtz (1994) to assess teachers' services to LEP students. Results indicated: 1) 65.7% of the teachers did not speak or understand the language that the LEP students spoke. 2) 52.3% stated that they lacked appropriate assessment instruments. 3) 14.6% lacked knowledge about the children's cultural characteristics.

And, 4) 12.7% did not have the ability to distinguish a language *difference* from a language *disorder*.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Teachers within three, Utah school districts were surveyed concerning their feelings of preparedness in teaching LEP students. The three districts involved were excellent samples because they reflect the typical white-majority, middle-class schools that are experiencing steady growth in LEP students. With the cooperation of the BYU-Public Education Partnership, a questionnaire was created. It contained eleven, Likert-scale questions. The BYU-PEP, which has jurisdiction over the three school districts involved in the study, assisted in reviewing and evaluating the questions.

The dependent variable in the teacher study was *the general feeling of preparedness among secondary school teachers for educating LEP students*. This variable was divided and evaluated by eleven, Likert-scale questions. These questions were:

1. From your personal observations of your school, how many students with limited English proficiency (LEP) do you think are enrolled?
2. How much has, or would, specific training in educating LEP students help(ed) you in your current educational position?
3. How much has, or would, specific training in multicultural education help(ed) you in educating LEP students?
4. How well do you feel that LEP student's function(ed) in your classroom?
5. How often do you feel that you need(ed) to change your teaching methods to facilitate the learning of LEP students?
6. How often have you had disciplinary problems or misunderstandings in class due solely to the fact that the individuals were LEP?
7. If you have received training from the school in educating LEP students, how helpful was it for you personally?
8. How much do you feel that having a TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) teacher in your school is (would be) helpful for you personally?
9. Do you ever feel frustrated when you teach LEP students?
10. How prepared do you currently feel to educate LEP students?
11. How important is it for you personally to receive additional training concerning how to better educate LEP students?

The independent variables in this study, which were considered as having an effect on the preparedness of the school teachers, were:

1. Frequency - The amount of experience that teachers have had with LEP students.
2. Training - Forms of specialized ESL or multicultural training that educators may have previously had in universities or through public school in-service programs.
3. Outside Experience - Previous cultural experience that educators have had with foreign language and international travel or living.
4. Subject Taught - The content subject predominately taught by the teacher.

RESULTS

The overall response rate was 66%. Descriptive data with interpretations are presented first, followed by inferential data with significant findings.

Table 1
Response Rates of Districts

District	N size	Response (n)	Response Rate
Provo District	210	86	41%
Nebo District	258	240	93%
Alpine District	588	366	62%
All Districts	1056	692	66%

Variable One: Frequency

It was hypothesized that there would be a significant difference between teachers according to the amount of exposure (frequency) they had experienced with LEP students. Of a response pool of more than 600, only 50 teachers stated that they had "never dealt" with an LEP student.. These teachers who had never taught LEP students did not feel the need for specialized training, even though they did not feel prepared to teach LEP students. In general, however, *all* teachers indicated that they felt unprepared to educate LEP students and that LEPs were struggling in their classes.

Teachers were also compared by the *amount* of experience they had previously completed with LEP students. This amount of experience was divided into three parts: those who *sometimes* dealt with LEPs, those who *often* dealt with LEPs, and those who *very often* dealt with LEPs. The amount of exposure that teachers had with LEP students proved to be a significant factor in influencing teachers' feelings of preparedness. The more experience a teacher had with LEP students, the more they desired training in LEP strategies.

Variable Two: Training

It was theorized that teachers who had received specialized training would feel more prepared to teach LEP students than teachers who had no such training. It was surprising, that there were no significant differences between teachers who had received training and those who had not. How well the LEP students functioned in the classroom was not significantly higher for those teachers who had received training. Also of interest was the frustration level of the teachers. Those teachers with specialized training felt higher levels of frustration teaching LEPs than the teachers without training. Teachers with more LEP training had a stronger desire to receive *additional* training in LEP strategies.

Variable Three: Outside Experience

It was hypothesized that previous experience with language or cultural issues would increase teachers' feelings of preparedness in dealing with LEP students. In general, there were no significant differences between teachers who had previous experience living abroad or learning a foreign language with those who had less. Teachers with additional cultural/language experience did feel *slightly* more prepared to teach LEP students, and *slightly* less frustrated when teaching, but it was concluded that outside experience alone was not sufficient to prepare teachers for educating LEP students.

Variable Four: Subject Taught

It was hypothesized that there would not be much difference in preparedness due to subject taught. A trend seen repeatedly among Foreign Language teachers and Fine Arts teachers was that training was not needed. Yet, these particular teachers also stated that students were not successful in their classrooms and that they were not prepared to teach them. Most other subject areas generally indicated a need for specialized LEP training. It appeared from the results that subject *did not* play much of a role in teachers' responses.

Inferential Data

A univariate analysis was used to discover which of the independent variables (frequency, training, outside experience, subject taught) was the most significant in effecting teachers' feelings of preparedness. This meant that if there was a discrepancy between the full model (all variables) and the reduced model (independent variables only) of more than 0.90, the variable was not significant in interacting with the entire model. It was then removed and a second and third action was performed to continue eliminating variables that did not have significant interactions in the model. Table 2 shows which variables did, and did not, have significant interactions within the model.

Table 2
Significance Among Main Variables (lambda>=.90)

(Action 1)

Main Effect	Frequency	Training	Outside Experience	Subject Taught
.570	.732	.650	.591	**.588**

(Subject was found insignificant when removed from the full model.)

(Action 2)

Main Effect	Frequency.	Training	Outside Experience.	Subject Taught
.588	.758	.674	**.613**	(withdrawn)

(Experience was found insignificant when removed from the full model.)

(Action 3)

Main Effect	Frequency	Training	Outside Experience	Subject Taught
.613	.802	.707	(withdrawn)	(withdrawn)

(The two remaining variables frequency, and training, were found to be significant overall factors (lambda>=.90) in influencing teachers' feelings of preparedness.)

Using univariate statistical analysis, two variables were found to have significant effects on teachers' feelings of preparedness. Frequency, or amount of exposure teachers had with LEP students, appeared to have the strongest influence (.802), followed by the amount of teacher training (.707).

CONCLUSIONS

Four hypotheses were evaluated and tested using the data from the study. The first of these stated that there would be a significant difference between teachers who had larger amounts of frequency (exposure) with LEP students and those who had less exposure.

Teachers did not appear concerned with LEP student issues until they began to interact with them in the classroom. Teachers with more exposure to LEP students expressed an increasing concern for preparedness in LEP strategies. As teachers gained experience with LEP students, they tended to desire more specialized training. All teachers indicated that LEP's were struggling in their classes and they felt unprepared to educate them.

The second hypothesis stated that educators who have had some kind of specialized ESL or multicultural training would feel more prepared than teachers who have had no such training. In general, there were no significant differences between the two groups. However, teachers did indicate that specialized training helped them to feel *somewhat* more prepared in dealing with LEP students. Therefore, additional training has been found to be an important factor in helping teachers with LEP students.

The third hypothesis stated that educators who had some past experience with foreign languages or foreign cultures would feel more prepared, as compared with teachers who had no such training. This hypothesis was not supported by the results. Although cultural/language experience is valuable, it is not sufficient for teacher preparation in LEP education.

The fourth hypothesis stated that educators would not show significant differences in feelings of preparedness according to the subject in which they taught. This hypothesis was supported by the data collected,. Only Foreign Language teachers and Fine Art teachers had extremely low desires for additional training. Other than those two subjects, there were relatively no significant differences between subjects. The conclusion, therefore, is that training should be provided for *all* teachers and administrators.

Finally, in order to identify variables that significantly influenced the results, a multivariate analysis was performed. Frequency, or amount of exposure, teachers had with LEP students appeared to have the strongest influence on their feelings of preparedness. Amount of specialized training was the second most influential independent variable. The fact that teachers expressed a need for additional training, as they dealt more and more with LEP students, indicates that specific training will be needed in the schools.

REFERENCES

Baker, K. (1999). How can we best serve LEP students? A reply to Nicholas Meier and Stephen Krashen. *Phi Delta Kappan, 81*(5), 707-710.

Council of Chief State School Officers. (1993). Limited English proficient students in intermediate schools and in high schools. *Concerns, 40*, 1-7.

Demographic and Economic Analysis Office of Planning and Budget. (1991). *1990 census brief: Minorities of Utah.* Salt Lake City, UT: Author.

Idaho Department of Education. (2000). *Questions & answers: Limited English proficient demographics, Idaho.* (Evaluation of Programs 1984-1998). Boise, ID: Author.

Markham, P. L. (2000). Stressors and coping strategies of ESL teachers. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 26*(4), 268-279.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C. A., & Eicholtz, G. E. (1994). Serving children with limited English proficiency in the schools: A national survey. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 25*(3), 156-164.

Washington, D.C.: Department of Education and U.S. Bureau of the Census Population Division. (2000). *Immigration and the U.S. educational system.* (Triennial Comprehensive Report on Immigration.). Washington, DC: Author

Utah Office of Education. (2003). *Ethnic minority, LEP, low income, special education by district.* (Utah State Data Center). Salt Lake City, UT: Author.

EARLY EXPERIENCE WITH DEVELOPING AN ELECTRONIC GROUP TOOL TO GET STRUCTURED FEEDBACK FROM STUDENTS

Danial L. Clapper, Western Carolina University
clapper@email.wcu.edu

ABSTRACT

Gaining feedback from students quickly and frequently is a fundamental interest of a number of Classroom Assessment Techniques. This is important because the overall goal is to use the student feedback to improve the course as it is ongoing. This paper will report on early efforts to develop a web-based group tool that allows an instructor to gather structured feedback quickly, easily and frequently. Past research on the impact of computer-mediated groups indicates that group software that allows individuals to enter their comments anonymously and have other participants view those comments, tends to encourage an openness and frankness even if the instructor remains in the room. While this electronic approach may not have all the benefits of a traditional approach, our early experience using it suggests that it has a great deal of promise for allowing this valuable technique to be used much more often than would be feasible with the traditional approach.

INTRODUCTION

Gaining feedback from students quickly and frequently is a fundamental interest of a number of Classroom Assessment Techniques (CAT). This is an important concern because a fundamental objective of Classroom Assessment Techniques is to use student feedback to improve the course while it is ongoing – rather than after the course is finished. The Group Instructional Feedback Technique (Angelo & Cross, 1993) is a frequently used CAT technique. This approach gains structured feedback from students based on three questions: What is going well in the course, what is not going well and what can be done to improve the course.

Although there are many variations, the most frequently used version of this approach utilizes someone other than the instructor coming into the class to administer the session. The instructor leaves while the session is being administered. While the advantages of having a third-party administer this method seem clear – students seem much more likely to be frank and open with someone other than their instructor – it also presents significant barriers to using the technique very often. Regardless of whether a colleague or staff member is used, it seems unlikely to be used more than once or twice during a semester.

This paper reports on early use of a prototype electronic group tool based on the Group Instructional Feedback Technique. The objective of the tool is to utilize some of the unique characteristics of computer-mediated communication to create a structured feedback tool that could

be administered by the instructor, but encourage the frank, open feedback more typically found in sessions administered by a third-party.

USER INTERFACE

The user interface was designed to be as simple and self-evident as possible – to minimize the time spent instructing students how to use the electronic tool. At the top of the page is a drop down list containing questions: What is going well in the course? What is not going well? What could be done to improve the course right now? Next to this drop down list is a View button that shows all of the student's responses to the selected question immediately below the drop down list in the response display area of the screen.

Below the response display area is a small user entry text box in which the students can type their individual comments and then click a submit button below this to display their comment in the response display area to all the other students participating in the session.

DISPLAYING STUDENT RESPONSES

The students work on their individual responses privately, but when they click the Submit Your Comment button their comment can be displayed to all the other students in the response display area of their screens. However, these comments are displayed anonymously – with nothing to indicate which student in the sessions submitted the comment. Instead, a comment number is automatically assigned and displayed alongside the comment. The purpose of this is to focus on the ideas themselves, rather than the originators of the ideas. This – coupled with the anonymity provided by the electronic tool – should encourage the frank, open idea generation that typically needs a third-part administrator to achieve.

EARLY EXPERIENCES

Early experiences using this prototype tool have been encouraging. Students have appeared to find the use of the tool very straightforward and in fact have asked no questions about how to use it. Students have appeared to have no hesitancy about discussing both the positives and negatives of the course – despite the session being administered by their instructor. In fact, for most of the sessions the question which generated the most student responses concerned what could be done to improve the course.

CONCLUSION

This paper reports on early efforts to develop a web-based group tool that allows an instructor to gather structured student feedback quickly and easily. Past research on the impact of computer-mediated groups indicates that group software that allows individuals to enter their comments anonymously and have other participants view those comments, tends to encourage an openness and frankness even if the instructor remains in the room. While this electronic approach may not have all the benefits of a traditional approach, our early experience using it suggests that

it has a great deal of promise for allowing this valuable technique to be used much more often than would be feasible with a traditional approach.

REFERENCES

Angelo, T.A & Cross, K.P. (1993). *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers (Second Edition)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishing.

TRENDS IN SELF-ASSESSMENT OF COMPUTER LITERACY

Annette C. Easton, San Diego State University
annette.easton@sdsu.edu
George Easton, San Diego State University
george.easton@sdsu.edu

ABSTRACT

A six-year study of business students' perceptions of their computer literacy skills was undertaken between Spring 1999 and Spring 2004. One objective of the study was to track how the perceived computer skills of business students had changed over time. A better understanding of this change is valuable in helping determine appropriate content and approaches for teaching today's college-level computer literacy course. While self-assessment taken alone is not sufficient for determining course content, research suggests that self-assessment has a role to play in motivating students to take responsibility for their own learning (Boud, 1989; Orsmand, 2000). A better understanding of our students' perceptions of their computer literacy skills should help influence our teaching strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The ubiquity of information technology in our society creates an interesting challenge for educators today. Increasingly, students are getting formal exposure to the computer applications used in business at earlier ages. Additionally, they are also getting exposure, or overexposure, to technologies that seem to be increasingly associated with computer literacy.

Today, 3 to 8 year old children are learning how to turn on the computer, use the mouse and follow directions in ComputerTots classes (Hanson, 2002). Students in the primary grades are using PowerPoint to produce class presentations, and using word processing applications to generate and edit homework. In Brookfield, MA, 6th graders are teaching PowerPoint, basic keyboarding, and how to use the web to local residents as part of a service learning program (Echegaray, 2001). Increasingly, students in middle and high school are using spreadsheets to analyze data and to create charts.

Early, and repeated, exposure to the computer applications found in most businesses is just one of the reasons our students have such healthy perceptions of their computer skills. In a recent survey of 800 children in Silicon Valley, nearly half of those between the ages of 10 to 17 said they had created a web page, written a computer program or assembled a home computer network (Plotnikoff, 2003).

The Internet and its tangential technologies have also advanced the concept of computer literacy, perhaps more than other factors. PR Newswire (2003) reported that "… more than 27 million Internet users between the ages of 2 and 17 logged online from home in September 2003.

This represented 21 percent of active home Internet users …." Given these numbers, it quite clear why children today are so adept at Internet messaging (IM), downloading music and web surfing.

As this digital generation grows up and moves on to college, it should not be surprising that they arrive in our classes confidently computer literate. Unfortunately, their perception of computer literacy, at least currently, is often ill-matched to the computer skill sets expected in their college study program, or in the business world.

For this reason, most business schools still require students to take some type of computer literacy course. This course is typically offered at the freshman/sophomore level and is usually required of all business majors. The class usually has two main objectives: 1) to teach students fundamentals of information technology and 2) to teach students various business-oriented software applications.

This paper reports on one facet of a longitudinal study designed to assess the computer literacy of university business students. Understanding the changing perceptions of students computer literacy skills is one component towards developing both curriculum and teaching strategies to best educate the evolving needs of our students.

BACKGROUND

The definition of computer literacy continues to evolve. Over time the definition has changed from simply a basic understanding of terminology, to understanding how to program, to understanding how to use specific computer applications. Van Vliet, Kletke and Chakraborty (1994) defined computer literacy as "the ability to use microcomputers confidently for obtaining needed information, solving specific problems, and performing data-processing tasks. This includes a fundamental understanding of the operation of microcomputers in general, as well as the use of several types of applications software packages."

The experiences of the digital generation have alerted us to the necessity of evaluating computer literacy relative to the context in which it is applied. Put another way, business schools must view computer literacy in the context of business and we should expect that any effort to measure computer literacy would incorporate computer concepts and software applications that are pertinent to business. At the same time, we must be cognizant of the alacrity at which business embraces technology. For example, Sarrel (2003) reports "Some 70 percent of all enterprises will use IM in some form this year, according to market research firm Gartner. And IDC estimates that 29 percent of traffic on today's consumer networks (AOL, ICQ, MSN, and Yahoo!) is for business use." As we look to assess business computer literacy, our measures must adapt to include these newer applications.

Our overall research goal is exploratory: we want to focus on assessing computer literacy to determine the appropriate level and content of the information technology training/education that a typical business student will need. Most educators have struggled with classes where the students have a wide range in proficiency levels. This range creates tremendous challenges in effectively reaching all of the students. Experienced students tend to be bored with the introductory-level material, while novice students easily become overwhelmed with advanced content.

Van Vliet, Kletke and Chakraborty (1994) conducted a study to determine if self-appraisal tests are a valid predictor of computer literacy. What they reported was that self-appraisal tests were more lenient indicators of a person's computer proficiency than were objective tests. In addition, they concluded that self-leniency decreased as computer expertise increased. As our students computer expertise grows, we would expect their self-assessments to become more accurate.

While self-assessment taken alone is not sufficient for determining course content, research suggests that self-assessment does have a role to play in motivating students to take responsibility for their own learning (Boud, 1989; Orsmand, 2000). A better understanding of our students' perceptions of their computer literacy skills should help influence our teaching strategies. Coupled with an understanding of their actual skills, knowing their self-perceptions should give us an opportunity to deliver a better educational experience.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESULTS

The six years of data for this study comes from students in our Principles of Information Systems course. This lower division course is required of all students considering a major in the College of Business. At the beginning of each semester, students in the course were asked to complete a web-based survey consisting of demographic questions and self assessments of proficiency with a number of computer applications. Generally, the proficiency questions focused on computer applications that are often included in introductory computer courses of many business schools. These applications include word processing, electronic mail, spreadsheets, the World Wide Web, presentation software, and database software.

In all, 1845 students completed surveys over the six-year period. The breakdown by year is shown in Table 1. The average age of the students taking the survey was 20 (with a range of 17 to 53 years). 53% of the students were males; 47% were females.

Table 1
Number of Students Surveyed Each Year

Column1	Column2	Column3	Column4	Column5	Column6	Column7	Column8
Year	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Total
# of Students	222	125	124	642	497	235	1845

The results of the study show significant shifts in self-assessed literacy for overall computer proficiency, email, www, and word processing skills. However, over the period there was very little movement in self-assessed literacy for databases and spreadsheets. Understanding these changing perceptions, and the role self-assessment plays in motivating students to take responsibility for their learning, is one component towards developing both curriculum and teaching strategies to best educate the evolving needs of our students. Complete details of the results, and their impacts, will be further explored at the conference.

REFERENCES

Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). (1991). *Achieving quality and continuous improvement through self-evaluation and peer review: Standards for Accreditation, Business Administration and Accounting*. Adopted 1991, Revised May, 2000.

Born, R.G. & C.W. Cummings (1994). An Assessment Model for Computer Experience, Skills, and Attitudes of Undergraduate Business Students. *The Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 35(1), 41-53.

Boud, D (1989). The Role of Self-Assessment in Student Grading. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 14(1), 20-30.

Csapo, N. (2002). Certification of Computer Literacy. *T.H.E. Journal*, 30(1), August, 46–51.

Easton, A. & G. Easton (2003). "Closing the Gap: Proficiency vs. Perception." *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 2(10), October, 11-14.

Easton, G. & A. Easton (2003). "Assessing Computer Literacy: A comparison of self-assessment and actual skills," in McGill, Tanya, ed., *Current Issues in IT Education*, (pp. 238-254) IRM Press.

Echegaray, C. (2001, February 9). PowerPoint pros 6th-graders to teach adults about computers:[RT. 9 WEST Edition]. *Telegram & Gazette*. Worcester, Mass. pp. B.1.

Hindi, N.M., D. Miller & J. Wenger (2002). Computer Literacy: Implications for Teaching a College-Level Course. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 13(2), 143-151.

Orsmond, P., S. Merry, & K. Reiling (2000). The use of Student Derived Marking Criteria in Peer and Self-Assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 25(1), 357-369.

Plotnikoff, D. (2003, May 18). Growing up wired: When technology is just a part of everyday life. *Mercury News*. Retrieved March 26, 2004, from http://www.mercurynews.com/mld/mercurynews/business/special_packages/wired_kids/5889282.htm

Sarrel, M.D. (2003, November 11). Corporate IM ; Your teenage kids have been glued to it for a couple of years already, but instant messaging is only now coming into its own in the workplace, as software developers devise extra-strength versions with the security and audit trail that businesses require. *PC Magazine,* 22(20), 124.

Van Vliet, P., M. Kletke & G. Chakraborty (1994). The measurement of computer literacy: A comparison of self-appraisal and objective tests. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 40(1), 835-857.

ETHICS EDUCATION FOR THE HYBRID PROFESSIONAL

Barry L. Padgett, Bellarmine University
bpadgett@bellarmine.edu
Linda Peeno, University of Louisville Medical School
lindapeeno@aol.com

ABSTRACT

The concept of education is grounded in the origin of the Latin term educere, which means "to lead forth." The best education requires a special kind of leadership, more than just training about the technical aspects of a particular profession. This recognition provides the justification, of course, for a myriad of applied courses in professional ethics, including very broadly "business ethics" and more specifically particular areas of business such as human resources, marketing, and management. These distinctions nevertheless beg the question: is there a genuine difference between "everyday" morality and "role" morality? The problem exposed by this question is even more acute for a specific kind of management position, the "hybrid professional," the manager who operates at the conjunction of two or more fields, confronted with situations that bring into conflict both the ethical values of particular roles and our most commonly held values. This paper presents an argument that more needs to be done to educate hybrid professionals to exhibit ethical leadership in their professional roles. It takes as the paradigm case the "hybrid professional" manager in the area of health care.

INTRODUCTION

Good management requires good leadership. This truism articulates our intuitive recognition that managers, as the persons who are charged with implementing the goals of the CEO and board of directors, are responsible for organizing and motivating others to perform the necessary tasks to achieve company objectives. It is the manager who is held accountable by senior administration for getting things done, by structuring and stimulating the activities of employees in a manner that gets the desired results. It is the manager who is expected to understand objectives, envision alternative means of achieving them, calculate risks and rewards of various ways toward those goals, and then be able to inspire and direct others to facilitate the accomplishment of those objectives. Management, by its very nature, requires a degree of leadership capability. Hence, to be a "good" manager inherently means that one must be a "good" leader. Recognition of this intrinsic relationship is undoubtedly the justification for so much leadership training as part of one's management education.

In fact, education itself requires leadership. The concept of education can be thought of as philosophically grounded in management and guidance; etymologically this is reflected in the origin of "education" in the Latin term, *educere*, which means, "to lead." Education in any field requires

some degree of leadership, and this is especially true in areas of management. It is not just a matter of educating managers to be leaders but it is also a question of the leadership of educators, providing students with the necessary technical and intellectual tools to become successful leaders in their chosen fields. The very best education is not simply a matter of the transference of mechanical skills, but is a catalyst for the growth and exercise of those qualities and values which constitute successful leadership and management. Increasingly, this has come to include instruction and reflection on ethics as a part of one's professional education. Across professions and disciplines there has come the acknowledgment that a good education must include an examination of the values and morals that are at stake in one's chosen field, and indeed in any given area of human endeavor.

This recognition provides the justification, of course, for a myriad of applied courses in professional ethics, including very broadly "business ethics" and more specifically those separate areas of business such as human resources, marketing, and management. Numerous textbooks, journals, professional and educational conferences routinely include an ethics component. Moreover professional disciplines, organizations and businesses have developed specific codes of ethics that are designed to articulate the values that govern these interests, and perhaps (though it is less clear so) to guide the individual through difficult decision making processes relative to their professional roles.

The amount of ethics coverage can vary widely between academic programs, as can the curriculum level at which the placement of ethics occurs. Business ethics courses and integrated ethics components have been developed at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Some programs place ethics at the beginning or early stages, while others place it at or near the conclusion, even as a capstone experience. General topics of business ethics texts typically include: conflicts of interest, marketing and advertising, discrimination, worker rights, whistle blowing, and corporate social responsibility. Judging from popular textbooks in bioethics, standard topics emerge in this profession too. Some of the fundamental issues include: informed consent, patient autonomy, patient rights, truth telling, and allocation of resources. Other ethics courses, targeted at particular professions, can also be discipline-specific and highly specialized.

Several common features can be detected from even a casual glance at these academic resources. First, regardless of the profession, textbooks typically begin with a broad coverage of the most popular ethical theories, especially utilitarianism and deontology. Second, general coverage of ethical issues in a profession can be substituted by highly specific treatments of ethical issues in a given field. For example, "business ethics" can mean the broad coverage of topics mentioned above, but may also include very discipline-specific analyses and textbooks, such as "marketing ethics," "human resources," "accounting ethics," "international business," even the fairly recent "entrepreneurial ethics" (Smith and Quelch, 1996; Donaldson, 1989; Newton, 1997). Similar to business, health care can be divided into "medical ethics," "nursing," clinical lab science and research with human subjects, and recently other specialties, such as "physical therapy ethics" (Jonsen, Siegler and Winslade, 1998; Bishop and Scudder, 1996; Gabard and Martin, 2003). Third, these resources are apt to include scenarios and case studies of actual or probable ethical dilemmas that arise in the daily experiences of persons in those professions. So these fields and specializations are generating academic and professional resources in ethics education and training, reflecting in theoretical content and applied cases just how particular and discipline-specific some moral conflicts can be for the individual in any of those professions.

Moreover, as these areas become more highly specialized professional organizations are often formed in attempts to both solidify their identity and their legitimacy as a profession. In many cases these goals are articulated and advanced through the adoption of a code of ethics that is specific to that profession and organization. Physicians honor not only the Hippocratic Oath but acknowledge the code of ethics of the American Medical Association. Nevertheless, plastic surgeons have their own code of ethics, as do nurses, physical therapists, and many other professionals in the health care field, including "physician executives" and even "nurse executives." The same trend holds true in business also, since there are specialized organizations and codes of ethics for: marketing, human resources, accounting, and other subfields. Perhaps more interestingly, CEO's and other executives are compelled to follow *company* codes of ethics under motivations related to the recent Sarbanes-Oxley legislation.

EVERYDAY VERSUS ROLE MORALITY

These distinctions nevertheless beg the question: is there a genuine difference between "everyday" morality and "role" morality? Do the various roles which each of us inhabit have their own particular ethical theory that is peculiar to those roles? If so, then is there any philosophical ground which they all might share in common; or if not, then how do we educate managers to exercise moral leadership that is consistent with commonly held ethical values?

The problem exposed by these questions is even more acute for a specific kind of management position, the "hybrid professional," the manager who operates at the conjunction of two or more fields, confronted with situations that bring into conflict both the ethical values of particular roles and our most commonly held values. Are we adequately educating hybrid professionals, as leaders in their fields, for the ethical conflicts which will confront them in their mixed management roles?

The distinction between everyday morality and role morality has received modest attention from philosophers, most notably attracting the criticism of scholars like Alasdair MacIntyre. Both in *After Virtue* and in *Whose Justice? Which Rationality?* MacIntyre challenges the reduction of morality to the various roles which one inhabits as a participant in society. In the former work he states, "[T]he unity of a human life becomes invisible to us when a sharp separation is made either between the individual and the roles that he or she plays…or between the different role and quasi-role enactments of an individual life…. [T]he liquidation of the self in to a set of demarcated areas of role-playing allows no scope for the exercise of dispositions which could genuinely be accounted virtues…." (MacIntyre, 1984). Others have argued that, "role morality is not in conflict with 'ordinary morality' but [is] a complex instance of it" (Andre, 1991). The danger of course is that persons can make assumptions about the properness and application of role morality in their professions, making it possible for them to deny or evade moral responsibility in professional situations. Indeed, even if one accepts that the distinction between everyday morality and role morality is a useful one, that distinction alone is not sufficient to support justifications based on considerations and limitations of professional roles and responsibilities (Gibson, 2003).

THE LOGIC OF FAILURE

It is our contention that, concerning ethics education, exclusively theoretical considerations leave the choices and justifications for acceptable moral behavior in professional contexts underdetermined. Conversely, an ethics education that focuses solely on a highly specialized code of ethics for a particular discipline overdetermines ethical decision making. Either of these options, taken as pedagogical approaches to professional ethics, leaves students open to the potential consequences of the "logic of failure." Besides being a provocative concept, this phrase is the title of an interesting work by Dietrich Dörner, professor of psychology and director of the Cognitive Anthropology Project of the Max Planc Institute in Berlin (Dörner, 1996). Dörner analyzes patterns of thought (or lack thereof) in human beings that essentially set us up for failure; as he argues, failure too has its own logic. Some of his insights are applicable to education in professional ethics, in which it seems appropriate and timely – given the number of scandals appearing almost daily in the news, from a wide variety of professions – to explore dimensions of moral failure.

There are several points in Dörner's book that are insightful for professional ethics, but attention will be focused on two of them here: First, there is the tendency to merely accept a general goal without analyzing its complexity. He uses as an example the notion of "well being." To a business executive it may mean one thing, to a physician something totally different. By not breaking the concept down into component parts and identifying their interrelationships a manager can be inveigled into what Dörner calls, "repair service behavior," a mode of decision making that is marked by a short-term view of consequences which is so often the trademark of poor ethical judgments. Second, there is the inclination to reach a decision, to act, without due consideration of what constitutes relevant information in a situation. Dörner points to several studies which show, "an inverse relationship between gathering information and readiness to reach decisions." We may all be able to relate to the uncertainty of decision making and the desire to put difficult decisions behind us, prompting us into a "reluctance to gather information and an eagerness to act." This pitfall can be notoriously difficult to avoid for the professional uncomfortable with moral dilemmas or who is apt not to recognize (or desire to be aware of) situations in which ethical values are at stake.

HYBRID PROFESSIONALS

Hence, the "logic of failure" relative to concrete dilemmas in the ethics of professional life are especially problematic for a special group of managers which we identify as hybrid professionals. The concept of the hybrid professional is based on the casual observation that many managerial positions, particularly in a fluid and transitional labor market such as currently exists in the United States, are in fact cross-over or multi-disciplinary positions which combine two or more professions. Hence the term "hybrid professional" refers to the manager that operates at the conjunction of two or more fields, the professional who is confronted with situations that bring into conflict both the ethical values of particular roles and our most commonly held values.

The problem exposed by the question of role versus everyday morality is even more acute for this specific kind of management position. Central to the ethical dilemma faced by these managers is the realization that the hybrid professional can have more than one applicable standard

of judgment of ethical issues that is supposed to govern their field. A physician or nurse working with the marketing division of a managed care organization (HMO) faces, in some ways, unique ethical conflicts that do not seem to be captured by traditional ethical theories or professional codes of ethics. To the physician- or nurse-executive, having more than one code of ethics is for practical purposes as good as having none. In a given ethical dilemma which set of theoretical principles, professional values or code of ethics ought to be followed?

We take as our paradigm case the "hybrid professional" manager in the area of health care. Typically these professionals are physician and nurse executives or managers. These health care business professionals sometimes make the observation that since they do not have direct patient contact, so many of the traditional bioethics issues do not apply to their work. As a result, many would argue that they not only do not *have to* "think like a doctor," they *should not* think like doctors. In keeping with this view, their health management or MBA programs and academic business ethics courses typically do not focus on specific ethical issues that are unique in "managed care." Hence, their education in bioethics does not easily apply to managed care, and their business ethics education does not cover issues in medical ethics. As educators and practitioners we must ask ourselves: Are we adequately educating hybrid professionals, as leaders in their fields, for the ethical conflicts which will confront them?

In fact, what the role versus ordinary morality distinction suggests is that if we, as educators, merely educate students – future professionals – in the finer points of role morality, then we do our students a great disservice and we may inadvertently be setting some of them up for the "logic of failure" in their professional careers. Recall that for Dörner, the logic of failure raises as least two important issues: the complexity of goals in a multilayered, multifaceted organization, and the ability to distinguish and process relevant information in a given situation. For the hybrid professional, complex goals are often not defined. Moreover, the person is often unable (many times, for structural and systematic reasons) to see how their decisions impact the larger whole, including a broader range of stakeholders. Hybrid professionals, representing cross-overs between various disciplines such as health care and business, epitomize a unique set of issues for education in leadership and ethics. It is important that educators, as leaders, attempt to equip students with the moral sensitivity and requisite skills to eschew the reduction of ethics to role morality, and to improve students' capacities for the foresight and prudence to avoid the logic of failure and the ethical pitfalls that threaten the success of hybrid professionals.

REFERENCES

Andre, Judith. (1991). "Role Morality as a Complex Instance of Ordinary Morality." *American Philosophical Quarterly*, January, 73-84.

Bishop, Anne H., and John Scudder, Jr. (1996). *Nursing Ethics*. Boston: Jones and Bartlett.

Donaldson, Thomas. (1989). *The Ethics of International Business*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Dörner, Dietrich. (1996). *The Logic of Failure: Recognizing and Avoiding Error in Complex Situations*. New York: Persesus Books.

Gabard, Donald L., and Mike W. Martin. (2003). *Physical Therapy Ethics*. Philadelphia: F.A. Davis.

Gibson, Kevin. (2003). "Contrasting Role Morality and Professional Morality: Implications for Practice." *Journal of Applied Philosophy*, 20 (1): 17-29.

Jonsen, Albert, Mark Siegler and William Winslade. (1998). *Clinical Ethics*, *(Fourth edition)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

MacIntyre, Alasdair. (1984). *After Virtue: A Study in Moral Theory*. University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame, Indiana. 204-205.

Newton, David. (1997). *Entrepreneurial Ethics*. Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt.

Smith, N. Craig and John A. Quelch. (1996). *Ethics in Marketing*, *(Second edition)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

BEHAVIORAL STYLES OF PATH-GOAL THEORY: AN EXERCISE

Antoinette Phillips, Southeastern Louisiana University
aphillips@selu.edu
Carl Phillips, Southeastern Louisiana University
cphillips@selu.edu

ABSTRACT

Path-Goal Theory is a comprehensive theory of leadership. It combines a situational emphasis indigenous to a contingency perspective with behavioral flexibility, which has been demonstrated to be important in leadership. Comprehensive, organized verbal explanations and examples are indispensable in explaining Path-Goal Theory to students. When practical application is a goal, however, helping students learn concrete "how-tos" can be a challenge. This manuscript presents instructions for an in-class exercise (appropriate for upper-level undergraduate or graduate students) designed to provide tangible practice in using the leadership behaviors of Path-Goal Theory. It includes suggestions for appropriate advance reading, preparation, and a workshop-type activity designed to fully engage participants. The exercise described is designed for use by instructors of undergraduate or graduate leadership courses, or for those teaching leadership units within the scope of other courses. It can also be used by management consultants or corporate trainers conducting leadership training sessions. Suggestions for using the exercise in these settings are also included.

USING STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS TO ENHANCE THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Carl R. Phillips, Southeastern Louisiana University
cphillips@selu.edu
Antoinette S. Phillips, Southeastern Louisiana University
aphillips@selu.edu

ABSTRACT

Much has been written on how to improve the quality of education for college students. A majority of the suggestions center around improving the in-class educational experience. However, other activities outside the classroom can also play a significant role in enhancing students' education.

This manuscript will examine the positive role that involvement in student organizations can play in enhancing the educational process. Specifically, eight benefits will be discussed, including professional organization affiliation, job shadowing, mentorship programs, educational speakers, company tours, certification exam preparation, conference participation, and networking. Examples from a successful student organization will be given to help illustrate the positive role that such organizations can play. Accompanying challenges will also be discussed.

EXPLORING DECISION-MAKING DYNAMICS IN A BUSINESS CAPSTONE COURSE

Theodore J. Randles, Eastern Kentucky University
ted.randles@eku.edu
Steve Brown, Eastern Kentucky University
steve.brown@eku.edu
Bill Davig, Eastern Kentucky University
bill.davig@eku.edu

ABSTRACT

An exploratory study is being conducted in the business capstone course. The study uses Kaplan and Norton's Balanced Scorecard and the Capstone simulation as a platform for problem solving. For a simulated eight-year span, the Capstone simulation has competing management teams run hundred million dollar manufacturing companies. Because the Capstone simulation covers the four control perspectives found in the balanced scorecard: customer, internal process, financial, and learning and growth, the Capstone simulation is used to explore the merits of the balanced scorecard and the subsequent managerial decision-making processes. An analysis of how decision makers respond to the gap between preferred and actual strategic performance is being conducted. The degree of individual versus team decision-making and analytic versus intuitive thinking is being examined to determine if specific sequences of individual or team, and analytical or intuitive thinking are more effective. The decision-making sequences are being analyzed and descriptions of the forms of cognitive dynamics are being developed. This paper describes the study and discusses its analytical framework

INTRODUCTION

Capstone classes are normally taken during the senior year. As the title implies, these courses tend to integrate and apply common concepts, theories, and principles drawn from a student's major field of study. The nature of these courses varies from school to school and major to major. In business programs the capstone class is usually a policy or strategy class. The case method, with an emphasis on problem solving, has been the traditional approach used to teach business strategy. For about twenty-five years, the business strategy has slowly been augmented with growing body of strategic concepts and theories. However, problem solving remains central to the pedagogy used to teach the course. In addition to case studies, simulations have added an element of dynamics and realism to business strategy courses. The complexity and sophistication of business simulations have paralleled the growth of the computer industry. Recently a new simulation, Capstone, has been gaining widespread popularity among universities.

An exploratory study is being conducted that uses the Capstone simulation (2003). In the experimental classes, yearly Capstone reports are based on Kapaln and Norton's (1992) Balanced

Scorecard (BSC). The balanced scorecard is a set of metrics, which ties the assets of the organization to its overall strategy, and is used to determine the gap between preferred and actual strategic performance. This study explores the way decision makers respond to the gap, analyzing the extent to which decision makers perceive using individual versus team decision-making and the extent of analytic versus intuitive thinking. This paper provides a brief description of the balanced scorecard and the Capstone simulation. The purpose of the study is presented, and the methodology including the cognitive decision-making model and the questionnaire used to gather data used for analysis are briefly described.

CAPSTONE SIMULATION

Originally developed for management training seminars in large corporations, the Capstone simulation has been adopted for use by over 400 colleges and universities to help teach business strategy. For a simulated eight-year span, competing management teams run hundred million dollar electronic sensor manufacturing companies. A series of decisions is made each year in the functional areas of research and development, marketing, production, human resources, finance, process management, and total quality. Furthermore, there are five market segments, each having different customer requirements, and the teams are provided with proformas and annual reports.

Capstone's decision matrices are composed of six interactive Excel spreadsheets. Each spreadsheet represents one of the seven decision areas outlined above. The spreadsheets work independently; however, the spreadsheets depend on the values entered on the other spreadsheets. For example, the Production Spreadsheet relies on the Forecast and Accounts Payable information on the Marketing Spreadsheet.

Once the decisions are uploaded for each team, they can be processed. The results are automatically entered into the matrices for beginning of the next year's round of decisions. The results are also made available to each team through a year-end report, the Capstone Courier, detailing each team's decisions and performance. The teams take the data from the updated spreadsheets and Capstone Courier reports and use the data as input to develop a yearly balanced scorecard report described in the following section.

BALANCED SCORECARD

The balanced scorecard is a set of metrics that tie the assets of the organization to its overall strategy. The financial measures used to determine the success of a firm are linked to the actions taken throughout the organization. Rather than rely on just financial measures of performance, the BSC complements these indicators of success or failure with operational measures of customer satisfaction, internal process, and the organization's improvement and innovation. Consequently, The BSC is composed of four key perspectives: 1) How do we look to the shareholders?, 2)How do the customers see us?, 3)What must we excel at?, and 4) How do we continue to create value?

It just so happens these four perspectives fit the Capstone simulation very nicely. The company's performance is ultimately going to be determined by a combination of market and financial measures. How well these strategic objectives are attained indicates how well the company

was able to maintain a sustainable competitive advantage within the industry and add value to company thus, to the wealth of stockholders.

From a strategy standpoint, it is important to develop a good match between the markets in which the company competes and the internal processes, assets, and systems. Satisfying consumer demand is a top priority. Ultimately, profitability depends on a combination of decisions and actions that impact productivity and customer satisfaction.

Finally, the way a team and its individual members perform will be reflected in the quality of the decisions that are made and processes that are developed. Each team will have weaknesses and make mistakes. Learning from mistakes and improving on strengths is reflected in overall performance each time a decision is made. The ability to learn, change and innovate results in increased value to your customers and greater utilization of your assets.

When implemented properly, the balanced scorecard provides an overall picture of the firm's performance. To implement the balanced scorecard, businesses establish teams of employees, who must determine the relation between seemingly unrelated things and determine relationships between four distinct but interrelated perspectives: financial, customer, internal processes, and learning and growth. Mission statements must be translated into measures concerning the things customers consider important. Additionally, internal measures are developed for processes having the greatest impact on customer satisfaction. Development of these measures is an intense process, to which teams must dedicate many hours.

DECISION-MAKING MODEL

An analysis of how decision makers respond to the gap between preferred and actual strategic performance is being conducted. The degree of individual versus team decision-making and analytic versus intuitive thinking is being examined to determine if specific sequences of individual or team, and analytical or intuitive thinking are more effective. The decision-making sequences are being analyzed and descriptions of the forms of problem solving used are being developed. It is believed that the most effective groups will follow the decision sequence of framing, formulation, hypothesis testing, and profound explanation.

According to Randles and Fadlalla (2004), framing is focused on processing a large stream of information in order to determine the salient information and is solely dependent on analytical thought. In the context of strategy, hypothesis testing requires the development of rules concerning the relationship between salient factors. A mix of analytical and intuitive thinking is required. Finally, the profound explanation of seemingly unrelated factors is largely dependent on intuitive thinking focusing on only one or two discordant facts. Based on Randles and Fadlalla's force specifications, the cognitive decision sequences of moving between analytic and intuitive thinking are being identified as they relate to the strategic measures identified by the teams.

DECISION-MAKING QUESTIONNAIRE

This study uses several different instruments to generate and analyze the strategic decision process. The Capstone simulation is used as a framework for emulating an actual strategic environment and providing a dynamic problem-solving situation. Because the Capstone simulation

covers the four control perspectives found in the balanced scorecard: customer, internal process, financial, and learning and growth, the Capstone simulation is used to explore the merits of the BSC and the subsequent managerial decision making processes. Once the scorecard is established, the outcomes of management decisions and their implementation are compared to those of the scorecard. This comparison allows the teams to determine if a gap exists, and if a gap exists, managers can be expected to question previous decisions and initiate behavior to close the gap. The first step in our exploratory study was to determine the gap between preferred and actual strategic performance using the balanced scorecard. A questionnaire was designed to measure the performance gaps perceived by individuals and the perceived degree of decision-making styles of these individuals.

Using Likert scales, group members assessed the importance of each style of analysis and decision-making as well as the amount of effort each style requires. Measurement of the group's overall effectiveness was based on the accumulated profit and final stock price of their business. Situations were categorized by the size of the gap (perceived and computed) between the group's goals and actual outcomes for eight critical decision making junctures in the business simulation. The order in which these various approaches were used in decision-making were analyzed to determine if specific sequences of individual or team, and analytical or intuitive thinking were more effective in different situations. Peer evaluations and measurements of group satisfaction were also obtained, and the relation between cognitive style, peer evaluation, group satisfaction, and performance was explored. A summary example of the questionnaire can be found below.

I. The Balanced Scorecard is a strategic control tool used to help close the gap between where your firm actually is and where it would like to be. Given the data concerning your firm's last year's performance, how satisfied are you with the outcomes of last year's decisions?
II. A firm's performance is influenced by both individual and group efforts. I believe our team's decisions in the previous round were more strongly influenced by my team.
III. Research shows that managers make decisions using a combination of (a) intuition --based on their past experience and "gut feeling" and (b) rigorous analyses--based on data and information. I believe my personal contribution to last year's decisions was based more on intuition than analysis.

CLOSING REMARKS

The questionnaire obtains information concerning the use of analytical or intuitive thinking with respect to the individual, group, and other individuals in the group other than the respondent. The decision-making sequences are being analyzed and descriptions of the cognitive processes are being developed. Based on Randles and Fadlalla's force specifications, the cognitive force of the decision sequences is being determined, and its relation to accumulated profit and final stock price is being explored. It is believed that the most effective groups will follow the decision sequence of framing, formulation, hypothesis testing, and profound explanation.

It would seem the most effective groups would determine the salient information before establishing a plan and comparing actual and expected results. After testing their plan, its effectiveness is evaluated, and successful teams should develop a greater understanding of what to

expect. But, in the dynamic strategic environment, there will be several discordant facts that will take great insight to explain, and successful groups will become increasingly more reliant on intuition to solve these more complex issues. Conversely, there may be a need for profound explanation during the early stages of balanced scorecard implementation.

Hence, the teams that first begin to extensively use intuition in developing their strategy will be more successful. As they refine their problem solving, teams will have a tendency to use less intuition and more analytic decision-making. Successful teams should also narrow the gap between the desired strategic performance and the actual performance. Greater perceived gaps are likely to evoke a greater team effort in the decision-making process. On the other hand, individuals that perceive their teams as successful may also perceive a high level of teamwork as opposed to individual effort.

REFERENCES

Management Simulations, Inc. (2003). *Team Member Guide: Capstone Business Simulation*, Northfield Illinois.

Norton, R.S. & D.P. Kaplan (1992). The balanced scorecard: measures that drive performance. *Harvard Business Review*. (69) 1.

Randles,T.S. & A. Fadlalla (2004). Knowledge combustion: a knowledge chemistry approach and description of the process of information dissipation, Unpublished paper under review.

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF ONLINE COURSES: WHAT DO WE WANT TO KNOW

Barbara A. Schuldt, Southeastern Louisiana University
bschuldt@selu.edu
Minh Q. Huynh, Southeastern Louisiana University
Minh.Huynh@selu.edu

ABSTRACT

One of the authors was given a chance to teach a course normally only taught on campus as an online course for the first time. In addition, this author attempted to have comparable learning situation in both courses. But since the delivery methods were different, the instructor wanted a way to assess the students' preferences and values of their learning experiences. This led to the development of a survey, which was given at the beginning and at the end of the course, in both classes to compare the students' experiences. The results, although limited, do suggest that surveying students about their learning preferences and values can be helpful to instructors. Also, this experience supports the need for continued and new research into student perceptions of online courses.

INTRODUCTION

The explosion of online (Internet) based courses in higher education is unprecedented. Over 80 percent of 4-year universities and colleges are offering distance education and of those not offering any distance education opportunities, 20 % are planning to by 2002 (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). The concept of distance education has been expanded through the use of course delivery through the Internet. The rapid growth of personal and corporate Internet access is seen as opening educational opportunities to new students previously unable to attend classes. The time and location issues previously hindering students from attending college are minimized or removed by taking courses offered through the Internet. Unfortunately, the retention rate is as low as 50% (Carr, 2000) and online students have expressed dissatisfaction with technology problems and the lack of face-to-face interactions (Perreault, et. al. 2002). Therefore, it is critical for higher education institutions and other online education providers to determine what the key indicators and factors are that can change the retention rates and improve the student's satisfaction and continued enrollment in online courses. While research on the learner profile is important and interesting, another variable in the success of an online learner is their expectations and what they value from their traditional on-campus courses compared to the online courses. The following describes an exploratory study concerning the students' experiences and values for courses delivered on-campus (face-to-face) compared to online (Internet).

STUDY METHODOLOGY

During the Spring 2001 semester an opportunity to survey students in a traditional, on-campus course and a new online version of the same course presented itself due to the unexpected demand for the course and budget restrictions. The participants for this study were enrolled in a senior management information systems capstone course. This course was required for the Computer Information Systems major, but could also be used as an elective for other business majors and the business minor. The course used cases to help the students understand the complexities of planning and managing corporate information systems. The on-campus section of this course filled quickly and the College's budget did not allow for an additional section. Online courses were listed and funded outside of the College's budget, so this course could be offered online during the same semester without impacted the College's budget. Unfortunately, students who did not get a chance to sign up for the traditional class were forced to take the class online or wait another semester.

The instructor was encouraged to do this study in part because of an interest in finding out more about online student perceptions and experiences and in part due to her newness to online delivery. The value aspect of the survey derived from the use of Porter's (1985) value chain analysis as one approach in assessing information systems impact on the final product or service of the organizations studied in the course.

A survey was given at the beginning of the semester and again at the end of the semester to both sections. The survey measured the students' perceptions of online courses compared to traditional classes. Also, questions addressed the students' experiences with various instructional methodologies such as lectures, in-class exercises or discussions, etc. The survey was given as a pilot test the prior semester.

The traditional course used a student-led case discussion and presentation format. MS PowerPoint was frequently used to augment the students' presentation. In addition MS Excel was used to complete financial analysis and comparisons. Case research was done using the on-campus library resources and resources available on the Internet. The cases assigned were actual companies so that the students could access the corporate web sites for historical and financial information. Online students and on-campus students were assigned the same cases. It was felt by the instructor and the other colleagues in the department that this was the best approach to this senior-level information systems capstone course.

To provide the online students with the same experience or as close to it as possible, the online course used an electronic case discussion and presentation format that was part of WebCT ™. The electronic case discussion and presentations were led by students in the class. Both courses used student teams to lead the case discussions. The teams had to meet face-to-face or electronically outside of class for either course to decide how to lead the case discussions and assign team member roles. One major difference in the courses was the time frame. The traditional course met for three hours one night a week. The traditional students prepared and led the discussion and at 9:00 p.m. they were finished. The online course discussions went on for one week and it was the student team's responsibility to monitor, reply, encourage, and challenge the class to enhance their discussion and learning about the case's issues. Several times during the semester one or more students did not participate during the week the case was presented and wanted to participate later,

even though the syllabus and grading were done on the student's contribution during the week the case was assigned. Students in the traditional class did not have this same expectation - that if they missed a class they would not be allowed to discuss it the following week. The student team leading the case presentation and the instructor found it very frustrating when students did not participate during the assigned week but wanted to participate later. In addition, it was not uncommon for many students to wait and do their work on Sunday evening.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The students that participated in this study were either in a senior level management information systems capstone course on-campus or online. The surveys were administered in-class or distributed via email to the online students at the beginning of the semester and again at the end of the semester. General student demographics were captured to help classify the participants. It was difficult to get participation from the online students, especially at the end of the semester.

The participants in this study were not necessarily place or time constrained, but were in the online course because it was their only option if they wanted that course during that semester. Only four students preferred to take the course online and of those 4 only 2 were actually registered for the course online. This was due to the late addition of the online section and that the students already registered for the course on-campus were not given the option of switching sections.

Other user profile characteristics evaluated include learner autonomy which can include time management skills, student centered courses, the ability to understand the textbook without the instructor's help and the ability to learn from and participate in-class discussions. Good time management skills are an important characteristic for the online learner. In the online environment the student must assume more responsibility for his or her time and accomplishing the requirements of the course. This course did have specific deadlines but they tended to be more flexible than the on-campus course deadlines. At the beginning of the semester all of the online students felt they had good time management skills, but at the end of the semester only two out of the three returned ending surveys for the online students felt that they still had good time management skills. One student expressed his need for the instructor to help him manage his time. Internet usage (5 plus times a week) was reported by 20 of the 23 respondents at the beginning of the semester. The remaining respondents at least used the Internet 2 to 4 times per week. This was important since material was posted for the online course daily during some of the more intense case discussion sessions.

In addition to the demographic data, the participants were asked to self report their experiences with various teaching methodologies and how they value each of these methodologies. Experience used in this study would be the students' self evaluation of their familiarity with various instructional methodology tools. The second measure was the students' value or their perceived importance in their educational environment of the various instructional methodology tools. One area of research in online courses that has been lacking is looking at what the customer, i.e. the student; values not just his or her satisfaction with the course.

Additional data analysis was evaluated. Cross tabulations could not be used because of cell size problems due to the small sample size from the beginning and ending semester surveys. Online and on-campus students' paired responses were combined for the beginning and end of term

comparisons, yielding a sample size of 16. Wilcoxon non-parametric statistical tests were performed on the data. In doing this survey the instructor expected to see positive changes in the students' experiences with and their perceived value of different teaching methods between the beginning and ending semester surveys, thus one-tailed Wilconxon tests were appropriate. The different teaching methods surveyed included: lectures, whole class discussions, small group class discussions, reading the textbook, studying on own, studying in a group, in-class exercises/assignments solved alone, in-class exercises/assignments solved in groups, out of class exercises/assignments solved in groups, discussions with the instructor, feedback from instructor on assignments, testing (exams and quizzes), chat rooms, bulletin boards, on-line discussions (threaded and unthreaded). The students did have an increased experience with whole class discussions, studying in a group, solving in-class work alone, discussions with the instructor, feedback from the instructor, and using bulletin boards. In addition the students perceived value with the various methods increased for class discussions, studying on his or her own, discussions with the instructor, and instructor feedback. These statistics, although not easily translated into general statements about all students, did give the instructor a chance to evaluate her teaching and what experiences she expected to increase. It was reinforcing to not have the students' values of lectures increase since very little lecturing was done in this course, except by the students and they described this as discussion rather than lecture, even though each case required the students to explain a new concept or issue to the class. It was rewarding to the instructor to note that the time spent providing students with feedback both through verbal and written (email and comments on papers) methods was acknowledged by the students in their perception that their experiences and the value of discussions with the instructor and feedback from the instructor on assignments had increased.

CONCLUSIONS

Increasingly, the instructors are using the Internet and computer mediated software to help provide on-campus students access to course materials, feedback and instructions, as well as, getting back into teaching courses in an online format. Therefore identifying how students value and perceive their experiences online will have a carryover to on-campus courses and hopefully improved courses delivered online. In addition, the online delivery of educational materials, courses and programs is and will continue to be "big business", so it is imperative that we begin assessing not only what makes a quality course, what promotes student satisfaction, but what can be done to add value to the students' or participants' experiences in the online instructional environment.

Personal experiences would suggest that many students are feeling time pressures and taking a course now and then online may be a method of easing some of this pressure. However, it will be helpful if the instructor can help the students identify early on if they really are suited to taking an online course and what they should expect. The research on what students experience and value and their preferences can be of use to other instructors as they revise their courses. Having the students complete a similar survey to determine their experiences and values may help the instructor tailor the course to more closely match the students' learning styles and needs.

REFERENCES

Carr, S. 2000. Faculty members are wary of distance-education ventures. *Chronicle of Higher Education*. June 9, A41-42.

Hansen, B. Do Online Courses Provide a Good Education? *CQ Researcher*, December 7, 2001.

Perreault, H., L. Waldman, M. Alexander, & J. Zhao. Overcoming Barriers to Successful delivery of Distance-Learning Courses. *Journal of Education for Business*. Jul/Aug 2002, 77(6), 313-319.

Serwatka, J.A., Improving Student Performance in Distance Learning Courses. *T H E Journal*. 2002, 29(9), 46-50.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Distance education as postsecondary education institutions: 1997-1998*. 1999. NCES 2000-13. Washington, DC: Author.

CONCEPT MAPPING: A CRITICAL THINKING DEVELOPMENT TOOL

Donna Smith, University of Central Arkansas
donnas@uca.edu
Lillian Parrish, Atlanta, GA

ABSTRACT

Instructional and learning tools developed and applied in one discipline may have successful application in other disciplines. Such is the case with concept mapping, a learning tool widely used in science and math disciplines. Generally, its application has been at the junior high and high school levels. This paper explores the use of concept mapping as a learning tool in an accounting course at the university level. The development of concept mapping and its link to critical thinking are first discussed. Then applications to accounting concepts are provided through examples of concept maps. Finally, results from using concept mapping in an accounting course are presented.

A DISCONTINUOUS CURRICULAR INNOVATION: MARKET DATABASE DEVELOPMENT

Val Larsen, James Madison University
larsenwv@jmu.edu
Angela D'Auria Stanton, James Madison University
stantoad@jmu.edu
Newell D. Wright, James Madison University
wrightnd@jmu.edu

ABSTRACT

Information management is, increasingly, becoming a fundamental marketing skill. But this fact is not reflected in the traditional marketing curriculum, which gives little attention to the hands-on use of databases and statistical packages. So this article proposes a curriculum change—the introduction of a new course, Market Database Development—designed to address this lack of training in information management and to implement the three-stage learning process of King, Wood, and Mines (1990). The article discusses the content and structure of the new course and its position within an updated Marketing curriculum.

THE CARE AND FEEDING OF ADJUNCT BUSINESS PROFESSORS: STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVED PERFORMANCE

Ellen West, Portland State University
ellenw@sba.pdx.edu

ABSTRACT

It was a sunny afternoon in early September and the leaves outside the conference room were just beginning to hint at the promise of fall. About a dozen people who had been hired to teach as adjunct instructors at this urban business school filed into the wood-paneled room with big windows overlooking the city center. They brought varied backgrounds to the job. Some were already teaching at other institutions of higher education in the area; one was staying home most of the time to care for her pre-school-aged children; another was an accountant for a large firm. They had met that day to learn about the business school at this large, bustling urban university. This orientation was designed to help them become successful in their initial ventures into the world of college teaching.

INTRODUCTION

The assumption of those designing the program was that the more the administration could help them connect to the business school and each other, the more they would be able to offer their students the same treatment. Building community with adjuncts would result in better performance in the classroom, fewer student complaints, and more effective student learning.

Because this business school operated without formal departments where they might more traditionally have found homes and sources of information, developmental services were offered through the office of the Associate Dean.

Most adjunct faculty bring enthusiasm and spirit to their teaching assignments. It is one of the reasons why many have gravitated to the classroom from other career pursuits Some have other full-time jobs or may be retired (Berger, A., 2002). Most are eager to share what they've learned with others and experience the intrinsic rewards that come from making a difference in the lives of their students. They also have a desire to be a part of the university community and experience the opportunity to develop relationships with their professional colleagues (Feldman, 2001). Additionally, they "provide an extraordinarily rich source of expertise that institutions might not otherwise find" (Leslie in Berger, L. 2002, p. 22). Because of the positive attitude that they bring to their teaching assignments, the administration was convinced that orienting them to their new jobs and to each other and the university would results in a better learning experience for everyone.

The goals for the program were to help adjuncts create a healthy classroom environment conducive to learning; to ensure retention of talented adjuncts and lessen turnover; and to solve

problems before they occurred so they wouldn't end up in the Dean's office. Given the increasing reliance upon part-time faculty by most institutions of higher learning (Wilson, 1998), the administration decided to create a structure and system that would contribute to their retention and development.

PRE-TEACHING STRATEGIES

The interview. The interview provided an opportunity to meet these potential teaching prospects to determine if they were a good match for the job, the students, adjunct teaching life, etc. The interview also provided the applicants with an opportunity to ask questions about the university, life in the business school, etc. Many of them had prior higher education teaching experience; however, for those coming from industry, the differences were usually quite significant.

The Associate Dean was interested in whether or not they had had teaching experience with another educational institution or training experience if they came from industry. Some brought teaching evaluations with them. They were asked several questions to help better understand their philosophy of teaching, their style, and what they hoped to gain from the experience: Why are you interested in teaching? What do you expect to gain from being in the classroom? What do you think you could accomplish in a term's time? How would your students be different at the end of your course? What attracts you to this type of assignment in the first place? What kind of ideas do you have about the activities you might engage the students in? The interview usually took place with a subject matter expert (SME) from one of the various disciplines that was represented in the school (accounting, finance, marketing, management, etc.) That person asked questions that were more technical in nature. All applicants submitted resumes and references were checked. All of this information provided a good idea of whether or not they were a good match for the teaching assignment.

Orientation. Once hired, the new adjuncts were invited to attend an orientation to review what to expect during the first week of class as well as to introduce them to the resources of the School. Representatives from the Dean's Office the Office of Student Services (advising) and the Faculty Services Office were present. The group also toured the School.

Classroom visits. The Associate Dean also asked to visit their classrooms at a date that was appropriate and convenient for them. A mid-term evaluation form was distributed and they were asked to share the results with the Associate Dean.

Connecting with the Dean and other selected faculty members. The Dean usually spent some time with them talking about their importance to the School Occasionally a veteran faculty member joined in the discussion and often talked about "three important things to remember your first week of teaching." The addition of this faculty member ensured that the conversations about teaching were relevant, authentic, and compelling. It was also an opportunity for adjuncts to meet more people from the business school. In a follow-up survey, one adjunct wrote, "It was great to get to meet the other adjuncts and very helpful to hear from a few experienced teachers."

E-mail distribution list. Contact information was collected and an email distribution list was developed. Each new adjunct was also put in contact with someone from the appropriate subject area so that faculty member could assist with the design of the syllabus as well as ordering books.

DURING THE QUARTER

During the term a variety of techniques were used in order to help adjuncts professors stay connected to the business school as well as the university.

Phone communication. Each adjunct received a phone call from the Associate Dean's office sometime during the first three weeks of the term in order to deal with any unexpected problems that developed.

Email. Updates were sent to adjuncts regarding activities in the business school as well as the academic community that might have been of interest to them. For example,
They were encouraged to explore "Tomorrow's Professor" which is a useful listserv
from Stanford University that deals with effective teaching techniques.

Classroom visits. The Associate Dean made scheduled visits to all "first termers" at a mutually agreed upon time. There were also follow-up conversations to these visits where a variety of topics were discussed regarding teaching techniques.

Midterm evaluations. As already reported, these had been distributed earlier and adjuncts were encouraged to administer them and share the results with the Associate Dean. They were also encouraged to share the results with their classes if they deemed
that appropriate.

Effective teaching seminar.. This workshop occurred about midway through the term. It was designed to exposed adjuncts to some of the elements of effective teaching techniques for adults (Knowles, 1984; Knox, 1986; Zemke, 1984) as well as give them an opportunity to problem solve regarding their own questions and those of their adjunct colleagues.

A representative form the University's Center for Academic Excellence (CAE) was also invited to attend. The introduction of this person was an important part of the strategy to help adjuncts improve their classroom performance since the center provides (check verb tense) excellence-in-teaching coaching to part-time as well as full-time faculty. The values of their assistance cannot be underestimated. As one adjunct wrote: "Because the associate dean of the SBA and the director of the CAE were willing to spend the time with us, I felt appreciated and important." This same person also indicated that "both the suggested techniques and the encouragement were great."

Social gatherings.. Other strategies to help adjunct professors connect with the academic community included an invitation to the end-of-term party which the business School hosted for faculty and staff and a discussion with the Associate Dean about teaching for the next term.

POST-TERM STRATEGIES

Student evaluations. These were returned to adjuncts with comments from the Associate Dean as quickly as possible after the end of the term. This provided another opportunity for conversation to occur regarding what was working in their classes as well as any areas which needed improvement.

Correspondence. Following the term the adjuncts received either a new contract letter or a letter thanking them for their service.

Follow-up survey.. In a survey conducted during 2002, adjuncts were asked to identify aspects of this program that they thought were working and also those that needed improvement. The adjuncts commented that they appreciated the orientation and teaching effectiveness meets as well as the support that the CAE offered them. Additionally they indicated that it was "great to meet the other adjuncts," and "helpful to hear from a few experienced teachers."

They also identified several areas that needed improvement including: creating a core contact person in each subject area; publicizing available University services; getting adjuncts on the University email system; bringing them together with tenure-track faculty in their area; standardizing the training and socialization process; and providing mentoring opportunities by full-time faculty.

LESSONS LEARNED

Accessibility. There needs to be a primary contact for adjuncts and that person needs to be accessible and available to them…by phone, email, during office hours, and even outside of work. The Associate Dean visited adjuncts during the day, in the evening, and even on weekends when classes were being held. This responsibility could certainly be a shared one, also.

Retention. Building an adjunct community should result in better rates of retention in spite of low wages. The administration rarely had an adjunct turn down a request for teaching the following term after this process was implemented. If an adjunct did have to say "no", it usually meant that other forces in the adjunct's life (primarily other employment or family obligations) had interfered with her availability to teach.

Flexibility. It pays to be flexible regarding scheduling opportunities for adjuncts. Some of the most effective adjunct faculty members are ones who need "special consideration" in terms of their teaching schedules. Most are willing to each at traditional class times; but some were more adventurous. The very first Saturday class that the Business School scheduled was taught by an adjunct at his request.

As one wrote, "Your willingness to try new formats: weekends, short or concentrated courses, etc., was a blessing. It really gave me new highs to reach for in modifying classes to meet student needs."

Creativity. Recognize that adjuncts are a source of good ideas for continuous improvement of programs; email makes it easy for them to share ideas with each other as well as the administration. When starting a new program designed for them, ask a few of them what they would find most helpful. That will ensure attendance at some of the early programs.

During the past decade the number of adjunct professors in higher education has continued to increase; and at last count represents more than 40 per cent of all faculty members (Wilson, 1998). This appears to be a trend that will continue (German, 1996). They are a critical part of higher education's instructional delivery system and will remain so in the foreseeable future. Administrators should anticipate their needs and design programs to meet them. Hopefully the ideas in this article will foster a creative approach to this challenge.

REFERENCES

Berger, A., Kirshstein, R., Zhang, Y., and Carter, K. (2002). *A profile of part-time Faculty: Fall 1998.* Center for Education Statistics.

Berger, L. (2002). The rise of the perma-temp. *The New York Times*, Section 4A, pp. 20-23, August 4.

Feldman, D., & Turnley, W. A field study of adjunct faculty: The impact of career stage on reactions to non-tenure-track jobs. *Journal of Career Development,* 28(1), 1-16.

German, K.M. (1996). Part-time faculty: Identifying the trends and challenges. *Journal of the association for Communication Administration,* 1996(3), 231-241.

Knowles, M.S. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species* (3rd edition). Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Knox, A (1986). *Helping adults learn*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wilson, R. (1998). For some adjunct faculty members, the tenure track holds little appeal. *Chronicle of higher education*, 44 (46), 8-10.

Zemke, Ron & Susan (1984). Thirty things we know for sure about adult learning. *Zemke Innovation Abstracts*, VI(8), March 9.

APPLYING THE STEWARDS OF PLACE MODEL: INTEGRATING TEACHING, RESEARCH AND SERVICE THROUGH ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Rebecca J. White, Northern Kentucky University
whiter@nku.edu
Giles T. Hertz, Northern Kentucky University
hertzg@nku.edu
Rodney R. D'Souza, Northern Kentucky University
dsouzar@nku.edu

ABSTRACT

According to Timmons and Spinelli, (2003 p. 3) "America has unleashed the most revolutionary generation the nation has experienced since its founding in 1776." Increasingly, this new generation of entrepreneurs has called for an emphasis on academic programs in the field. Today there are over 1,800 colleges, universities and community colleges with entrepreneurship classes, programs and initiatives (Timmons and Spinelli, 2003). This interest in entrepreneurship education coincides with a desire among university leaders to be more responsive to regional needs. This responsiveness can be summarized in a paradigm of higher education that suggests universities have a responsibility to be Stewards of Place (AASCU, 2002). The authors argue that entrepreneurship education offers an elegant answer to this paradigm by providing a solution that integrates teaching, research and service.

While the resulting interest and demand for entrepreneurship education has led to tremendous opportunities for university programs and centers, the rising interest in entrepreneurship education has caused some challenges for the discipline. Added to the growing number of students from all majors who wish to study entrepreneurship, there is significant debate about pedagogy and course content, limited faculty to fill increasing numbers of teaching and research positions, more and more interest from university administration for faculty members to add significant levels of outreach to their portfolios, and continuing difficulties with mainstream research journals accepting entrepreneurship related research. While many of these are positive indicators of the growth of entrepreneurship education, they often leave entrepreneurship educators caught between traditional measures of academic success and the demands of an emerging discipline.

Many of the current problems facing the discipline of entrepreneurship may provide a significant opportunity for the creation of a new model for education. In this paper the authors provide an example of how to simultaneously combine outreach, teaching and scholarship. The project included the creation of an assessment model for early stage entrepreneurs that was designed for use through a program funded by the Commonwealth of Kentucky.

Students were involved in the initial research and design of the assessment tool that was ultimately created. Their research efforts engaged them in a literature review, focus group research and collection of data via surveys. Based on this research, the students and faculty involved in the project used the findings to create a product that is now being used by the Commonwealth of Kentucky in a statewide economic development program.

The authors briefly describe the findings of the research and plans for how the project will be utilized in the classroom and shared via academic publications are outlined. This project serves as an example of how entrepreneurship faculty can blend traditional standards of success with the expectations and opportunities created in an emerging and growing academic field.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Timmons, J. A. and S. Spinelli. (2003) *New Venture Creation: Entrepreneurship for the 21st Century*. McGraw Hill – Irwin: Boston.

AASCU Task Force on Public Engagement. (2002) *Stepping Forward as Stewards of Place: A guide for Leading Public Engagement at State Colleges and Universities*, AASCU : Washington, DC.

INTERNATIONALIZING BUSINESS EDUCATION AND PARTICIPATION IN EXCHANGE PROGRAMS: A SURVEY OF STUDENTS OPINION

Ghirmay S. Ghebreyesus, Southern University and A&M College
ghebreg98@yahoo.com

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's world, there is high degree of economic interdependence. A nation's economy - its industries, level of income and employment, standard of living - are linked to the economies of other countries. This linkage takes the form of international movements of goods and services, labor, business enterprise, investment funds and technology. Hence, business policies cannot be formulated without considering the probable impacts on the economies of other countries.

At a time when global interdependence is becoming much more diverse, students need to learn about international business and business practices from other countries. This can be done by creating large study abroad programs, by teaching courses related to international business and by conducting seminars and workshops on international education. These initiatives will provide college students with a sophisticated understanding of the increasingly interconnected global economy. It will also prepare them to become more informed, socially responsible, and engaged citizens of the nation and the world at large.

This study is based on students' knowledge of international business education programs. It examines their opinion about the beneficial effects of international business and exchange programs and how well they will prepare them to exercise their citizenship, not only in a national setting, but simultaneously in a global realm of opportunities and challenges. Information about the need for international business education and exchange programs is collected from a sample of students attending Grambling State University, Grambling, Louisiana.

II. NEED FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION.

The internationalization of education is becoming an imperative for educators as well as students. Educators need to become more innovative in their approaches to internationalize their teaching, research, and public service efforts. They need to integrate into the teaching materials issues that cross national boundaries such as inflation, economic instability, energy crisis, environmental pollution, world population, food supply, peace and security, etc. They need to expand their research by including a global component; by establishing contacts with colleagues overseas; and by attending conferences that focus on global issues in their disciplines. Furthermore, they must be in a position to advise, direct, and inform not only their students, but also practicing managers, community leaders, and public officials as to their options concerning global issues.

Of far more importance is the involvement of students in the internationalization process. It is well known that most of business graduates are absorbed by giant corporations with

international connections. Therefore, it is imperative that business students develop a greater appreciation of international issues. They must be familiar with basic issues pertaining to the following: international trade, international finance, new international economic order, international economic cooperation, multinational corporations, North-South dialogue, international negotiations, and cross cultural communication. These will reinforce their understanding of global and inter cultural issues facing the business community.

Exchange program is the most important form of internationalization, after teaching, for students. Most universities organize student exchange programs with partnering universities abroad. The experience of living in a culture that differs dramatically from one's own culture is in itself an educational experience.

Other programs that will enhance student awareness of global issues include multi cultural awareness and foreign language training. In an increasingly interdependent world, especially when large companies operate in many countries, students need to understand cultures other than their own and accept the differences in business practices among managers in other nations (Ravenscroft and Clark, 1991). Also, mastery of foreign languages is an enormous asset. English is the dominant language but the importance of understanding many languages is imperative in today's world.

Short-term travel abroad (four to six weeks) also offer an alternative for undergraduate students. The students along with a faculty supervisor can travel abroad and visit major cities, stop at corporate headquarters of major global corporations, and attend cultural events. Foreign universities or partner universities can also be used as a base for short academic programs. In fact a stay up to six weeks at partner institutions during the summer is becoming a popular way of gaining valuable experience abroad (Tesar, G. and Moini, A.H., 1998).

III. STUDENT SURVEY

Information on student opinion of international business education and exchange programs was gathered from a questionnaire offered to a sample of undergraduate students at Grambling State University. Ninety seven students completed the questionnaire on January 23-24, 2002. (1).

The questionnaire has two sections. The first section contained demographic/biographic information of the students. A total of 97 students completed the questionnaire. Forty eight percent of the respondents were male students and 52 percent female students. Twenty six percent of the students surveyed were seniors; 41 percent juniors; 28 percent sophomores; and, only 5 percent freshmen. Ninety percent of the students were African Americans. This is attributed to Grambling State being a historically black university. Seventy percent of the students were business majors, 24 percent liberal arts and education, and 6 percent science and technology majors. Almost 30 percent of the respondents claimed that they speak one or more languages.

The second sections contained questions on student knowledge and capabilities about international business education and exchange programs. Ten knowledge based categories were presented in this section. The participants were asked to indicate the degrees to which each of the categories applies to them. Table 1 summarizes their views. The findings are grouped by benefits, interest to participate in international exchange programs, and overall satisfaction.

In terms of perceived benefits, over 80 percent of the students gave high value to international business education and believe that it will help them prepare for a global realm of

opportunities and challenges, and understand the interconnected global economy. Ninety percent of junior and all senior students considered international business education relevant in their pursuit to develop future career.

In terms of student evaluation of international student exchange programs, 72 percent agreed that it helps them learn foreign cultures and broaden their knowledge of business practices outside the United States. In addition, almost 70 percent of the students confirmed their desire to pursue international business career and work outside the United States. It should be noted that with respect to career pursuits, male students feel confident about their ability to do well in a foreign country.

Students were also surveyed for their views of understanding foreign cultures and learning foreign languages. Eighty four percent of the students viewed multi-cultural awareness (i.e knowledge of customs, traditions, norms, values, and belief systems of different peoples) as a worthwhile learning initiative. They also believed that knowledge of foreign languages improve their understanding of business procedures in foreign countries.

In general, the students surveyed appeared to be favorable of international education. Seventy five percent of the respondents felt very positive about international education and exchange programs.

Finally, t-tests were used to determine whether significant difference existed in perception of international business and exchange programs between male and female students. There was only one issue where there was a statistically significant difference between male and female students at a 5 percent significance level. Male students tend to be more at ease studying and/or working abroad than female students. They seem to be more interested about career opportunities outside the United States than female students.

In conclusion, international business education and exchange programs will broaden the students knowledge of global markets. Business schools need to incorporate international business into the core curriculum. Instructional cases dealing with global business need to be integrated into the course material and exchange programs need to be effectively presented as a viable alternative to university students.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION AND EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentages				
A.	International business education will help me prepare for a global realm of opportunities and challenges.	8	1	8	44	39
B.	International business education can help me understand the interconnected global economy.	5	3	10	42	39
C.	I feel very positive about international					

	education and exchange programs	3	5	17	46	28
D.	International student exchange programs will help me broaden my knowledge of business practices outside the United States.	5	2	21	38	34
E.	I enjoy traveling outside the United States and/or living in a foreign country pursuing my career.	8	13	23	28	28
F.	I feel at ease studying and/or working outside the United States.	10	10	27	32	21
G.	I am confident about my ability to do well outside the United States	8	13	20	38	21
H.	Multi cultural awareness and knowledge of foreign languages will improve my understanding of business procedures in other countries .	6	4	6	38	46
I.	Besides courses in international business, business schools should offer supplementary international elements in their curriculum.	6	4	32	42	16
J.	If I were to work for a multinational corporation outside the United States, I could get a lot of satisfaction from it	6	7	39	30	18

Note: The rating is on a 5-point scale: 1= strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=uncertain or unsure; 4=agree; and, 5=strongly agree.

TABLE 2
MALE STUDENTS: PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION AND EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentages				
A.	International business education will help me prepare for a global realm of opportunities and challenges.	13	2	2	34	49
B.	International business education can help me understand the interconnected global economy.	9	4	6	34	49
C.	I feel very positive about international education and exchange programs	4	9	20	36	29
D.	International student exchange programs					

	will help me broaden my knowledge of business practices outside the United States.	9	2	21	36	32
E.	I enjoy traveling outside the United States and/or living in a foreign country pursuing my career.	8	6	6	42	38
F.	I feel at ease studying and/or working outside the United States.	2	2	17	49	28
G.	I am confident about my ability to do well outside the United States	7	7	7	49	30
H.	Multi cultural awareness and knowledge of foreign languages will improve my understanding of business procedures in other countries .	9	4	9	34	43
I.	Besides courses in international business, business schools should offer supplementary international elements in their curriculum.	9	4	21	45	22
J.	If I were to work for a multinational corporation outside the United States, I could get a lot of satisfaction from it	6	9	23	34	28

Note: The rating is on a 5-point scale: 1= strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=uncertain or unsure; 4=agree; and, 5=strongly agree.

TABLE 3
FEMALE STUDENTS: PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION AND EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentages				
A.	International business education will help me prepare for a global realm of opportunities and challenges.	4	0	6	50	32
B.	International business education can help me understand the interconnected global economy.	0	4	14	48	30
C.	I feel very positive about international education and exchange programs	0	1	16	50	30
D.	International student exchange programs will help me broaden my knowledge of business practices outside the					

	United States.	2	4	18	40	28
E.	I enjoy traveling outside the United States and/or living in a foreign country pursuing my career.	6	18	48	14	14
F.	I feel at ease studying and/or working outside the United States.	16	16	38	16	14
G.	I am confident about my ability to do well outside the United States	10	18	36	26	10
H.	Multi cultural awareness and knowledge of foreign languages will improve my understanding of business procedures in other countries .	4	4	4	34	52
I.	Besides courses in international business, business schools should offer supplementary international elements in their curriculum.	4	4	34	40	18
J.	If I were to work for a multinational corporation outside the United States, I could get a lot of satisfaction from it	8	8	54	20	10

Note: The rating is on a 5-point scale: 1= strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=uncertain or unsure; 4=agree; and, 5=strongly agree.

NOTES:

1. The president of State Engineering University of Armenia along with three of his faculty visited Grambling State University, Southern University Baton Rouge and Southern University New Orleans, January 25-February 1, 2002. The visiting team interacted with the students surveyed and conducted a seminar on emerging market economies in Europe and Asia.

REFERENCES:

Tesar, George and Moini, A.H., 1998. "Globalization of Faculty, Students, and Programs: An Approach." Journal of Teaching in International Business, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 85-104.

Ravenscroft, S. and Clark, G., 1991. "Cultural and Ethical Relativism: Teaching the Ethics of International Business." Journal of Teaching in International Business, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp. 33-49.

Authors' Index