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**ACADEMY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP  
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## LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

Welcome to the *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*. The editorial content of this journal is under the control of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The mission of the *AELJ* is to publish theoretical, empirical, practical or pedagogic manuscripts in education. Its objective is to expand the boundaries of the literature by supporting the exchange of ideas and insights which further the understanding of education.

The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

We intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge and in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

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Michael Shurden  
and  
Nancy Niles  
Editors





# **TRANSFORMING A UNIVERSITY: A STUDY OF PROCESS LEADERSHIP**

**Linda M. Randall, University of Hawai'i-West O'ahu**

## **ABSTRACT**

*This study focuses on the change initiative of one upper-division university to become a four-year institution. In order for the change to be effective, the institution needed to gain the buy-in of staff and faculty, provide a mechanism to manage potential resistance and conflict, and encourage the faculty and staff to become proactive leaders in the transformation. Heifetz's adaptive leadership model was applied to this institutional change process, which is described as a six-step process. These six steps are: 1) Identification of the Challenge, 2) Recognition that Change is Difficult, 3) Framing the Issues to the stakeholders, 4) Secure stakeholder ownership in the initiative, 5) Manage the conflict and 6) Creating safe haven so all opinions can be expressed. A case study, which follows the efforts of two critical committees through this six-step process, is presented as a way to demonstrate the effectiveness of the adaptive leadership model. As the case in the study demonstrates, the leadership focused intensely on process, working with resistance, and creating a sustainable, and continuously transforming institution. Subsequently, after nearly 30 years as an upper division and graduate university, the institution successfully transitioned to a four-year university.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

Across the U.S., public higher education is facing daunting challenges, as college and university administrators attempt to meet the growing needs of their current student population with less financial support from state governments (Pope, 2009). Even before the current economic downturn began in 2007, the demand for higher education was increasing, placing more of a strain on existing human and physical resources at these institutions (Bowen, Chingo & McPherson, 2009). According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, enrollment growth of full-time students for the 1989-1999 period was 9.2 percent; however, growth between 1999-2009 accelerated to 32 percent (Snyder & Dillow, 2010: 16). Most of this growth can be attributed to more full-time and traditional age students rather than part-time and older students (Knapp, Kelly-Reid & Ginder, 2008). During 2007-2018, it is forecasted that enrollments will continue to increase, albeit with a shift in the age breakdown, with only a 9 percent increase in

students under age 25 and about a 20 percent increase in students over the age of 25 (Snyder & Dillow, 2010: 269).

This study focuses on the efforts of one institution to find a solution for these challenges. This University responded to enrollment demands by transforming itself from a mostly evening, upper division institution, to one that offered four years of undergraduate study and increased daytime options. In this way, the institution took advantage of the increasing demand for higher education and did so at a minimal increase in resources. Although the use of underutilized campus space and classrooms seems to be an obvious move to increase efficiency of resources, this change was transformational for this university, as it would impact every administrative, and most academic units. The institution was upper division for almost 30 years, catering to the academic and support needs of community college transfer students. The institution had to rethink every service that it provided to ensure that what was typically satisfactory for its adult, commuting students would be appropriate for 17 to 18 year old students. In addition, this change was mandated to take less than two years to accomplish. Before focusing on the case study, it is helpful to consider other higher education institutions that have confronted similar external pressures and initiated transformations as well.

In brief, external challenges have meant many institutions have had to change their missions, which led to major structural and academic changes as well as name changes. For example, recently two other upper division institutions—University of Houston-Victoria (Kever, 2010) and Washington State University-Tri-Cities campus (Mulick, 2006), made major structural and academic changes by expanding their course offerings to become four-year universities.

A similar trend is occurring within the community college sector. There are a number of these colleges that are transitioning from offering two-year associate's degrees to four-year, bachelor's degrees. According to Lewin, in 2009, 17 states authorized community colleges to expand their curriculum to the upper division level, thus becoming four-year institutions. The state of Florida has 14 community colleges now offering bachelor's degrees, which is the most in the nation (Lewin, 2009).

Last, there are institutions that have initiated name changes. Some have occurred because of community college conversions, such as Maui College, which was Maui Community College before its conversion in 2010. But other institutions changed their name because there had been a shift in the institutional culture and the scope of the educational mission. For example, there have been institutions that have experienced a change in their student population and types of programs. Colleges that once attracted students from one city or a specific state or region are now attracting students from across the nation and even internationally (Cerve, 2010; Moorer, 2007; Nott, 2010). Given these changes in the scope of the service and mission of the institution, a number of these institutions' "identities" were rebranded, which resulted in a name change (Cerve, 2010; Haytko, Burris & Smith, 2008; Moorer, 2007). In any of the abovementioned iterations, the process to change the name of the institution is indicative of the process for overall community buy-in for the change and can be predictive of success. One study focused on

whether faculty involvement was critical for this type of initiative success. It found that faculty involvement was critical to strengthen a unified brand and image in the marketplace (Moorer, 2007:141).

The purpose of this paper is to provide an example of one institution that converted from an upper division to a four-year and to detail the leadership process that allowed for campus-wide engagement. This case study will demonstrate that the process of change, not the individual style of leadership, is what was critical to this university's successful transformation. According to Heifetz et al. (1994), the adaptive leadership model, which focuses on the leadership process rather than on individual leaders, can be implemented over the long run and can create enduring change. In higher education, the buy-in process of change is long and arduous and people need to be persuaded to look at new models, which means changing existing assumptions. Transforming an institution that catered to juniors and seniors and graduate students to one that would also include first-year students coming directly from high school meant that assumptions about teaching and providing academic support services would need to be adjusted.

Before presenting the case study, I briefly explain the adaptive leadership model, which was developed by Heifetz et al. (1994, 2004, 2009). Afterwards, there will be a description of the institution's initiative to change from an upper division to a four-year campus. Heifetz's model will be used to explicate the change process on this campus. The name of the institution will remain anonymous due to the level of detail and some of the challenges that it faced.

### **PROCESS IS KEY: THE CASE FOR ADAPTIVE LEADERSHIP**

Change is difficult for the members of any organization to accept; however, when the change affects the very mission of the institution and impacts almost every constituent group, mere difficulty can become resistance and even obstruction. At the core of higher education leadership is shared governance, which requires that the key constituents be part of the decision making process. To instigate change in this community, there must be opportunities for faculty, staff and students to voice their views. The process of gaining a consensus requires much time and in the end may not result in the needed change. Although the president of an institution can make the final decision, many top administrators understand that major decisions made without buy-in by the major university governing bodies and participants may not achieve successful implementation or sustainability, especially after that president or top administrator leaves the institution. Therefore, reliance on the more traditional leadership models, which tend to be based on the actions, communication and style of an individual, is not the best method with which to enact sustained change in a higher education institution.

Two traditional leadership models, transactional and transformational, are individual-centric, i.e. focus on the style of the individual who is in the leadership position. For example, in transactional leadership, the individual leader uses resources to garner support for the change

initiative (Pounder, 1999, 2001; Randall & Coakley, 2007). As long as the administrator or department chair has the resources to get the support of the faculty, this will work. Typically, transactional leadership will work only as long as the stipends or course releases for faculty continue (Neumann & Neumann, 1999). Given the current lack of resources in higher education and the prospect for public institutions to receive less financial support, the use of resources to move initiatives forward will become increasingly difficult. In the other model, i.e. transformational leadership, the leader's style and charisma are the basis to motivate people to move forward with that leader's vision (Bass, 1985). However, once that individual leader leaves the institution, there will be a risk that the new leadership will not have the ability to motivate the members to continue with the change.

### **Adaptive Leadership-A Guide to Process Leadership**

Change in higher education can only take place if the faculty are committed to participate and in some instances, actually lead the change initiative. As Heifetz et al. (2006: 4) noted, leadership is the "activity of mobilizing people to tackle the toughest problems and do the adaptive work necessary to achieve progress." Heifetz's model of adaptive leadership stipulates that the key to success is that leadership becomes a process that is not vested in one individual. Many administrators in higher education state that moving the faculty and others in one direction to meet a goal is an impossible task, commonly claiming that it is like "herding cats." Given that, it becomes necessary to let the "herd" lead the change, particularly in the case being explicated here which required institutional change on a grand scale. The proposed change from upper division undergraduate programs to four-year undergraduate programs that is being detailed here impacted nearly every administrative unit and most of the undergraduate academic programs. The academic programs, in particular, were impacted on a number of levels. First, each program would have to expand from a two-year one to a four-year, which had multiple implications. Second, most general education courses, many of which span disciplines, would have to be developed. Third, the faculty designated to teach the first-year students would have to learn or relearn how to teach traditional age students and to teach lower division or introductory level courses. Given the wide-ranging scope of the proposed transformation of this institution, in some ways galvanizing people from the various units and academic areas was the only way to ensure a successful implementation. Therefore, the process of gaining stakeholder support and effort was key to being able to open the doors to first-year students in the required time frame, just over two years. Hence, Heifetz's adaptive leadership model, which focuses on gaining the support of all those vested in finding a solution, was the most appropriate leadership model. The adaptive leadership model is explained in a series of steps.

The first step begins with identifying the challenge as either technical or adaptive. *Technical* refers to a problem that is known and that requires a certain knowledge or skill. Typically the solutions for these types of problems can be found in standard operating

procedures or have been noted as policies. For example, one problem that fits into this technical category is a student complaint regarding a course grade. Most institutions have a faculty handbook or other policy manual which provides a guide to all those involved in the issue. However, an adaptive issue is a problem that is not well-defined, that cannot be solved by a handbook or known guidelines. *Adaptive* challenges tend to be complex, involving several stakeholders with a solution that may be “rooted in the stakeholders, their attitudes, priorities, or behavior” (Heifetz et al., 2004: 25). For example, if a number of students received low grades in the same course or series of courses in a program, this might signal a need for a larger, more complex or adaptive solution. For instance, the department chair may need to bring the entire department together to discuss if there is a curricular issue or a general preparation issue for students. Whenever the issue cannot be solved by policy or common practice, and in fact necessitates a review of policy or practice, there is a need for an adaptive change process to be followed.

Once the adaptive nature of the problem has been identified, Heifetz posits a series of steps (Heifetz et al., 2004). The second step in this model is recognition that change is difficult and that the issues will be muddied as various stakeholders respond to the challenges from their own perspectives. Third, framing and focusing the issues on the core problems faced by the institution is critical so that efforts will continue to be focused on the end result. Fourth, Heifetz notes the need for sufficient stakeholders to secure ownership in the challenge so that they will move the initiative forward. In higher education as well as other sectors, those who will be most impacted by the change should buy-in to it and take ownership in the solution, as any solution dictated from above will often be short lived.

The fifth step in this model is managing conflict. Invariably, any proposed change results in resistance and conflict. One way to mitigate or lessen the resistance is to continually remind the stakeholders of the challenges faced by the institution and that status quo is not an option given the severity of the problem(s). Also, Heifetz proposes that there will be a need to create rules of engagement for discussing heated issues and defining reporting structures. Sixth, creating a safe haven is necessary as the change initiatives will create stresses on the participants and existing power structures and group dynamics within the institution may create barriers for some to participate in the change and to express their true opinion about the change. Heifetz offers the creation of a “safe space” for discussion of disparate perspectives.

Thus the theory emphasizes the need for a process that allows people to take on the role of leader in the change initiative. It also exposes the human element of change, i.e. acknowledging the heightened anxiety caused by change, the need to handle the issues of power and politics within groups and organizations and understand that transformative change requires a shift in behavior, the most difficult aspect of any change.

## THE DESCRIPTION OF THE TRANSFORMATION

### **The Method**

The case study method, a qualitative approach to gathering data and analysis was used to study the leadership process for the change that was occurring at this particular University. This study focused on the initial phase of the change, which established the style of leadership employed to transform the institution. As John Van Maanen stated, the strength of qualitative research is that “[Q]ualitative investigators tend also to describe the unfolding of social processes rather than the social structures” (1979: 520). This study focuses on the process of leadership rather than the structures that were changed for this transformation. Thus, the qualitative method was most appropriate for this study. Second the case method was selected. According to Yin, the case study is a good tool for reporting and analysis of nuanced research (1981; 1989). Based on the goal to focus on process, the next section explicates the situation and demonstrates how the adaptive leadership model frames the process that was employed to transform this University.

### **Description of the Challenges facing the University**

Higher education systems across the country are faced with less financial support from state governments while at the same time there is public demand for more access to higher education. Studies and surveys of high school seniors have noted that a larger percentage of seniors desire to go further in their education than was the case a generation ago. For example, one U. S. Department of Education report notes that when comparing high school seniors in 1972 and 2004, 85% of 2004 students note that they have plans to go further in their education versus 62% in 1972 (Ingels & Dalton, 2008:25). This trend, coupled with the lessening of state budget support, meant Boards of Regents and the State higher education systems needed to find alternative ways to provide more access to students at a minimal cost.

One state funded institution affected by this trend was an upper division institution. The student population was mostly transferring from community colleges, entering after they had earned approximately 60 credits. These students tended to be an average age of 32, mostly women, with a large percentage of minority and first-generation college goers. This population preferred evening, weekend, and online classes given their busy lives balancing full-time work with family responsibilities. As a result, classrooms were empty during most of the daytime hours. At that time, the university’s enrollments were down nearly 20% from their highest point and had been relatively flat at this low level for several years. One of the reasons for the decline in enrollment was that the more traditional four-year institutions had begun to compete in earnest for transfer students from the community colleges. Even ten years previously, the more traditional four-year institutions had relied very heavily on enrollment from the traditional age high school student. Given declining state financial support, tuition became an increasingly

important revenue source, therefore increasing enrollments from different avenues became critical. As a result, this upper division institution, which used to be considered the “friendly transfer institution” for the community college student, was now just one of many “friends”, as many of the traditional campuses started to recruit these transfer students more aggressively.

The confluence of external events, i.e. the surge in enrollments, the budget constraints and the flat enrollments and empty daytime classrooms, created a good opportunity to seriously consider and potentially implement a massive change for the institution. The challenge was that the institution had been upper division for almost 30 years and the staff, faculty, students and alumni had come to proudly think of the institution as unique. It had become a wonderful community where adult learners who knew what career-oriented field they wanted to pursue could do so with others who were like-minded. The staff and faculty understood adult learners and were confident that they provided appropriate academic support and academic experiences for this population. However, what was not widely known was that this institution was stagnating and that if there were not changes to its structure and mission, it eventually would become financially less viable. The complacency of the institution was challenged when fiscal realities were more effectively communicated.

### **The University’s Change Process**

The process to transform this campus from an upper division comprehensive institution to a four-year took place over a two-year period. The change itself was a complex effort, which involved key constituents, i.e. faculty, student affairs, facilities, information technology and academic affairs. The planning process involved the initial creation of two committees: one to determine the financial, human and physical resources required to become a four-year institution and the other to develop an overarching concept for the lower division learning experience. From these committees, four other committees were eventually formed. By the end of the two years of transformation, ten committees and workgroups had been formed and over fifty staff and faculty, nearly 25%, had been directly or indirectly involved through participation in forums, town halls and other opportunities for input. (Actually, there was a lot of hallway chatter that probably engaged many more staff and faculty.)

This paper will focus on the process followed by the initial two Committees as the change process used during the initial six-month period was replicated for the remaining period. The recommendations from these two committees provided the scope of work for the other committees. The case study will focus on the activities and process that occurred during the initial six months.

The steps of the adaptive leadership process are noted below.

First step--Identification of the challenge: technical or adaptive:

Heifetz's adaptive leadership model is based on whether the challenge requires a "technical" or "adaptive" solution. This determination is critical, since an incorrect assessment of the challenge could cause the model to guide the institution to a short-term solution when a long-term answer would be a better focus. In this case, the first step was for the administrators of the university to provide the stakeholders with the information necessary for a determination to be made. It was critical that all of the key constituents understand that action was required, i.e. that a crisis was brewing. The leadership organized a town hall meeting, which close to a third of the staff and faculty attended. At the meeting, the president discussed the challenges facing the campus. In brief, the discussion centered around the news that the state's funding formula for higher education would henceforth be based on enrollment growth, which meant that the institution needed to increase enrollments. The president discussed several potential causes for the current challenges and suggested the need to transform to a four-year campus. After the discussion, the participants in the town hall were divided into breakout groups, each with a facilitator. The primary goal of these groups was to continue the discussion and gather people's ideas and concerns regarding the possibility of converting to a four-year institution. Afterwards, an online survey was developed so that staff and faculty could provide their input in an anonymous manner. (See exhibit for survey questions and summary of results.) Based on all of the input from these various formats, it was clear to the community that the University faced a growing financial challenge such that enrollments needed to be increased, and that the transformation to a four-year was a viable and attractive option.

It was now clear to the administration and the campus community that the types of changes that would be required could not simply be addressed in a policy manual. Based on Heifetz's model, the situation met the criteria of an adaptive challenge in that the solution would require a variety of stakeholders as well as a change in both attitudes and priorities. In other words, the presentations offered at the town hall meetings and results from surveys led the community to the conclusion that a long-term comprehensive solution was needed. As a result, two committees were created—Capacity Committee and Academic Concept Committee.

Second step--Recognize that change is difficult:

Based on the Heifetz adaptive model, the next step would be to recognize that conflict would arise, and to unbundle the emotional responses from the issues. In the beginning of the process, the various constituents noted a variety of concerns. As was mentioned in the previous section (First Step), the faculty and staff participated in an online survey in which the results indicated the potential areas of resistance and wariness regarding the change initiative (see Exhibit). In summary, the primary area of concern was a lack of faith that the leadership could get the resources to fund the initiative. The second concern was that resources would be taken



away from existing academic and student affairs programs. Third, a question arose regarding the possibility that the current mission, to support the adult learner, would change. This brought up lots of heated exchange. The University community was very proud of its reputation as an excellent and supportive learning environment for adult learners. The faculty's and staff's general question was whether or not the campus could successfully mix its culture of supporting adult learners with recent high school graduates. There were other concerns, but these specific areas had been more frequently expressed in the town hall, break-out sessions and the online survey.

Dissecting the issues of the faculty meant finding a process that would tackle each of these concerns. Although the faculty might agree that change was required, they were the ones that needed to participate in the process, otherwise no curriculum would be developed and no faculty would be willing to teach the lower division courses. Separating faculty concerns into their respective categories helped the faculty to recognize and respond to the seriousness of the challenge.

#### Third step--Framing the issues and focusing attention:

Two committees were formed to address the concerns that the faculty and staff expressed in town hall meeting, survey and in the hallways. The charges of both committees were to methodically frame each of the concerns, and involve the faculty and staff in the creation of the recommendations from these committees. The first committee, the Capacity Committee, was charged with addressing resource concerns. More specifically, this committee was to determine the resources needed to develop the four-year campus while maintaining the same resource commitment for the upper division programs and students. The second committee—the Academic Concept Committee—was charged to focus on unbundling the faculty's curricular and teaching concerns, specifically regarding the development and implementation of a first and second year curriculum for traditional age students.

The Capacity Committee developed a plan that estimated the total cost of establishing learning communities and other programs and activities geared towards engaging and retaining first-year students. The recommendation took into account incremental increase in faculty workload, cost of hiring instructors, need for more library resources, and additional staffing in other academic support areas. The process used for gathering the financial information was critical.

The chair of the Capacity Committee established a series of interviews, talking to each of the administrative and academic units that would be impacted by this initiative. This meant holding discussions with every area of the university. In the end this included the deans of the two colleges that would be most impacted, as well as facilities, technology, student affairs and enrollment management, career services, disability services, the diversity office, marketing, and others. It was an immense task that had to remain transparent; otherwise, rumors would be

rampant about who would get resources and who wouldn't. The entire budget was presented in the second town hall meeting, which was held four months into the process. Overall, the budget reflected what the Board of Regents and System expected, which was a utilization of the facilities and resources that were neglected during the day. The expanded budget was considered doable by the leadership.

The Academic Concept Committee, for its part, invited consultants in order to gather information about general education and first-year experience programs. The faculty on the ACC selected other campuses, both in- and out-of-state, to which they traveled to confer with colleagues. The faculty and the staff in Academic Affairs conducted research on various programs and models for four-year institutions. Concurrently, committee discussions exposed some of the faculty concerns regarding the culture and mission of the institution, in particular, campus culture. Committee members from both faculty and student affairs expressed concern over the need to allow for the different needs of the potential traditional age students. Unlike the current student population, which although seriously engaged in academic pursuit was less than engaged in campus life due to other commitments, the traditional age student was likely to be the opposite. Research by the student affairs staff found that retention of traditional age students is often based on their engagement to the campus. At this point in time, the University did not have the type of social/educational environment that might appeal to the younger students. Framing the concerns around these two areas helped to drive the conversation and the search for an appropriate academic model that fit with the concerns of the Committee. Eventually the Academic Concept committee recommended a model that included establishing learning communities.

The goals of both of these committees were to frame the core concerns of the stakeholders. For the Capacity Committee, all the important constituents were included in the development of the overall budget. The budget reflected their concern about the amount of additional resources required to fund this initiative. For the Academic Concept Committee, the members dissected their concerns to 1) develop a way to imbue the traditional-age students with a sense of community engagement and career-focus and 2) give the traditional age students a sense of belonging to the campus. However, the next concern was how to assure that these stakeholders' concerns would be considered and acted upon, thereby securing ownership in the change initiative.

#### Fourth step--Secure ownership:

The goal of the Heifetz leadership model is to ensure that the key constituents become the leaders of the change initiative. Based on this model, one of the challenges is to make sure that the initiative not be perceived as threatening to the faculty who are leading the change effort. The goal of these committees was to get the faculty to take ownership of the academic concept for the lower division and to agree with the recommendations of resource needs by the Capacity

Committee. On both committees, but especially on the academic concept one, the faculty were proactive, travelling to various campuses to review selected first-year programs and curricular models. The faculty on this committee also wanted to consult with an expert in the development of lower division curriculum. They were active in the search process and eventually the chosen consultant came several times to the Committee and helped to frame and write their report. Also, as part of the buy-in process, members of the Academic Concept Committee (ACC) were placed in teams to research and present various models to the group. The teams could work with the consultant or conduct their own research. Some of the foci/models considered were cooperative education, learning communities, and having a more international education focus. In the end, the recommendation was to develop learning communities with themes that were consistent with the mission of the institution. The existing upper division courses and programs had a work orientation and recognized the needs of the community at large (city/state). The learning community themes were focused on these two areas as well. The consultant's report was incorporated in the final report, which was written by several members of the ACC. The final report recommended the establishment of learning communities and the creation of a first-year experience program.

As was mentioned previously, the chair of the Capacity Committee met with the key stakeholders in the various administrative and academic units. In part, it was to get their input, but it was also to gain their buy-in to the initiative and address the expressed concern that the current adult learner population would not suffer. By holding this series of meetings, the chair hoped to ensure that stakeholders would feel that their input was both valued and incorporated into the budgetary suggestions and that all concerns and adjustments were addressed. Eventually during this process, members of the University community started to provide input and suggestions on ways to mitigate the need for resources. By the time the Capacity Committee's report was finalized, committee members and other non-members were willing to be advocates regarding resource and budget requirements for this initiative. Even though it was recommended that more resources be allocated to the University from the System, the amount required was lessened because of the underutilization of resources during the daytime hours.

After the committees' work was completed, another town hall was convened. At this town hall meeting, two faculty members of the academic concept committee presented that committee's recommendations. The presentation for the academic concept was laid out with the pros and cons for some of the choices and the final recommendation to create learning communities. These learning communities would be thematically linked to what faculty believed were the hallmarks of the institution, i.e. community and civic engagement and the professions, as two examples. Also, the learning communities would include activities that would engage these traditional age students with their communities and with the campus. The reception was good in that the faculty at the town hall noted that the learning communities tied to the existing academic programs in the upper division. Also faculty began to understand that these learning

communities could be “feeders” to existing programs, especially the ones with the smaller enrollments.

Next, a member from the Capacity Committee presented the projected resource needs to establish a first-year program. It was critical that assumptions were clearly explained at the town hall meeting by the members from both committees, as one of the biggest concerns for the entire community was whether the institution could afford this transformation without harming the existing academic programs and support services. At this town hall, the most vocal questioners were the faculty who wanted to ensure that the University would hire sufficient faculty to handle the needs of the first-year students. The assumptions that were used to project resource needs were conservative, which satisfied a number of the skeptics. At the town hall, the leadership reiterated that the initiative would not move forward unless the institution was able to get additional resources.

The town hall did gain more buy-in from faculty and staff and create enough interest to have a number take on leadership roles to move the initiative forward. Although there was sufficient buy-in, there still was stress and conflict amongst some of the staff and faculty.

Fifth step--Manage stakeholder conflict and maintain stress:

Although the faculty on the committees took the lead in making sure that their concerns were addressed, getting both of the committees to the point of actual recommendations was not without conflict.

It has already been mentioned that the faculty and staff were concerned about the adequacy of resources and the need to maintain the good aspects of the culture/mission of the institution. This was primarily due to the major concern that this transformation was going to be done “on the backs of the faculty.” There was much conflict between the faculty who had long-term tenure at the institution versus the relatively new faculty. The newer faculty were more excited about the change whereas the more senior faculty were skeptical whether the initiative should be undertaken. There was general uneasiness about what the change would mean to the daily lives of the faculty.

Both committees had to deal with these concerns, which created conflict during meetings. The faculty and staff who were the most vocal were allowed to present their ideas about ways to address their concerns. If anyone expressed a level of negativity, then the charge to them was to propose a recommendation about the academic concept that would address their concerns. On the Academic Concept Committee, the faculty were charged to do the research with administration funding excursions to other campuses. Each of the faculty would report their findings to the committee. In this way, the faculty had to persuade their colleagues that their proposal would be the best way to handle the core challenges to this initiative. This process allowed the members to have “voice” and be heard from others. This allowed for the stress to get reduced and for people to feel as though they had contributed to the eventual recommendation. Whenever, there were

heated discussions, the format was that there would be a reiteration of the key challenge to the University, i.e. flat enrollments, growing competition for their “bread and butter” students, the adult learners, less state financial support and BOR charge to find more efficient and effective ways to increase higher education access to students in the State. In other words, the key staff, including the chief academic officer, reminded the faculty what the consequences would be should the change not be instituted.

A number of the Capacity Committee members were also unsure about starting this initiative and managing the conflict was critical here as well. The University community had implemented several other initiatives in the past that were not funded, so the members of the Committee and a number of people in the community were understandably wary. The committee and the community needed to be convinced that leadership felt it was very important that everybody’s input would be noted and that the recommended budget be made available to all stakeholders. Conflict was mitigated but not eliminated. Ultimately, through conversations between those faculty and staff who took a leadership role in the budget process and faculty and staff who were not as involved, the budget was internally approved and the majority believed that the budget was a good reflection of the resource needs (although some would have preferred more resources) and agreed that the units would be able to handle the first-year students.

#### Sixth step--Creating a safe haven:

The key stumbling blocks for transformation were, first, the individual undergraduate academic units wanting to ensure that they gained headcount and resources from the initiative. This issue created a conflict between two academic colleges within the university. Second, there was a serious concern from the faculty that change would siphon the limited resources from existing programs. Third, some staff and faculty wanted to remain upper division, as this created a sense of uniqueness, plus there was a concern that so much focus on the traditional age students would mean less attention would be focused on the adult learner. However, these concerns did not create such a level of conflict that it stymied the change effort. These concerns were expressed and plans were adapted to address them. The creation of safe havens, i.e. safe modes of communication meant that faculty, staff and students could voice their unease.

According to Heifetz’s adaptive leadership model, the development of outlets that are “safe” for voices of dissent or the airing of critical questions is essential for an adaptive change to be successfully implemented. For this institution, there were three methods for safe communication. The first was the use of the online comment box. Faculty, staff and students could write questions and comments anonymously to the top leadership of the institution. These comments and questions were then sent to the chairs of the appropriate committees. The second was to offer a series of forums, which would allow for people to speak. A third way was that the facilitator/coordinator of the effort remained as neutral as possible and held people’s comments as confidential yet also ensured that the appropriate people would be given the comment. This

last way was most helpful especially for gathering the ideas and responses of the junior, non-tenured faculty (See Exhibit).

## CONCLUSION

This case study describes the efforts that occurred over the first six months of a two-year change process. As mentioned earlier, these two committees set the tone for the entire change effort. The university leadership was keen on having input from the entire campus as a transformation of this magnitude needed to have buy-in in order to be sustainable over the long term. Assumptions regarding the appropriate pedagogy in the classroom, academic support services, and student expectations of the college experience would differ for the new traditional aged students. Due to the need for such deep, adaptive change, the Heifetz leadership model, with its six steps as a guide, was used to move this institution forward.

Two years after this process began, the University did open its doors to 150 first-year students. The following year the number increased to around 170. The faculty and staff developed a first-year experience class focusing on the entire learning experience for the student and incorporating many new concepts. Learning communities, interdisciplinary learning experiences, intrusive academic advising and other support services geared to the younger students were introduced based on the information gathered during the change process. First year retention was 60% with implementation of the changes still a work in progress. As the staff and faculty fine-tuned both systems, the following year's retention of first year students rose to 82%. Given the class demographics of predominate first-generation, minority and urban youth, a retention rate of sixty percent for the first class was commendable, but the 82% in the next year was exceptional for a publicly funded urban institution. The institution had become a four-year campus, and even though it was still in the throes of shifting and integrating its traditional students with the majority of its adult learners, the success of the planning and implementation was evident.

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**EXHIBIT**

**Description of the Online Survey and Results**

This exhibit consists of the survey-parts one and two, which was distributed to participants at the town hall meeting. Also below the actual survey is a summary of the results from the survey.

<b>Survey for Town Hall Meeting</b>					
Part I: Please select level of agreement with the following statements.					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
What are the advantages of admitting freshmen to University					
Improved student engagement					
Greater efficiency of use of facilities					
Upper division enrollment planning simpler					
Increasing diversity in life experience on campus and in classroom					
Greater potential alumni engagement					
Increased tuition revenue					
Other:					
The challenge(s) that the University has to address in order to offer a good freshmen experience are:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Inadequate classroom facilities					
Parking					
Administrative support to handle the needs of freshmen					
Curriculum development					
Campus Security					
Other comment box					
The advantages that the University offers to freshmen are:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
University's location in the city					
Small Classes					
Career-focused undergraduate degrees					
Affordability					



<b>Survey for Town Hall Meeting</b>					
Part I: Please select level of agreement with the following statements.					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Mix of adult learners with younger students					
Other: comment box					
The best class schedule format(s) for incoming freshmen you would recommend would be:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Weekday day classes					
Weekend format					
Weekday evening classes					
Exclusively online classes					
Some online					
Other					
Rank order the top three priorities with one being the highest and three the lowest.					
With limited financial resources, what investments do you believe would be critical for the success of such an endeavor?					
Resources			Rank Order		
Smart classrooms					
Parking					
Student support services					
Housing for students					
Security					
Curriculum development activities					
Bookstore, eating facilities, student lounges					
Instructors					
Recruiting and marketing for freshmen					
Other _____					

## Part II of Survey

Please write your comments to the following questions in the designated comment boxes below each question.

- 1) What is the strongest academic program or major that would be attractive to potential freshmen? Are there other program offerings that the campus doesn't offer now but that you believe would tap into the University's core academic strengths?

Comment box

- 2) Is there a student service that we should offer that we don't at present that would be critical for incoming freshmen?

Comment box

- 3) What do you believe we should consider in terms of addressing any administrative hurdles if we are to continue to pursue this endeavor of admitting freshmen?

Comment box

- 4) What do you believe are the curriculum concerns that will need to be addressed if we are to pursue this endeavor?

Comment box

## Part III

You can mark more than one X in each column

- |  |     |    |
|--|-----|----|
| 1) Should the University admit incoming freshmen as: | Yes | No |
| Full-time students                                   |     |    |
| Part-time freshmen                                   |     |    |
| Commuter   |     |    |
| Residential  |     |    |

## Results of the survey

During the time that the online survey was open for comment 190 people, both faculty and staff, completed the survey, with an almost even split between faculty and staff. This

represented more than a 50% response rate for both groups. Overall, nearly two-thirds of the faculty and almost half the staff believed that it was important to continue their participation.

The results from the four questions are as follows:

What are the advantages of admitting freshmen to the University?

Out of the six choices, the top two were increasing our tuition revenue and transforming the University to become more similar to the other universities: agreed or strongly agreed by 83% and 67% of faculty and staff, respectively.

The challenge(s) that the University must address in order to offer a high-quality freshmen experience are:

In terms of challenges that the University must address to offer such a high quality experience, the top two responses were parking and curriculum development both with a 94% of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed. The third challenge was adequate resources and administrative support to handle freshmen needs.

The advantages that the University offers to freshmen are:

The third question asking people to specify the advantages that it offers to freshmen were career-focused degrees and mix of adult and younger students in the classroom at 69% and 66%, respectively, agreed or strongly agreed.

Should the University admit incoming freshmen as:

For the last question, faculty and staff strongly favored full-time commuter students to part-time. Both of these preferences—commuter and full-time—respondents preferred 89% and 87%, respectively. For this question people could make multiple selections.

*The remaining questions were open-ended and supplemented the four questions. Many of the survey respondents made additional comments, which could be divided into four basic themes: curriculum, resources, mission and marketing/target student population.*

Curriculum:

Faculty and staff comments focused on the need to create a program that would complement the unique academic programs already offered in the upper division and graduate

and professional programs. It was strongly felt by many of the respondents that the University should not try to become a 'plain vanilla' four-year institution.

Resources:

The main concern was that if the initiative was approved then an already-stretched-thin staff and faculty would have to take on the added responsibility to work with traditional aged students who would have needs that would be different from the University's current student population. There was another sentiment that scarce resources should be used to strengthen what the University already had and support the adult learners.

Mission of the University:

People were concerned that the University would move away from the mission, which is to offer a unique program and services to the adult learners and those who transfer from the community colleges. Other comments around this theme indicated that the University was not changing the mission but expanding it by allowing a larger segment of the population, especially those students in the city, the opportunity to have access to the University's unique programs.

Target Student Population:

Most of the comments emphasized that we should not be an open admissions school but base the criterion on admitting a specific subset of traditional aged students. Many felt that recruiting would be tough as most traditional aged students want to have a residential experience and the University would

# LINKING THE CLASSROOM TO THE LIVING ROOM: LEARNING THROUGH LAUGHTER WITH *THE OFFICE*

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## ABSTRACT

*Business class should be fun, right? Documented humor success stories have been found in law (Binder, 2010), english literature and composition (Maddox, 2011), social work (Morgan and Hughes, 2006), as well as organizational behavior (Dent, 2001) classes. The use of humor in the classroom tout openness and respect (Kher, Molstad and Donahue, 1999), lower levels of stress, improved learning speed (Gorham and Christophel, 1990), increased student attention and decreased anxiety (Torok, McMorris and Lin, 2004). What better way to illustrate central business concepts than through comedic sitcoms? And what could be more comedic than the sitcom The Office? A matrix is provided linking both management and marketing topics to specific episodes of The Office. In addition, a sample of episodes and potential student assignments for each are discussed to highlight their respective pedagogical relevance. Both open-ended and empirical student feedback is provided from an upper-division marketing class. Results suggest that students prefer television sitcoms like The Office to other classroom supplements such as newspapers and magazines to increase their awareness of business concepts. Implications of the use of the sitcom for business pedagogy are offered.*

## INTRODUCTION

The use of comedy in the classroom has received moderate attention in pedagogical research. Genevieve (2010) discusses classroom personality and specifically applauds professors who are authentic, passionate and fun. Related works suggest using an “improv mindset” in the classroom introduce the importance of student/professor improvisational exercises as a means to overcome difficulties from reluctant students (Aylesworth, 2008). Emily Oldak, author of *Comedy for Real Life* suggests fun exercises to help students relax before exams and increase their retention of information (Bafile, 2003).

This paper addresses the use of the sitcom *The Office* as an example of how to link business concepts to a student-relatable format, all while having a good time. Examples of *Office* episodes are presented with a brief discussion of their relevance to specific business topics. Sample class exercises and pedagogical implications of the use of humor in the

classroom are provided, along with a discussion on the positive outcomes of having a more relaxed, comedic classroom atmosphere.

More traditional business classroom supplements include PowerPoint slide presentations, newspaper articles (e.g., Wall Street Journal), as well as news magazines (e.g., Business Week, Newsweek). Moch (2002) discusses the benefits of these traditional teaching aids: increased connectivity between class topics and current events, as well as the ability to monitor business situations in real-time as opposed to a case method which can lack timeliness.

## COMEDY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education seems to be acknowledging comedy in several ways. For example, Ohio University embraced comedy via curriculum change and created a History of Jewish Humor class (Tanny, 2009). The course professor integrates Jewish humor history with in-class interactive exercises including joke-telling, watching and discussing TV episodes that include Jewish actors and entertainers (2009). Documented humor success stories have also been found in law (Binder, 2010), english literature and composition (Maddox, 2011), social work (Morgan and Hughes, 2006), as well as organizational behavior (Dent, 2001) classes.

Humor in the classroom loosely refers to comedic instructional interaction with students through the use of jokes, storytelling, situations and the like (Bryant, Comisky and Zillmann, 1979). The effectiveness of classroom humor seems congruent with that of humor in advertising, whose effectiveness varies with audience, situation and type of humor used (Weinberger and Gulas, 1992). Humor's positive effects on the classroom include openness and respect (Kher, Molstad and Donahue, 1999), lower levels of stress, improved learning speed (Gorham and Christophel, 1990), increased student attention and decreased anxiety (Torok, McMorris and Lin, 2004).

### Sitcoms in Higher Education

Dent (2001) discusses the importance of using alternative tools in education and concept reinforcement. He specifically introduces *Seinfeld*, and the interaction and relationships among the show's characters as a depiction of organizational systems perspective and psychological contract theory. He proposes that using the sitcom in the classroom can more effectively illustrate the concepts than a typical college classroom. This proposition is especially provocative when considering *The Office* and its relevance to business pedagogy. Gillis and Hall (2010) introduce *The Simpsons* as an instructional tool for the economics classroom. The authors propose that the use of a popular television show can result in higher levels of student engagement than the traditional slide-lecture method.

Other television shows also offer a tie-in to business-related concepts: *Parks and Recreation*, NBC (services/not-for-profit/government), *Outsourced*, NBC (marketing/international business), *Tabitha's Salon Takeover*, BRAVO (small business

management), *How I Made My Millions*, CNBC (entrepreneurship), *The Apprentice/Celebrity Apprentice*, NBC (leadership, creativity, marketing), *Mr. Sunshine*, ABC (event management), *Undercover Boss*, CBS (employee relations). Typically, current episodes of these programs can be accessed through their network's website, making classroom use convenient.

### ***The Office***

The popular sitcom *The Office* depicts a mid-sized paper B2B wholesaler. The sitcom has enjoyed high ratings since its 2005 debut averaging approximately 6.5 million viewers each week (The Office Nielson Ratings). More specifically, it continually places 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> in its timeslot among the 18-49 year old demographic (The Office Nielson Ratings). Its popularity and general appeal have resulted in its development in over 80 countries (Schillinger, 2006). Shown without commercials, the show spans approximately 20-25 minutes.

The show's fictitious company, Dunder Mifflin, is led by branch manager, Michael Scott, who is often an example of what not to do in business. A notable quote from the sitcom's pilot episode has Michael describing his management style: "I guess the atmosphere that I've tried to create here is that I'm a friend first and a boss second, and probably an entertainer third (Episode Recaps)." "[Scott] trumpets the importance of humor in the workplace and jokes constantly; [is] insensitive to the feelings of others; and [has] a penchant for saying the wrong thing" (Griffin, 2008, p. 157).

Therefore, *The Office* is typically a worst case business scenario; an illustration of worst practices. However, mistakes can be instructive. Hartley (2009) proves this point in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition of his *Marketing Mistakes & Successes* through extensive discussion of real-world companies and their most public debacles and states "...mistakes provide valuable learning insights... (p. iii). Business practice has also recognized the value in the utilization of comedy and, more specifically, comedic illustration of bad decisions in technology training (Philips Company, 1995).

*The Office* has covered many business topics in its now seven seasons: employee diversity, organizational stress, workplace aggression, product recalls, personal selling, advertising and promotions, customer feedback, competitive intelligence gathering, and ethics. Each of these topics will be linked to a specific episode(s) of *The Office* (Figure 1).

#### Employee diversity

Episode 2: *Diversity Day*: While Michael got ready for corporate-mandated diversity training as a result of an incident that many employees had complained about: an employee's "performance" of a Chris Rock routine. Afterwards, Michael conducted his own diversity training. Michael had everyone take a card and put it on his or her forehead without looking at it.

A different race was listed on each card and everyone had to guess what was on his or her head by the way that other staff members treated them (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

Have students critique Michael's training and create a "mini" diversity awareness training session.

### Organizational stress

*Episode 42: The Return:* Since salesman Dwight's resignation from Dunder-Mifflin, he got a job at Staples. He was doing well in the sales department, but creeping out some of his customers. After another salesman, Andy, punched a hole in Michael's office wall, Michael went on a mission to find Dwight at Staples (Episode Recaps).

**Figure 1: *The Office* Episode-Business Concept Classification Matrix**

Management Topic	Episode	Title	Management Topic	Episode	Title
Compensation/Benefits	3	Health Care	Privacy	19	The Secret
Competitive	85	Prince Family Paper		15	E-mail Surveillance
Intelligence	96	Heavy Competition	Promotion	102	The Meeting
	131	The Sting		103	The Promotion
Conflict/	12	The Fight	Quality Control	49	Product Recall
Workplace Aggression	27	Conflict Resolution		124	The Cover-Up
	69	Did I Stutter?		126	Whistleblower
	84	The Duel			
	120	New Leads	Recruitment/Selection	70	Job Fair
Diversity	2	Diversity Day		131	The Sting
Downsizing/Turnover	1	Pilot	Reorganization	36	The Merger
	11	Halloween		92	New Boss
	35	Branch Closing		98	Casual Friday
	93	Two Weeks		111	Shareholder Meeting
	127	Nepotism		114	The Banker
Ethics	63	Branch Wars		115	Sabre
	124	The Cover-Up		116	Manager & Salesman
	126	Whistleblower	Sexual Harassment/	8	Sexual Harassment
	26	Drug Testing	Discrimination	29	Gay Witch Hunt
	65	The Deposition		37	The Convict
	75	Business Ethics	Stress	42	The Return
	81	Frame Toby		48	Safety Training



**Figure 1: The Office Episode-Business Concept Classification Matrix**

Management Topic	Episode	Title	Management Topic	Episode	Title
Gender	21	Boys and Girls		86/87	Stress Relief
	50	Women's Appreciation		110	Murder
	43	Ben Franklin	Technology	56/57	Dunder Mifflin Infinity
Global	80	Business Trip	in the Workplace	58/59	Launch Party
	136	China	Workplace Romance	142	PDA
	34	Diwali		28	Casino Night
Disciplinary Action	31	The Coup		40	Back From Vacation
Recruitment/Selection	52/53	The Job		71/72	Goodbye Toby
	51	Beach Games		139	Ultimatum
Leadership	17	Booze Cruise		52/53	The Job
	51	Beach Games		36	The Merger
Mentoring	33	Initiation	Marketing Topic	Episode	Title
Motivation	7	The Dundies	Advertising /Promotion	62	Local Ad
	23	Dwight's Speech		91	Golden Ticket
	88/89	Lecture Circuit: 1 & 2	Client Recruitment	13 140	The Client The Seminar
Negotiation	47	The Negotiation	Customer Satisfaction	79	Customer Survey
	97	Broke	Product Placement	16	Christmas Party
Networking	46	Cocktails		42	The Return
New Venture	94	Dream Team	Personal Selling	30 41	The Convention Traveling Salesmen
	95	Michael Scott Paper Company	Product Recall	49	Product Recall
Communication	101	Gossip		124	The Cover-Up
Performance Appraisal	14	Performance Review		126	Whistleblower
*84 applicable episodes covering 27 management topics and 6 marketing topics					

Episode 48: *Safety Training*: The warehouse manager was hosting the safety-training program for the staff of the warehouse, but Michael thought it would be fun to include his office staff in the presentation. The warehouse manager became angry when Michael was second-guessing everything that was being said and basically would not shut up. Michael took control of the office safety-training class (Episode Recaps).

Episodes 86/87: *Stress Relief*: Salesman Dwight causes a false fire alarm in hopes of giving his co-workers a lesson on fire safety; instead, it creates chaos and destruction in the office. After Dwight reveals that it was all a test, matters turn serious when Stanley collapses. Michael's goal is to make the office more peaceful and a place of relaxation. He calls everybody into the conference room to learn meditation. The session is interrupted when an employee's stress monitor starts beeping. The others begin to notice that his monitor only goes off when Michael is around (Episode Recaps).

Episode 110: *Murder*: Everybody panics when the article states that Dunder Mifflin is rumored to be declaring bankruptcy. The staff is talking about the possible closing of Dunder Mifflin. The customer service representative ponders if this is everybody's last day in the office. As co-manager Jim is trying to assess the rumors about everybody losing their jobs, Michael wants to try a different approach. He brings out a classic murder mystery board game and thinks it's best to distract the employees (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

Have students read practical articles on job stress, such as Ivancevich, Matteson & Richards (1982) and discuss organizational tactics that can be used to help lessen workplace stress.

Diversified, medium-sized student groups compile a list of potential workplace stressors through brainstorming. Then, through consensus group discussion, have each group rank-order their stressors from most to least severe. Encourage the groups to thoroughly discuss their rankings and strive to have consensus among group members regarding the ranking of each stressor. After they begin to disagree, highlight the stress involved in reaching a consensus among a group of people.

### Workplace aggression

Episode 12: *The Fight*: Salesman Dwight is a purple belt in Gojuru Karate, which begins a debate in the office about who could beat up whom. Michael overhears the conversation and says there's no way Dwight could beat him up. Michael claims he's beaten up black belts before, although uncorroborated (Episode Recaps).

Episode 27: *Conflict Resolution*: Michael didn't believe that Dunder Mifflin's HR representative was doing a good job at conflict resolution in the building, so he took the job from him. The HR rep was happy to give the position up; now Michael would have to deal with people's complaints, especially the hundreds from salesman Dwight alone. Michael wanted to air everyone's complaints about each other out in the open. Michael continued to read off complaints about people in the office. This was creating turmoil within the entire staff. Michael way of dealing with conflict was to encourage confrontation (Episode Recaps).

Episode 69: *Did I Stutter?* Michael tries to get one salesman to chime in and he refuses. After Michael's constant badgering, the salesman raises his voice and says, "Did I stutter?" Michael leaves the meeting shocked by the outburst. HR thinks Michael should take action and address the problem (Episode Recaps).

Episode 84: *The Duel*: Two salesmen argue and they agree to a duel in the parking lot. (Episode Recaps).

Episode 120: *New Leads*: Michael notices a change in the office since corporate has directed them to focus on sales as their number one priority. Salesman Dwight declares that "Sales is King" and he's the "King of Kings." Now the sales team is just focused on money and less about friendships with coworkers (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

Ask students to research business occupations where combative/aggressive incidents are most common and have them form a top-10 list. Then, each should propose ways to reduce aggression within these occupations.

### Product recall

Episode 49: *Product Recall*: Michael was in crisis mode at Dunder-Mifflin when a disgruntled employee at the paper mill put an obscene watermark on one of their most popular orders of paper. Michael sends salesmen to the local high school to do damage control after the school used the recalled paper for their prom invitations. Michael holds a press conference with a reporter from the Scranton Times wherein he was set to make a public apology to a valued client, Mrs. Allen. Michael couldn't believe his major client had turned away his free voucher of paper as an apology for the obscene watermark. Michael kicked her out of the press conference (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

Logon to the Consumer Product Safety Commission. Identify three product categories that seem to have relatively high recall rates.

Have students read "A Strategic Approach to Managing Product Recalls" by Smith, Thomas and Quelch (1996) and compare and contrast their suggested approaches to product recall management to Dunder Mifflin's approach.

### Personal selling

Episode 41: *Traveling Salesmen*: Michael decided to send his employees out into the field for sales calls. While one salesman was trying to make a sale to a client, his sales partner was using the man's phone to make a call on speakerphone. He made the call to make a point; he was still on hold with Dunder-Mifflin's competition. While Dunder-Mifflin takes their customer service as top priority! (Episode Recaps).

Episode 140: *The Seminar*: One salesman's numbers have been coming in low, so he decides to hold a seminar on small business inside the conference room, in an effort to protect himself from being fired for his poor performance. He's hoping that his seminar will bring in prospective paper buyers, but it backfires when none of his students seems to have legit business ideas. As the seminar comes to an end, Michael takes the salesman aside and tells him to start selling to his students. He instructs him to start thinking like a salesman. It works. The confident salesman comes back and closes his seminar. People actually want to buy into his small business package plan (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

List and discuss the 5-step personal selling process. Discuss how the Dunder Mifflin salesmen could have improved their performance in each of the 5 steps.

Invite 2 groups of 3 students to participate in *The Office: Traveling Salesmen* role play: assign the "unsuccessful" sales team characters of Michael and Andy and Ryan and Stanley as well as a customer for both teams. Invite the remainder of the class to give the actors tips to improve their sales pitch. Finally, have the actors re-enact their sales pitch, hopefully, with success!

### Advertising and promotion

Episode 62: *Local Ad*: Michael was excited to know Dunder Mifflin bought television ad space in local markets, including Scranton. Michael wanted to create the perfect commercial. Michael was taking over the commercial. He wanted his staff to be part of it. He had three scenes to be filled and a big music number (Episode Recaps).

Episode 91: *Golden Ticket*: Michael comes to work dressed as Willy Wonka to introduce his brilliant plan to the rest of the branch. Earlier, Michael slipped five golden tickets into paper shipments and whoever receives a golden ticket, will receive ten percent off their next shipment. Jim alerts Michael that their biggest client, Blue Cross, found all five golden tickets in their shipment. Oops (Episode Recaps).

Accompanying Exercise/Discussion Questions:

Compare and contrast the two ads shown in *Local Ad*. Ask students which ad they feel is more effective for a B2B market.

Identify 3 mistakes in the Ad Agency's commercial that are most commonly made by local advertisers. Discuss ways in which advertisers could avoid these mistakes.

## STUDENT FEEDBACK AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Humor in the classroom has shown positive results: openness and respect (Kher, Molstad and Donahue, 1999), lower levels of stress, improved learning speed (Gorham and Christophel, 1990), increased student attention and decreased anxiety (Torok, McMorris and Lin, 2004). *The Office* can easily be used as a humor tool by bridging management and marketing topics with a popular sitcom in order to generate discussion among students. Students from an upper-division marketing course based on *The Office* provided the following feedback regarding the course and its integration of the sitcom in its examination of marketing mistakes:

“I enjoyed this class very much. The office is one of my favorite shows on TV, and it was nice for a change to have a class to learn from others mistakes instead of your own. Thank you for having such a fun class to come to.”

“I had never watched *The Office* before the class, but can now say that I am a huge fan! I thought the class was fun as well as educational!”

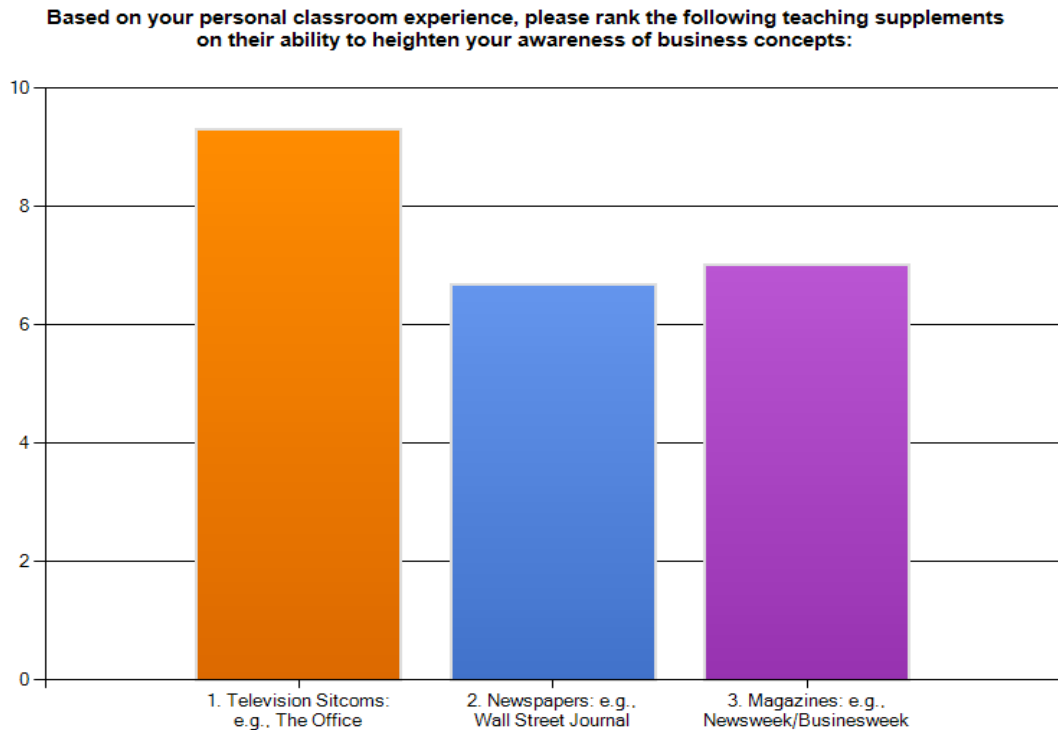
“I really enjoyed your class, and how you took episodes of the office and tied them with the class. I felt like I learned more this way.”

“It was nice to have a class that could relate marketing to something fun.”

The students also responded to a 1-question survey questionnaire asking them to indicate the relative ability of (1) television sitcoms, (2) newspapers, and (3) news magazines to increase their ability to increase awareness of business concepts. Approximately 25 students responded to the survey. Results show that television sitcoms received an average rating of 9.28 (on a 10-point scale), whereas news magazines received an average score of 7.0, and finally, newspapers received an average of 6.67 (Figure 2).

Future research could examine pedagogical implications of using a sitcom to deliver comical, content-relevant material to students. Specifically, the ability for students to apply course-related content to everyday situations could be examined quantitatively. Both the management and marketing classrooms could be improved with the use of *The Office* as a pedagogical tool.

Figure 2



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# STATISTICAL PROCESS CONTROL APPLIED WITHIN AN EDUCATION SERVICES ENVIRONMENT

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## ABSTRACT

*The purpose of this paper is to propose an approach for incorporating statistical process control charting within an overall assurance of learning system for use within schools of business. The paper applies statistical process control charting techniques to data collected in two senior level operations management courses for the purpose of monitoring the education service delivery process through course goals for attendance and knowledge acquisition. Statistical control charts also are applied to assess bachelor of business administration program performance on the quantitative analysis and information systems portions of the national Major Field Achievement Tests as compared to national means.*

*The use of statistical process control charting techniques is an appropriate and valuable approach to assessing within an assurance of learning context for schools of business. Statistical process control charting seems better suited for assessment knowledge acquisition goals than skills acquisition goals. Control charting is a complementary assessment technique that should be included within a more comprehensive assurance of learning system.*

*This paper describes and illustrates a practical, applied method for monitoring educational service delivery processes. The statistical process control charting techniques recommended are well tested and their efficacy proven. While the value of statistical process control charting is proven within a business context for the monitoring of production processes, its application within school of business for the purpose of learning assurance has not been reported. This study offers a practical, proven approach to implementation of a valuable total quality tool by schools of business as they work to continuously improve processes and programs and satisfy accrediting assurance of learning requirements.*

## INTRODUCTION

To acquire and maintain accreditation, business schools must assess learning. Business schools accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business International (AACSB) are required to implement and maintain comprehensive assessment programs designed to ensure that the educational services delivered to students are high quality services capable of achieving established learning objectives for school programs. Those administering these

educational service delivery programs have found them difficult to uniformly assess. Currently, AACSB maintenance of accreditation visits focus heavily on strategic planning, faculty sufficiency, and program assessment. Business school administrators and faculty are relatively well versed in strategic planning and faculty sufficiency requirements are relatively well specified. Assessment is the more difficult requirement to satisfy because it is the newest and less well defined of the requirements.

This paper describes a statistical process control (SPC) approach to ensuring that educational service delivery processes produce quality services, with a focus on applying SPC techniques to the service delivery process supporting acquisition of knowledge related to production and operations management. Additionally, this paper provides an example of the use of SPC techniques to compare school information systems and quantitative analysis Major Field Achievement Test (MFAT) means to national means. AACSB standards recommend specific instruction related to operations, and operations courses are likely to require coverage of SPC, making such courses an appropriate context for application of SPC techniques.

This study contributes to the assessment literature (1) by extending the work of Green et al. (2007) related to assessment within a business school context, (2) by describing a specific application of the use of statistical process control charting to assess the quality of the educational services delivered in two senior level operations courses in a school of business, (3) by recommending a course of action for implementing statistical process control charting to assess and continuously improve the quality of services delivered in an educational setting, (4) by providing an example of using SPC charting techniques to monitor the quality of discipline based instruction, and (5) by incorporating the use of SPC techniques to support external assessment efforts through the use of the Major Field Achievement Tests (MFAT) as described by McLaughlin and White (2007). As illustrated through this paper, SPC techniques play an important role in both internal and external assessment activities.

The remainder of this manuscript includes a review of the related literature, a description of the service delivery process and an example of the use of statistical process control charts to monitor the process, a discussion of the use of statistical control charts to monitor discipline-based learning, and finally conclusions, recommendations, and implications for practitioners are described and discussed.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Both regional and business accrediting organizations require business schools to assess learning. The Higher Learning Commission (HLC) of the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools accredits universities in the north central region of the United States. The HLC accreditation standards require that universities adopt a structured strategic management process aimed at continuously improving service delivery processes. The Commission requires that universities thoroughly and consistently assess performance. Business schools striving to either

acquire or maintain AACSB accreditation are generally required to assess performance within the context of organization specific missions (AACSB International, 2006; Nicholson et al., 2005).

The assessment process has not been successfully completed until the assessment loop has been closed (Sanders & Willis, 2009). Martell and Calderon (2005, p. 8) describes “closing the loop” as follows:

“The overarching goal of assessment is to improve the quality of student learning. Since improving student learning is dynamic and continuous, the literature often refers to the assessment process as a loop that moves from identification of program goals and objectives, to measurement and evaluation, to reporting and dialogue, to identification of program improvement opportunities, and ultimately to reflection and change. Achieving the benefits of all items in the loop, including reflection and change, is referred to as closing the loop. Closing the loop implies that the data collected, analyzed, and reported as part of the assessment process are actually used to improve student learning.”

It is necessary for the faculty and administrators of schools of business to assess at the class level and at program levels to assure that established learning goals are achieved. This assessment affects continuous improvement in terms of service delivery to students and is necessary to maintain accreditation. There has been considerable confusion related to specifically how such assessment should be conducted. AACSB standards require assessment but only provide very general direction in terms of how the assessment is to be conducted.

Gardiner, Corbitt, and Adams (2010) describe a general program assessment model that requires the following elements: development of program learning goals, planning and execution of assessment activities, analysis of assessment data to identify program improvements, and closing the loop through the implementation of program improvements. While this approach provides excellent general direction, practitioners are in need of specific tools and techniques for data collection and analysis. Green et al. (2007) describe a process for assessing the mission-based performance of business schools. They describe a top-down approach that requires students to provide information related to how well a school of business has fulfilled its specific mission and offer specific techniques for gathering and analyzing assessment data. While this approach is useful at school level, it remains necessary to assess against specific learning goals.

Common course-embedded practices include the use of pre-tests and post-tests to assess knowledge-related goals and rubrics to assess skills-related goals. Callahan, Strandholm, and Dziekan (2010) describe the development and implementation of an internally developed undergraduate assessment test and discuss the implications for the improvement of both educational processes and outcomes. As they describe their process of internally developing and administering the assessment test, there are opportunities for both student and faculty learning.

A number of business schools use externally administered exit exams such as the MFAT in Business administered by Educational Testing Services to externally validate program quality (McLaughlin & White, 2007; Gardiner et al., 2010; Rook & Tanyel, 2009).

Quality management programs, in general, are built on the following foundation: a focus on the customer's definition of quality, continuous improvement of the production processes, and the use of statistical quality control techniques (Juran, 1995). It is clear that the AACSB standards have embraced and incorporated this total quality philosophy (Gardiner et al., 2010). Therefore, it seems appropriate to adopt the tools of quality management in support of the philosophy within an educational services context. To assure that learning goals are achieved, process control techniques should be incorporated. The study described in this paper proposes adoption of the use of statistical process control charting techniques to monitor service delivery processes to ensure that quality services are delivered leading to achievement of learning goals.

### **Service Delivery Process Monitoring**

The method used combines goal setting theory (Lathan & Locke, 1969; Locke, 1978), organizational behavior modification theory (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Luthans & Stajkovic, 1999; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001), and statistical process control tools and techniques (Sower, 2010) within an educational service delivery process.

#### Goal setting theory

Lathan and Locke (1969) and Locke (1978) advocate the use of goal setting within an organizational environment to focus organizational participants on accomplishing goals necessary for the success of the organization. For example, establishing a class knowledge goal of 85% focuses both instructor and students and affords a benchmark for assessing performance of the processes designed and implemented to achieve the goal.

#### Organizational behavior modification theory

According to Buckingham and Coffman (1999), students should be made aware of expectations and be provided with the resources necessary to fulfill those expectations. As students take actions leading to the accomplishment of their objectives, appropriate behaviors, such as attending class on time, should be reinforced (Luthans & Stajkovic, 1999; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001). Within an educational setting, appropriate behaviors are behaviors that lead to knowledge and skill acquisition as outlined in program-based learning goals that support fulfillment of the school's mission.

Based on Thorndike's Law of Effect (Thorndike, 1910, p. 244), organizational behavior modification applied within an educational context requires that appropriate student behaviors

leading to accomplishment of learning goals be reinforced. Further, inappropriate student behaviors that do not lead to accomplishment of learning goals should not be reinforced. To paraphrase Thorndike's law, you get more of what you reinforce and less of what you don't reinforce.

### Statistical process control and techniques

The statistical process control component of total quality programs incorporates the use of control charting to monitor processes (Sower, 2010). In this particular case, control charts are developed and used to monitor educational service delivery processes in an effort to monitor and maintain processes that consistently produce quality educational services. Mean test score targets and attendance proportion targets are set, control limits computed, and class means for exams and attendance proportions are periodically monitored to ensure that processes are "in-control."

In-control educational service delivery processes produce class knowledge and attendance proportions at targeted levels. Three-sigma control charts incorporate control limits computed based on plus or minus three standard errors from the targeted mean or proportion. Once the targeted mean or proportion and three-sigma control limits are established, samples are subsequently taken and plotted on the control chart. Sample plots falling inside the control limits and exhibiting a random pattern indicate that the process remains in control.

Should a sample mean or proportion fall outside the control limits or a series of mean or proportions exhibit a non-random pattern (significantly more than half of the plots above or below the targeted mean or proportion or forming a trend of three or more plots) the process is deemed "out-of-control." Such an out-of-control status indicates that the process is not functioning as designed and the cause must be identified and corrected. Generally, when a sample mean or proportion falls outside the control limits, there is a 99.73% chance that there is something wrong with the process that must be corrected.

Control charting is a well established process monitoring technique originally developed by Shewhart (Sower, 2010). The technique applies equally well to monitoring processes that produce products and processes that produce services. In this case, the study applies control charting to the monitoring of the educational service delivery process designed to generate targeted levels of knowledge within a traditional classroom setting. A complete description and discussion of control charting techniques and procedures can be found in Sower (2010).

The principles of goal-setting and organizational behavior modification and statistical process control techniques are incorporated in the educational service delivery process described in the following section.

## Educational Service Delivery Process

Over a period of years, the following service delivery process was developed based on goal-setting theory (Locke, 1978) and the principles of organizational behavior modification (Luthans & Stajkovic, 1999; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001).

- 1) Students are administered a 50 question multiple-choice, true-false pre-test that comprehensively covers the content of the course. Students are instructed to read each question carefully and answer thoughtfully. Their effort is reinforced with 20 in-class assignment points.
- 2) The course learning goal and class attendance and test score performance targets are discussed. The class attendance target is set at .85, and the test score performance target is set at 75. Students are informed that an educational service delivery process has been designed and tested that will meet the targets and achieve the learning goal. To reinforce on time attendance, students are informed that they will accumulate three points each day they attend class on time. They receive two points each time they attend class but arrive late. In short, they are positively reinforced for on-time attendance. Attendance points accumulate to 100 points over the semester.
- 3) Students are informed of the class average on the pre-test and reminded that the class target is 75.
- 4) The course content is broken into three logical segments. Each segment is thoroughly presented through a lecture format. Attendance proportions are computed at the beginning of each class and students are informed of the current proportion and reminded that .85 is the target proportion. Following this initial presentation of the course material, students are presented with a list of from 40 to 50 short answer questions and problems that highlight the important concepts covered in the previous lectures. Two class periods are then devoted to thoroughly reviewing the previously presented course material focusing only on the review questions. Students are then instructed that all test questions and problems will be developed based on the review questions and the material supporting each question. Students are asked to review their lecture notes and the notes taking during the review periods prior to each exam.
- 5) The exam is prepared directly from the list of review questions. Generally, 60% of each exam is in a multiple-choice, true-false format, 20% is in short answer format, and 20% is in a problem format. Students take the exam after three exposures to the course material.
- 6) The tests are graded and the class average computed. Control charts for attendance proportions and test means are developed and presented to the class. The results are discussed in terms of whether or not service delivery process is in-control or out-of-control. Out-of-control status is discussed and an attempt to assign cause is undertaken.
- 7) Following application of the content delivery process for all course segments, students generally review all course material by completing a comprehensive writing

- assignment in which they are to separately summarize each of the three course segments. Students are asked to review their lecture and review session notes in preparation for the comprehensive post-test.
- 8) The post-test is prepared by randomly selecting 50 questions from the multiple-choice, true-false sections of the previous three segment tests. This ensures comprehensive coverage of all course material.
  - 9) Post-tests are graded and the post-test class average is statistically compared with the pre-test average to ensure that the level of course related knowledge has significantly increased throughout the semester. All test score averages and attendance proportions are recorded on the control charts and the charts are reviewed for control status.

## RESULTS

The primary data collection for this paper relates to attendance and test performance in a senior-level management classes. The results of the related analyses are presented in this section. As a secondary example of the application of statistical process control techniques, data were collected from student performance on two subsections of the MFAT examination. Results of the analyses related to the MFAT assessments are presented in Appendix A.

### Monitoring Performance on Class-based Assessments

Classroom data for this study were collected from three course examinations and the final examination. Course examinations were administered to students in two sections of a senior-level management class in the spring of 2009. As one element, attendance data was recorded for each class day. As a second element, test scores were evaluated for the pre-test, three course exams and the final exam (the post-test).

Knowledge acquisition was measured using a pre-test/post-test methodology. Students were given a pre-test on the first day of class. The POM strategies and tactics material was covered through lectures and reading and problem assignments. The material was thoroughly reviewed prior to each of three exams. The material was again reviewed prior to a comprehensive post-test. Generally, the students were exposed to the material three times prior to the post-test.

The target for course exams 1, 2, and 3 and the final exam (post-test) is 85. Measurement of the learning objective will be accomplished by 1) statistically comparing pre-test and post-test means, 2) statistically comparing daily class attendance proportions with the established target of .85, and 3) statistically comparing class test means with the established target of 85. Accomplishment of the course learning objective is supported by 1) a significant, positive improvement between pre-test and post-test means and post-test means statistically equal to 85, 2) daily class attendance proportions that are statistically equal to .85, and 3) class test means that are statistically equal to or greater than 85.

Class-based data were analyzed to compare the pre-test and post-test means, to evaluate on-time attendance, and to evaluate class test means.

Analysis of pre-test and post-test

Comparison of the pre-test and post-test means indicated the following differences for the two class sections:

Section 01	
Pre-test mean:	39.11
Post-test mean:	84.32
Mean difference:	+45.21
Significance:	Mean difference is positive and significant at .01 level
Section 02	
Pre-test mean:	39.94
Post-test mean:	86.35
Mean difference:	+46.41
Significance:	Mean difference is positive and significant at .01 level

The objective for the post-test (final) mean is set at 85. Assuming a class size of 36 and minimum and maximum student scores of 70 and 100, the three sigma upper and lower control limits are 82.50 and 87.50, respectively. The final exam (post-test) means for Section 01 (84.32) and Section 02 (86.35) are within the control limits indicating that the process is in control. The post-test means are not significantly different from the target of 85. The learning objective for knowledge acquisition was met in both classes.

Analysis of attendance

Analysis of the on-time attendance data for the two class sections indicated the following results:

- Section 01 - 86.30% overall attendance rate
- Section 02 - 88.00% overall attendance rate

The on-time attendance objective is .85. Assuming a class size of 36, control limits are .67 and 1.00. The average attendance proportions for Sections 01 and 05 are .86 and .88, both of which exceed .85 and are within the control limits. The on-time attendance objective was met in both classes.



### Analysis of class test means

Test scores for tests 1, 2, and 3 were averaged and compared to the target. Analysis of the class test means for the two class sections indicated the following results:

Section 01: Test 1 = 82.52, Test 2 = 83.64, Test 3 = 83.96

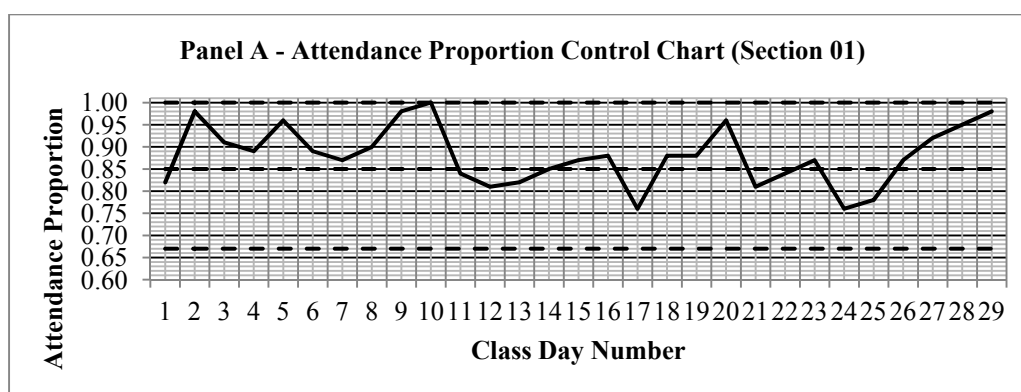
Section 02: Test 1 = 80.15, Test 2 = 87.67, Test 3 = 86.35

The target for all tests is 85 with 3-sigma control limits of 82.50 and 87.50. With the exception of Tests 1 and 2 in Section 01, all test means are within the established control limits. The out of control indication from Test 1 in Section 01 prompted an effort to discover the cause.

### Control charts

Applying the control limits and plotting the data on control charts provides better insight into the attendance and class test results. Figure 1 incorporates the proportion (Panel A) and means (Panel B) control charts developed to monitor the service delivery process for class section 01. Figure 2 incorporates the control charts for class section 02. The charts support visual monitoring of the process performance against established attendance and knowledge acquisition targets with statistically derived upper and lower control limits. Each time a sample proportion or mean plots outside the control limits an out-of-control condition is identified indicating that the educational service delivery process is no longer operating as designed. Such out-of-control conditions require that a cause be identified and corrected.

**Figure 1 – Attendance Proportion and Exam Means Control Charts for Section 01**



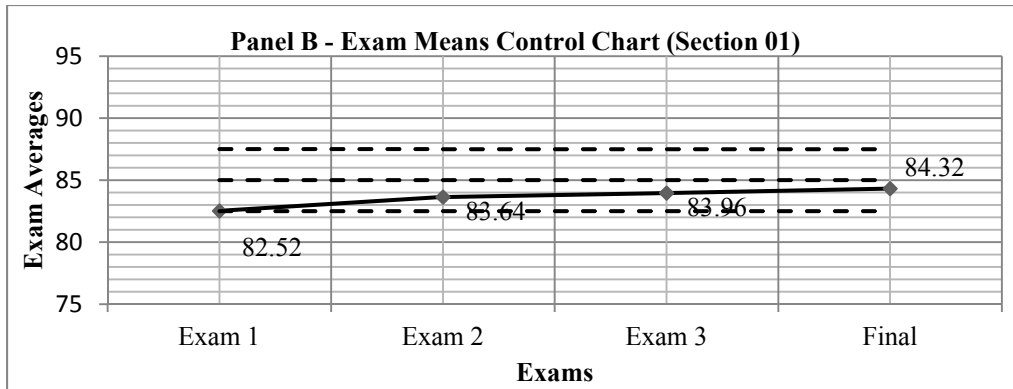
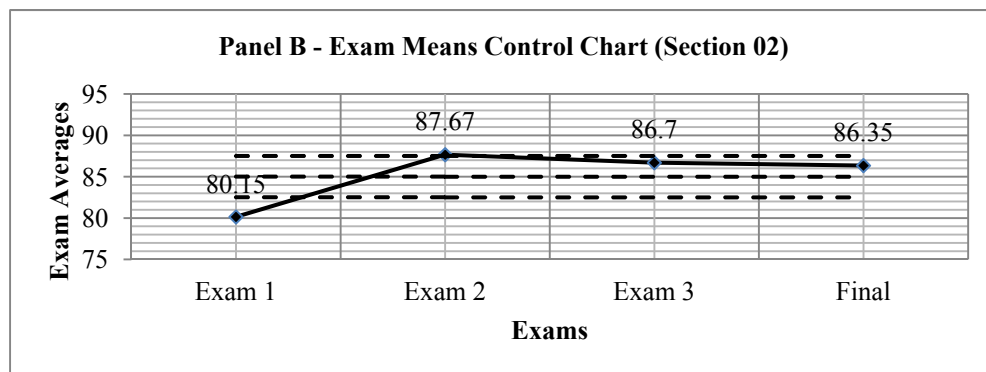
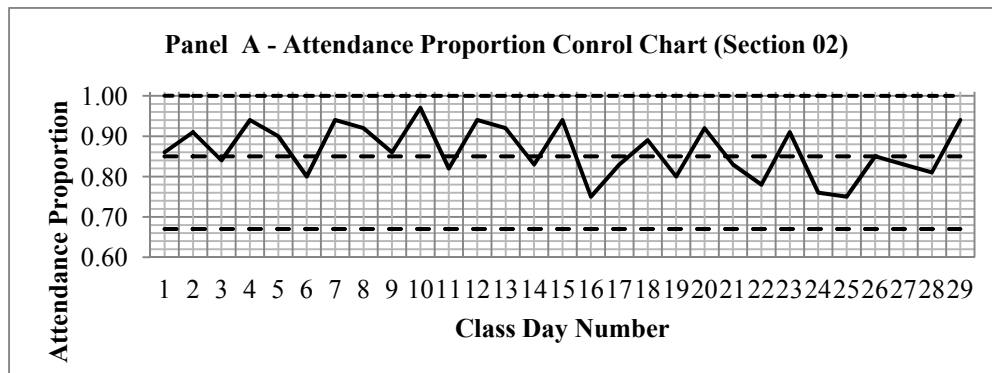


Figure 2 – Attendance Proportion and Exam Means Control Charts for Section 02



### CONCLUSIONS

AACSB standards require the delivery of quality educational services and that those service delivery processes be continuously improved. The standards also require that learning goals be established for each program and an assessment process be implemented for the purpose

of assuring that the learning goals are successfully achieved. Success in the accreditation process also requires effectively communicating the data collected to substantiate the assurance of learning and continuous improvement. Using control charts, such as the ones illustrated, can help communicate the data collected and analyzed.

AACSB standards clearly incorporate the total quality philosophy. It seems appropriate then that total quality tools such as process control charting be used to monitor processes to ensure the delivery of quality educational services. As originally designed, the charts indicate out-of-control status when the process is not operating as designed prompting administrators and faculty members to correct the process quickly before defective services can be delivered. Such monitoring and prompt action ensures that learning goals are successfully met. Such a proactive approach is process rather than product or service focused. The assumption is that, if educational service delivery processes are designed to produce quality services, then quality services will yield students with significantly increased levels of knowledge and skills that meet established learning goals.

This study provides a practical example of designing a process to produce services that achieve learning goals and monitor the process through the use of statistical process control charting techniques. This methodology can be applied in most courses that aim to significantly increase knowledge levels in specific areas of business. The results suggest that this approach to monitoring service delivery processes should be incorporated into a broader assessment strategy at the class level along with pre-test/post-test techniques and rubric-based assessment of skills goals. Generally, this comprehensive approach requires that learning goals be established for each class, that the pre-course level of knowledge be documented through pre-testing, that a service delivery process be designed and implemented that focuses on developing the level and knowledge content specified in the learning goals, that the services be delivered through the established process and monitored using the statistical process control techniques, that the process be modified when out-of-control conditions are noted, that skills-based goals (such as the ability to conduct and interpret specific statistical analyses) be evaluated at the class level using a rubric-based scoring method. This comprehensive approach at the class level supports summarization at the program level to assure that program learning goals spread across program courses have been achieved.

Limitations to the study should be noted. The study focuses on students in operations management courses within a business school setting. Recommendations based on the results of this study should be interpreted with this limited focus in mind. Additionally, the data collected for classroom attendance related to a traditional class. Monitoring attendance in an online class would require different guidelines and, perhaps, different controls to measure accomplishment of the objectives.

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## APPENDIX A

### Monitoring Performance on Discipline-based MFAT Means

The MFAT incorporates questions in eight areas including quantitative analysis and information systems which are specifically related to production and operations management course content (Rook and Tanyel, 2009). As an additional example of the use of statistical process control charting within an education service delivery setting, this study provides statistical control charts used to compare information systems and quantitative analysis school program means to national means.

Using the national means as knowledge acquisition goals and using population means and standard deviations to compute upper and lower control limits, the charts displayed below were generated. Subsequent plotting of the school means for information systems and quantitative analysis indicated whether the service delivery process is meeting the established knowledge acquisition goals.

Cohort scores were collected related to two subject sections of the MFAT. Cohort scores for the information systems section of the MFAT were collected from Fall 2006 through Spring 2009. Cohort scores for the quantitative analysis section of the MFAT were collected from Spring 2005 through Spring 2009. Cohort scores for both sections were compared to the national mean provided by ETS. The target for the MFAT scores is to meet or exceed the national mean.

The control chart for scores on the MFAT for information systems is shown in Figure 3. This chart is a three-sigma statistical control chart that assumes a sample size of 50. The dotted lines represent the three-sigma target and upper and lower control limits. COB means below the lower control limit indicate failure to meet the established target. With the exception of the fall 2008 mean of 55, all COB IS means either meet or exceed the overall mean. The target was met in five of six semesters.

The control chart for scores on the MFAT for quantitative analysis is shown in Figure 4. This chart is a three-sigma statistical control chart that assumes a sample size of 50. The dotted lines represent the three-sigma target and upper and lower control limits. COB means below the lower control limit indicate failure to meet the established target. All means are above the lower control limit indicating that the QA MFAT target was met each semester throughout the period. It should be noted that the test was revised prior to the Fall Semester of 2006 necessitating computation of new control limits based on a new national mean.

Figure 3 - Control Chart for MFAT Scores for Information Systems

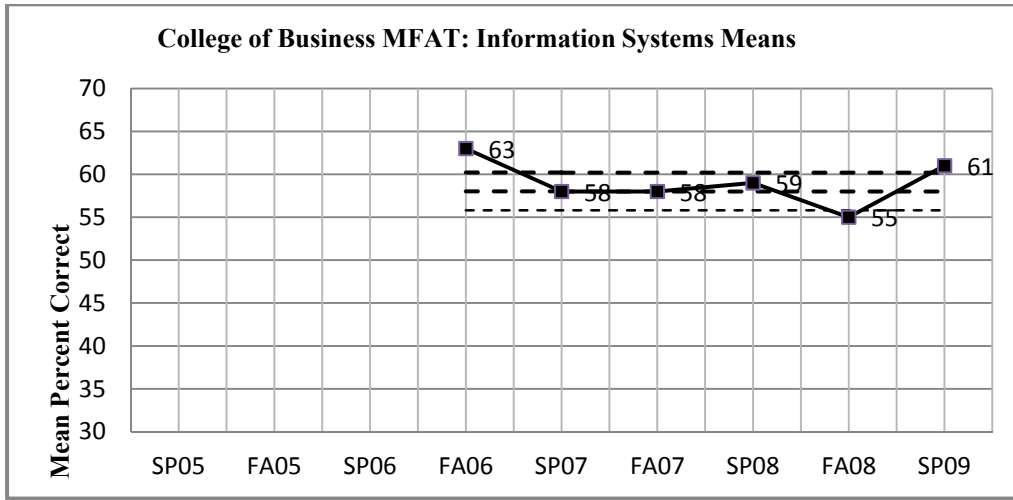
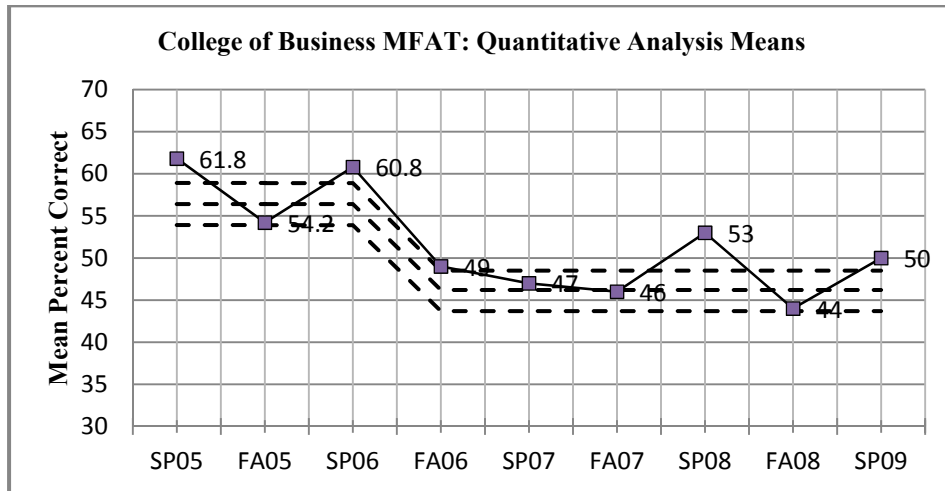


Figure 4 - Control Chart for MFAT Scores for Quantitative Analysis



# **CONVERGENCE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN UGANDAN HIGHER EDUCATION AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A FULBRIGHT SCHOLAR'S PERSPECTIVE**

**Doris G. Duncan, California State University East Bay**

## **ABSTRACT**

*The Fulbright program is an international exchange program for educators that is sponsored by the Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs and is administered by the Council for the International Exchange of Scholars in over 155 countries. This paper describes the process of obtaining and performing a Fulbright Senior Specialist grant project. The primary activities of the grant period are summarized and include conducting a needs assessment, evaluating curricula, conducting seminars and preparing a final report for faculty at the host institution in Uganda.*

*Keywords: Fulbright scholars program, Fulbright senior specialist, information technology education in Africa*

## **BACKGROUND**

The Fulbright program is an international exchange program for educators that is sponsored by the Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs of the United States Department of State and is administered by the Council for the International Exchange of Scholars (CIES) in over 155 countries. There are several Fulbright programs that range in length from two weeks to a year.

A Fulbright grant is an unusual and gratifying method to gain experience in grant writing and international education. The experience also provides a means to further establish collaborative projects with the host institution.

The Fulbright Senior Specialists program provides short term grant opportunities that range in length from two to six weeks for U.S. faculty and professionals. Typically the Fulbright Senior Specialists collaborate with their international counterparts on scholarly activities such as curriculum and faculty development, institutional planning and giving lectures. Many academic disciplines are available and range from information technology and business to archaeology and urban planning. When a person applies and is selected, his/her name goes on a roster for up to five years and then the Fulbright staff tries to match the person with an overseas host institution.

Some scholars are selected from the roster once or even twice while others may not be selected at all. Sometimes it is beneficial for the applicant, or “candidate,” to have contacts in the country of interest. A candidate can serve for a maximum of two times during a five-year period. At least two years must elapse before a candidate is eligible for another specialist project.

After returning from a Fulbright assignment, the grantee must complete the final expense report and file a final report. A few months later the grantee normally receives a Certificate of Completion and becomes a member of the Fulbright alumni organization. The specialists are also encouraged to submit their story for possible posting on the CIES web site and to help publicize the program through conferences, journals and appropriate media.

This paper describes the process of acquiring a Fulbright Senior Specialist grant and the primary activities performed, which included conducting a needs assessment, evaluating curricula, conducting seminars and preparing a final report for faculty at the host institution.

### **AUTHOR APPLIES FOR FULBRIGHT SENIOR SPECIALIST PROGRAM**

About three years prior and unbeknown to the Ugandan hosts, the author applied for the Fulbright Senior Specialist program; recently “Senior” has been dropped from the name. The lengthy application process consists of completing the on-line application, preparing a five page curriculum vita and obtaining at least three letters of recommendation. There are several rolling deadlines throughout the year. The review process can take up to a year before applicants are notified whether or not they have been accepted for the Fulbright Specialist roster. Once an applicant is accepted for the roster, s/he becomes a “candidate” for a Fulbright scholarship and remains on the list for five years. When an opportunity arises in the candidate’s field – information technology in the case of the author – the candidate applies for that specific opportunity. Typically a few candidates are notified of the opportunity and then if interested need to develop a proposal, or application, for the specific opportunity. In this case, a CIES representative notified the author of the opportunity in Uganda and suggested developing a proposal. Three proposals from Fulbright Specialist candidates were submitted and the Ugandan host institutions, in conjunction with the Ugandan Fulbright Office, selected the winning proposal. A summary of the author’s proposal appears in Exhibit 1.

Once the author’s proposal was selected, the representatives at the host institutions, Kyambogo University and Logel Project, wanted to get going on the project as soon as possible. The author departed for Uganda in June, 2009, approximately three months after being selected and soon after the end of the academic year. There were additional forms to complete, including the grant acceptance, the project scope and the travel budget which had to be approved. Arrangements for a passport, visa, immunizations and malaria medication also had to be made. Initially the author’s visit was to be six weeks, but due to budget constraints it was reduced to three weeks. It is customary for the host country to pay for lodging, meals and local



transportation. Ugandan funds were extremely limited. The Fulbright program/CIES normally pays for air fare, the daily honorarium of \$200, and sometimes incidental expenses.

**Exhibit 1: Proposal for visit to Uganda by a Fulbright Senior Specialist Candidate**

A joint endeavor to develop electronic, information and communications technology products and services that have the potential for transforming to a successful commercial launch appeals to my entrepreneurial instincts and passion for ICT.

**Qualifications:**

The child of an entrepreneur in Seattle, Washington, the entrepreneurial culture was inculcated into my childhood and influenced my choice of the marketing option in my undergraduate college program in business. Enthused about the potential of communications and computer technology, I worked in the campus data center and taught computer programming while pursuing my MBA. Later I obtained my PhD in Business Administration with an emphasis in information systems. In between the MBA and PhD I worked for a large corporation, AT&T and one of its subsidiaries, as a communications consultant and marketing manager of data communications. I left AT&T to join a small market research firm that specialized in the high technology industry concentrated in Silicon Valley (Palo Alto, Santa Clara County, California). I enjoyed my work there as a senior staff scientist and project leader, but when my boss suggested we start a new company, the opportunity was irresistible. We opened the first office of Input, Inc. in Palo Alto, CA and today this market research/ management consulting firm is a success and has offices around the world. I enjoyed my role as founder and Director of the Company Analysis Program, but missed academia. In order to complete my PhD and pursue a full-time academic career, my role changed to part-time consultant at Input. I am currently a Professor of Computer Information Systems at California State University, East Bay. In addition to teaching and research, I have held various administrative roles, most recently the Director of the MBA and MSBA [in information Technology Management] programs and graduate advisor for the e-business program. Previously I was the Head of the Computer Information Systems program and also the Director/Department Chair of Information Systems at Golden Gate University in San Francisco. I was also a visiting Professor of Information Systems at the University of Washington in Seattle, Washington, where I became involved in their technology incubator program. Throughout the years I have maintained my own business as an active consultant and have also researched and written one book and over 70 articles published in journals and conference proceedings. Many of my publications are listed on my curriculum vitae. They include articles about partnerships between industry and academia, internet-based businesses, curriculum development and modification in electronic business and computer information systems, and teaching methodologies.

I have served on the Board of two start-up companies. Occasionally I volunteer as a docent for the Computer History Museum in Silicon Valley, site of world's largest collection of information technologies and stories of the innovators behind them – some of whom I know personally. Sometimes I also volunteer for the Ronald McDonald House at Stanford University.

**Approach to Project Objectives:**

To maximize the mutual benefit of my visit to Kyambogo University (KYU) and Logel in Uganda, I intend to creatively draw on my extensive background in commerce and in education of people about computers, electronics, information and communications technology.

A logical starting point would be to get to know the Logel organization and the electronics/ICT arm of KYU. By knowing the organizations, their strengths and areas in need of improvement, I should be able to conduct a meaningful needs assessment, identify various courses of action and recommend the optimal course of action. This would be done within the context of where Logel and KYU are now and where they want their joint venture to be in the future. The final report may discuss a marketing plan, the role of graduate and undergraduate students, faculty, internships, alumni, business partners, governments, and possible sources of investment funding. Market research for recently developed products and services would help to determine which ones to produce, commercialize and how to best proceed. Markets for additional new products and services may be identified in the process. As research and development for electronic and ICT products and services is refined, the potential to generate a positive revenue stream for Logel and KYU will increase. The marketing and business plans to emerge should include some form of compensation to be paid to Logel and KYU.

Another consideration would be the potential synergy of establishing an academic program in technology innovation/ entrepreneurship that would include courses to aid students in their careers, including internships with the Logel-KYU ICT venture.

Outcomes of this Fulbright Specialist project should be publicized at appropriate conferences and/or submitted to journals for publication.

**Project Report: tentative outline**

Executive summary

Table of contents

Introduction

Where Logel and KYU are currently

Strengths and areas in need of improvement

Business and technology environment  
Goals for the next one, three and five years  
Alternative approaches to achieving goals  
Recommendation for the best alternative  
Business/marketing plan including implementation schedule for a specific product/service  
Conclusion and areas for further investigation

**Timeline:**

I am available for up to six weeks of travel beginning in mid-June 2009 following the end of my academic year and should complete travel not later than mid-September -- in time for the start of fall quarter. The first third of my visit will focus on getting to know Logel and electronic/ICT programs at KYU. The second third will focus on developing and evaluating alternatives. The last third will focus on writing the final report, presenting it to KYU and Logel representatives, and drafting the manuscript for publication.

Properly researched and implemented this project will add value to Kyambogo University and Logel, and benefit the Republic of Uganda and humanity as a whole.

**HOST REQUESTS A FULBRIGHT SPECIALIST IN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY**

In 2008, Mr. John Okuonzi , Lecturer in the Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering (DEEE) at Kyambogo University, and Mr. Herbert Lwanga, Director of Logel Project, jointly prepared a proposal requesting a Fulbright Specialist to help them transform Information Communication Technology (ICT) research into consumable products and services and commercialization and to also enhance human resource skills. Kyambogo University DEEE and Logel established a linkage when Mr. Lwanga was an Electrical Engineering student at Kyambogo during the early 2000s. Since graduating, Mr. Lwanga has founded Logel Project and has maintained an active linkage with KYU by providing intern positions for DEEE ICT students during the industrial training (internship) phase of their education.

Kyambogo University is an institution of higher education in Kampala, Uganda, with a strong background in the teaching and research and development of technologies. The University was founded in 2003 when three smaller institutions merged. Logel Project, founded in 2001, is a small company which produces and markets technology products on a small scale in Uganda. Logel Project is also located in Kampala, Uganda, the nation's capital. KYU and Logel share a common vision of enhancing academic skills and promoting technological research for socio-economic transformation and development in Uganda and beyond. The author's Fulbright Specialist proposal proved to be a good fit.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review consists of links to web sites containing information about 1) the Fulbright programs in general (<http://www.cies.org>), 2) Specific information about the Fulbright Senior Specialist program (<http://www.ceis.org/specialists>), 3) Kyambogo University (<http://www.kyu.ac.ug>), 4) Logel Project (<http://www.logelproject.com>), and 5) the author's home institution with respect to Fulbright information and publicity.

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

What follows is a summary of the author's needs assessment and activities during a three-week visit to Uganda. Assessments of both KYU and Logel are presented and then recommendations for future improvements are presented. Some of this information was included in the final report to the host institutions and to CIES.

### **Assessment of Kyambogo University Technology Programs in Relation to Logel, Linkages**

Kyambogo University (KYU) is located on Kyambogo Hill in Kampala, Uganda; it was established in 2003 when three educational institutions were merged: Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo, Institute of Teacher Education Kyambogo, and Uganda National Institute of Special Education. About 14,000 students are enrolled at KYU, of which about 400 major in Electronics and Electrical Engineering programs. KYU seeks to excel in the area of technology, as suggested by the following statement in the KYU strategic plan. The University seeks "to advance and promote knowledge and development of skills in science, technology and education and in such other fields having regard to quality, equity, progress and transformation of society." The University objectives are based on core values that pertain to quality, equity, integrity and professionalism. There appears to be good will between KYU, the private sector, government and nongovernment organizations. KYU has also collaborated with many international universities and organizations and seeks to elevate its international visibility.

KYU seeks to produce quality graduates with a positive attitude, "hands on" experience (practical orientation), resilience and ability to adapt to the demands and needs of a dynamic society. Working with Logel Project Ltd and other partners is consistent with KYU objectives. The KYU Department of Electronics and Electrical Engineering (DEEE) has other partners including the telecommunications company, MTN, and the electric utility, UMEME.

According to the KYU Prospectus [catalog] for 2005-06, the most recent edition available, the Faculty of Engineering offers at least 22 engineering programs, as summarized in Exhibit 2. New programs in electronic and electrical engineering fields introduced since the prospectus was published are listed at the bottom of Exhibit 2. New programs under

development include biomedical engineering, electrical power engineering and electromechanical engineering.

<b>Exhibit 2: Engineering programs at Kyambogo University per 2005/06 prospectus/catalog</b>
<b>Dept of Mechanical and Manufacturing engineering:</b> 10 programs, including Bachelors in engineering --mechanical and manufacturing engineering Bachelors in engineering --environmental engineering and management Bachelor of Technical Teacher training (BTE) mechanical Certificate in mechanical engineering CME
<b>Dept of Civil and Building Engineering:</b> 7 programs, including Bachelor of Engineering in Civil and Building Engineering Bachelor of Technology in Civil and Building Engineering Bachelor of Science in Surveying and Land Information Systems Bachelor of Science in Building Economics
<b>New programs since 2005/06 catalog/prospectus published:</b> 5 programs Bachelor in engineering -telecommunications engineering Ordinary diploma in telecommunications engineering Ordinary diploma in computer engineering Ordinary diploma in electrical engineering
Under development and later approved: Bachelor in engineering –biomedical engineering
Total of 22 programs

#### Feedback on the Bachelor of Engineering – Telecommunications Engineering curriculum

The Bachelor in Engineering – Telecommunications engineering curriculum is very good. Inclusion of a few non-traditional courses such as entrepreneurship, project management and writing skills is a strength. The program is somewhat rigid with only a limited number of electives available to students. KYU should consider adding more electives in the future. Establishing tracks or options would give students the choice of concentrating in electrical engineering, telecommunications, engineering management, technology innovation, Information Communications Technology (ICT), etc. DEEE must add more faculty members and strengthen the ones they have, for example, by encouraging lecturers to get a Ph.D.

#### Feedback on the proposed Bachelor of Engineering in Biomedical Engineering program

The proposal for a Bachelor of Engineering in Biomedical Engineering (BEBME) curriculum is very well written and makes a strong case for the first BEBME program in Uganda. The proposed interdisciplinary curriculum draws from areas as life sciences, biological sciences, physical sciences, computing and ICT, industrial training and entrepreneurship. Quality infrastructure and labs will be crucial for this program. KYU will need to improve its facilities and build up the faculty to deliver this program effectively. Properly implemented, the BEBME program will benefit Kyambogo University, its students and Ugandan health care.

### Strengths of KYU DEEE

- KYU is fortunate to have a staff of committed lecturers in DEEE. About 22 attended the seminar the author presented during semester break in July 2009 on “Pathway to Successful Research and Publishing.” About the same number attended a second seminar presented by the author, entitled “Creating Information Technology Linkages with Industry and Other Universities.” The faculty members were attentive and eager to participate.
- KYU DEEE offers a “hands on” education which includes industrial training for students. All DEEE BSTE students must complete a group project during their third year and an individual project during their fourth year. These graduates are in demand and often preferred over graduates of more prestigious universities.
- KYU DEEE has formed strong linkages with some companies. These firms include Logel Project Ltd, MTN and UMEME and are among the firms where engineering students complete their industrial training. These links could be strengthened by forming a student chapter of the Institute for Electronic and Electrical Engineers (IEEE) at KYU and offering programs where members of industry are invited to participate as speakers, etc.

### Weaknesses of KYU DEEE

- Resources for faculty are very limited. Internet access for DEEE faculty is very limited at best. The departmental modem is in need of repair or replacement. It is common for faculty to bring their personal computers and modems from home to use at work. Even then, Internet access is available only at dialup speed. Since the Department has no working printers, faculty must also provide their own printer if they wish to print something.
- -Physical facilities for faculty are inadequate. Four faculty members typically share an office with four old desks and chairs, two file cabinets and two bookshelves.
- -Faculty staffing in DEEE is grossly inadequate. There are 12 lecturers and two visiting professors in DEEE. There is not a single tenure track faculty member and none of the lecturers hold a PhD. KYU should consider offering incentives to lecturers to obtain a PhD.
- -Security is weak for computers and networks. The author’s personal computer received a virus by using a flash drive to share a file with a faculty member. One of the reasons that departmental printers are not available is because of viruses clogging the local network.

### Recommendations for Kyambogo University—several involve linkages with Logel Project

- 1) Improve campus infrastructure, especially Internet, network and computing technologies. Faculty members who teach technology need to have the technologies available to them.

- 2) Improve physical facilities, especially for faculty members. Strive to have no more than two full-time faculty members share the same office and make sure each one has a decent desk, two chairs, a bookshelf and a locking file cabinet.
- 3) Consider offering incentives to lecturers without PhD degrees to obtain one. The University also needs to make faculty recruiting a priority. Compensate faculty members sufficiently to attract and retain them.
- 4) Improve security for technology, e.g., make use of current anti-virus software.
- 5) Improve linkages with industry and other universities by providing faculty members the funding to attend at least one professional conference per year where they can present a refereed paper. Many conferences publish their proceedings. Some have an affiliate journal and select the best papers for publication in the journal. IEEE and ACM (Association of Computing Machinery) offer many conferences each year.
- 6) Form a DEEE advisory board. Invite members of the business and industry community in the greater Kampala area to belong on a volunteer basis. The participants provide a community service and they get a closer look at students they may want to hire as interns or full time. The advisory board could help evaluate student projects to identify the ones with the most potential for commercial success. This could be done in conjunction with a departmental review board comprised of five or so faculty members. In fact, one or two of the members could be outside representatives, perhaps from Logel.
- 7) Start a student chapter of IEEE at KYU. This would be the first chapter in Uganda. The student chapter could meet regularly, at least once per month, and invite speakers and participants from industry. Such a move would be consistent with the KYU strategic plan of “establishing firm collaborative linkages with other institutions and organizations, both national and international.”
- 8) Offer student project competitions. This could easily be organized through the IEEE chapter and should include prizes for the winners.
- 9) Identify the best student projects for commercial application. This could be done through a combination of student competitions and the faculty review committee and advisory board. The faculty review committee could review some 85 student projects per year and select the best 10 and then invite the advisory board to review the top 10 and select and rank order the best three. The winning project could be offered to industry affiliates for commercialization, e.g., Logel Project. The winning project could also become a case study and written up for publication. Faculty members, perhaps with students, could write and submit the case study to appropriate journals such as *IEEE Spectrum* and *IEEE Potentials*. Intellectual property rights must be kept in mind, including an appropriate reward to the student, DEEE, and the company that successfully launches the product. If faculty members become consultants to Logel or other industry linkages, then the university strategic goal “to enhance the capacity for consultancy in the University” is supported.
- 10) Work with Logel Project to identify at least one student project worthy of commercialization during the next year. This project could relate to the current product line of Logel, for example, a project that identifies ways to improve the solar charger. In anticipation of a successful launch, an agreement should be formed that provides some

financial reward, perhaps a royalty, to the student and KYU. If faculty write and publish an article on this collaboration, then the KYU strategic goal of academic and research development is supported.

- 11) Form an Institute of Electrical Engineering Entrepreneurship at KYU. This institute could serve to develop consulting opportunities for faculty. Advisory Board members could interface with the institute and be among the clients. Logel Project is a likely participant. The institute could potentially partner with other universities and augment faculty publication and research. Monies generated by the institute could be used to help fund faculty travel to conferences.
- 12) Start a seminar program that brings a different topic to faculty members at least once a month. This would be a forum for faculty to present research in progress and invite suggestions from colleagues to improve the work in progress before any manuscript is finalized and submitted for publication in a refereed journal or conference proceedings.
- 13) DEEE faculty members submit manuscripts to the Journal of Engineering Innovations and Research, an on-campus journal published by the Faculty of Engineering.
- 14) Invite the US Embassy staff in Kampala to work with DEEE to organize a seminar social with refreshments. The seminar could feature the top student projects and/or a presentation by a faculty member. Industry organizations such as the Manufacturers Association and Engineering Association could be invited as well as the media.

### **Assessment of Logel Project Ltd**

First, the company is described as it exists currently. Recommendations for future improvement follow.

#### The Company

In year 2010 Logel intends to focus on production of a solar charging system since there has been significant interest in the prototype. In the coming year, Logel plans to manufacture at least 200 solar charger systems. The company plans to obtain a loan or grant of 15,000,000 Ugandan Shillings to purchase the equipment necessary to begin solar charger production. Cash flow projections show sufficient cash during the production build up and a sizable cash balance at the end of the year.

#### Financial position

A review of Logel's 2008 income tax return shows that the company operated at a loss. The majority of revenue was generated by 1) web site design and hosting and 2) computer and electronics maintenance.

Logel plans to eventually fund its operation from revenue earned and to invest its retained earnings. The company web site is [www.logelproject.com](http://www.logelproject.com).



Director Lwanga and colleagues also operate a non-profit organization called Logel Project, but this organization did not file a tax return for 2008. The web site for the non-profit side is [www.logelproject.org](http://www.logelproject.org).

### Marketing position

Logel Project Ltd. services and products are designed to appeal to a large customer base. The company plans to increase its market share mainly by concentrating on small-and-medium-sized corporations because they provide the highest profit potential. Key target markets include the following:

1. Small Businesses. The most important market segment is small business, which includes technology providers, suppliers, trading houses, turnkey contractors, software developers, banking and financing institutions, consulting and engineering firms. These companies will interact with Logel Project Ltd for functions that are more effectively outsourced than performed internally.
2. Medium-sized companies. For high-growth fields such as software and multimedia, Logel Project offers a company various approaches to open opportunities in new market segments.
3. Individual consumers. This is also an important portion of the market to reach regarding the need for training and use of IT opportunities.

### Competition

Major players in the Ugandan IT business include; Info COM, Africa Online and CFI. In the regional solar charger market, solar energy companies are among Logel's competitors. Occasionally Logel partners with firms that may be perceived as competitors.

### Management Organization

Currently the founders are the management team, but the firm is reorganizing into three main management divisions, which are sales and marketing, finance and administration, and operations. The departments managed by the sales and marketing division are: marketing, sales, products and services and public relations operations. The departments managed by the finance and administration division are: accounting, administration, and human resources development (training). The operations division is managed by the technical manager and includes production of products and services such as electronics, electrical and information technology. The divisional managers and a full time accountant will be hired as the company attains capacity.

Management philosophy is based on responsibility and mutual respect. According to management, people who work at Logel choose to work there because it encourages “C4A&I,” meaning Creativity, Concepts, Competencies, Connections, Achievement and Innovation.

Company strengths according to management include:

- 1) Marketing and Selling capacities. The services the company provides are made attractive in order to maintain a certain percentage of business to business (B2B) and business to consumer (B2C) customers. Being an IT service provider, business and solutions provider, and business and sales representative, Logel Project must demonstrate a consistent ability to convert its clients' knowledge into their intellectual property, and thus create value. To achieve this will require a comprehensive marketing plan and qualified personnel.
- 2) Excellence in fulfilling the promise. Clients do not buy features, they buy benefits. Logel has won the confidence and satisfaction of its clients by delivering quality service as promised over time.
- 3) Developing visibility to generate new business leads. Participation by the company in online business affiliations with reputable global players of e-business technology is a necessity. Strategic relationships must also be made with companies, government institutions, regional (provincial) government offices, and NGOs, as well as with individual customers. One way in which Logel management does this is by attending conferences.
- 4) Creating multiple opportunities from a single line of expertise. Logel Project is able to creatively leverage from a single area of expertise into multiple revenue generation opportunities: software design and development, Printed Circuit Board design and development, electronic designing and development, web development, web hosting on a regional scale, as well as IT out-sourcing of accessory sales for global companies in the Ugandan and East African market.
- 5) Key management team. The right management team must maintain a strong foundation in management, marketing, finance, and operations. The company must confidently develop a highly competent and effective management team able to set and achieve business goals and plans.

#### Visit to Logel Project

Based on the visit the author made to Logel Project Ltd, Logel offers IT services and has developed at least seven prototype products for potential mass production and sale. These products are:

1. A solar charger, which is their best seller, but out of stock when visited
2. Inverter circuit, designed to extend battery life

3. Phone charger, charges 10 cell phones at a time, useful in communities with no electricity
4. Level detector, useful for diagnostics
5. Pulse detector, useful for diagnostics
6. PA system (public address) to filter out noise
7. Brain box, a game intended to elevate children's interest in science and technology

These seven products were featured during the visit to Logel. IT services such as web page design, graphics and software were only mentioned in passing. A potential outsourcing business was also barely mentioned. Apparently Logel has accepted business from other companies to perform services such as data entry, software development, engineering design, circuit board design and document editing.

Many of the seven products were conceived by students at Kyambogo University under the supervision of DEEE faculty. Some of these are interesting ideas worth commercializing on a grand scale. First, however, they need to be formally assessed, perhaps by a review board. Issues to be considered include the market potential, uniqueness of the product, quality of design and Logel's ability to launch the product or service commercially.

In a draft of its business plan Logel management states intent to proceed with launch of the solar charger because it has generated the most interest. First a thorough market research analysis should be conducted to assess the potential of this product. The solar charger seems popular in Uganda, but at the same time an Internet search reveals there is extensive global competition. Logel will need to differentiate its solar charger from the competition and make sure the product not only functions properly but is contained in an attractive case. In general, Logel products need to be packaged more attractively in order to compete effectively with imports from China, India and elsewhere. The "brain box" product appears to be the most attractive.

In addition to the solar charger, the cell phone charger also generates considerable interest. Since many Ugandans reside in rural areas with limited or no electricity and want to use cell phones, how to recharge the cell phone battery is a major concern. There is clearly a need for some type of cell phone battery charging service as well as improving the availability of electricity. An Internet search shows that a number of companies offer some type of cell phone battery recharging service. In fact, during a visit to the Uganda Museum in Kampala, the author noticed a written case study about how Motorola, a cell phone provider, partnered with Ugandan women entrepreneurs to make cell phone chargers available in rural areas. Perhaps Logel could partner with a cell phone provider such as Nokia.

### Strengths and weaknesses of Logel Project

- Logel Project Ltd is an innovative organization with a strong engineering team and a commitment to promoting interest in science and technology among children. Management participates actively in conferences and networking opportunities and has made several current and potential linkages with other organizations in addition to Kyambogo University. Management has drafted a business plan and a core area of focus and intends to refine and update the plan periodically.
- Logel would benefit from defining clear areas of responsibility in the firm that cover the areas of leadership, sales and marketing, finance and administration and operations. Questions to address include who is in charge when the Director is away from the office. Logel lacks the financial resources needed to achieve many of the things that management desires.

### Recommendations for Logel Project

Following are the recommendations for Logel Project. Several of them involve linkages with the Department of Electronics and Electrical Engineering at Kyambogo University.

- 1) Establish clear areas of responsibility and hire staff as financial resources permit. Areas of leadership, sales and marketing, finance and administration and operations should be clearly defined. Staff should know who to go to if the Director is not available.
- 2) Identify sources of funding. This could be private investment or venture capital companies in or outside of Uganda. Banks may also be willing to loan money to a start-up business, for example, the East African Development Bank, as well as various innovation in science and technology organizations including the National Collegiate Inventors and Innovators Alliance (<http://www.nciia.org>) and Broadened Horizons (<http://www.broadenedhorizons.com>).
- 3) Choose a product/service area on which to focus. Logel has seven employees and occasional independent contractors. The firm is not adequately staffed to achieve all it is attempting to do. Following a conversation with management, Logel has decided to focus on the solar charger for the next year. This product should be featured on the Logel web pages, displayed at trade shows, advertised, highlighted in an attractive brochure and strongly promoted in general. Prospective buyers need to be encouraged to visit the Logel web page and to contact the company. The Logel team must be prepared to respond. It is important for the featured product to appear and function better than competing products.
- 4) Conduct market research on existing products before committing major resources to any one. Consider hiring IT Power in the UK again since they have a track record of contracting with organizations such as the United Nations on development projects.
- 5) Identify electronics manufacturing firms with whom to partner. Partnering with the right firms can yield royalties from product sales or a percentage of sales revenue. Link up

with them. Be prepared to involve an attorney who specializes in intellectual property to prepare the agreements. A law student intern could help start the process.

- 6) Identify trade journals and publications to submit articles about Logel products. A third party could write and submit a product review to such publications as *IEEE Spectrum* or *IEEE Potentials*. A Kyambogo University DEEE faculty member or student would be a good source to work with Logel on writing the articles to submit for consideration.
- 7) Continue working with KYU and other universities to hire student interns as well as identify and commercialize worthwhile student projects and ideas.

Additional recommendations are not explained fully here due to space limitations; they include: update the business plan, update the web site frequently, hire additional student interns, form a board of directors, clarify the for-profit and not-for-profit arms of the business, and get involved with professional societies.

Most or all of the above recommendations should be achievable within the next one to two years. A progress review should be conducted within two years.

The author hopes these recommendations will benefit both Kyambogo University and Logel Project Ltd. As the DEEE program offerings grow and strengthen, so can the graduates become even more productive members of the Ugandan society. As Logel Project grows and thrives, the firm will need to hire additional personnel and thus create more jobs for graduates of KYU and other universities.

## CONCLUSION

As part of this needs assessment, the author has made 15 recommendations for Logel Project and 14 recommendations for Kyambogo University. The areas for greatest synergy revolve around Logel's hiring more student interns, establishing a student chapter of IEEE at KYU, establishing an Institute for Electrical Engineering Entrepreneurship at KYU and creating an advisory board for the DEEE department. I have proposed that the DEEE advisory board and a committee of DEEE faculty evaluate student projects to identify those with the greatest potential for commercialization. There is ample opportunity for KYU and Logel to synergize their strengths in these endeavors. Improved conditions for DEEE faculty and more focused management at Logel will facilitate this successful linkage, which ultimately will benefit Logel Project, Kyambogo University, its students and the Ugandan society.

In addition to the original needs assessment project, the author conducted two seminars for KYU DEEE faculty and evaluated the Bachelors of Engineering in Telecommunications Engineering program and the proposed Bachelors of Engineering in Biomedical Engineering program.

This innovative education paper has been submitted to the Academy of Educational Leadership Journal in hopes that it will inspire the readers to consider applying for a Fulbright scholar program or a comparable program to facilitate education improvements and collaboration

with colleagues in other countries. The Fulbright program is an unusual and rewarding way to gain experience in grant writing and international education. It enables the Fulbright scholar to develop a deeper appreciation of the working conditions and hardships in other countries and feel better prepared to work in a highly diverse environment. What a great way to serve as a catalyst for achieving world peace and economic growth one person at a time!

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# A STUDY OF THE COGNITIVE DETERMINANTS OF GENERATION Y'S ENTITLEMENT MENTALITY

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## ABSTRACT

*Entitlement, as defined by The American Heritage Dictionary (1985), is "to furnish with a right or claim to something." This study attempts to investigate the possible cognitive determinants which have led to an "entitlement" mentality found in "Generation Y" individuals ("Millenials") confronting both academicians and employers*

*This paper drew from an extensive review of relevant literature and results from focus groups used to validate the constructs leading to the development of an instrument which was utilized to measure the behavioral, cognitive and affective antecedents leading to an entitlement mentality. Hypothesis testing utilizing regression analysis produced interesting results which are detailed in this paper. The findings and implications of this research will be discussed.*

## INTRODUCTION

During the past forty (40) years, the nature of the American economy has shifted dramatically from one focused on manufacturing and heavy industry to one that is dominated by "white collar" professions and service industry jobs (Robbins, 2005). In its comprehensive survey of Millenials (Generation Y), the Pew Research Center (2010) identified four generational cohorts: The Silent generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and the Millennial generation.

The Silent generation consists of those born between 1928 and 1945. The current age of this group is 65+. They are the children of the Great Depression and World War II. Their dominant work values include honesty, organizational loyalty, conformity and a work ethic that incorporates hard work and moral values (Pew, 2010).

A significant demographic shift is now occurring as members of the "Baby Boomer Generation" (1946-1964) pass from the workforce into retirement. They take with them a work ethic driven by success, ambition, high achievement and a loyalty to their careers and organizations.

While "Generation X" (1965-1981), with their work values of team orientation, a work/family life balance, and loyalty to relationships, dominates the current workforce population, the Millenials, also known as "Generation Y" (1982-2009) have begun to stream into the labor market. The Millenials seem to bring with them a hedonism, narcissism, and cavalier

work ethic previously unknown in the American workforce. Nonetheless, these negative traits are contradicted and counterbalanced by this same generation's loyalty to individual managers (not corporations); a commitment to idealistic corporate visions and values; and a willingness to provide an employer with hard work, albeit in exchange for virtually immediate reward and recognition.

Most notably, the Millennials treat technology as their "sixth sense". It is a significant characteristic and skill set that distinguishes them from members of other generations (Deal, Altmann & Rogelberg, 2010). The Internet, cell phones and online social networking were all introduced during the growth years of the Millennials. They are "natives" to the technology while members of all other generations, no matter what their individual technological proficiency may be, are seen as "immigrants" (Hershatler & Epstein, 2010).

Members of the "Baby Boomer Generation", who are often in the upper echelon of corporate management; and the mid or lower level managers from "Generation X" are confronted, and confounded, by the ambiguous attitudes and conflicting behavior of their Millennial employees. Managers in the latter generation are particularly frustrated when they contrast their "sink or swim" entry into the workforce with the organizational "accommodations" offered to Millennials. (2010). Nonetheless, understanding and adapting to this new generation's work ethic will be critical to the restored, continued or future success of American business and industry.

Millennials display similar attitudes and behavior toward academia. College instructors find that many possess an astonishing lack of drive, motivation and accountability. The mindset of many Millennials is that just "showing up" for all the classes merits a minimum grade of "B" (Newsweek, 2009). There is also evidence of an alarming attitude of "OK. I'm sitting here in class; entertain me." Most disturbing is the Millennial students' lack of concern for the accuracy and the validity of their research sources; their inclination to trust peer opinion and public consensus; and their lack of original thought (Hershatler & Epstein, 2010).

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Morrow (2008) has developed a theoretical framework delineating the origins of the mindset of entitlement displayed by Millennials. His research highlights the fact that members of this generation tend to have had child centered parents who exhibited a "trophies for all" attitude in what were previously competitive activities. Such parental attitudes and behaviors create unrealistic expectations by the children who are often unable to comprehend that not everyone wins and that their efforts may often result in failure.

Morrow also addresses the phenomenon of "helicopter parents", or those parents who "hover" over their children and impede a child's development of a good sense of independence and responsibility. This practice may have contributed to the Millennial's risk adversity and fear of ambiguity (Hershatler & Epstein, 2010).



Jayson (2007) found that the motivational constructs behind the entitlement mindset include loyalty, getting rich, meeting family and peer expectations, a desire for fame, being the family provider and living a modest, yet comfortable, lifestyle. Nations (2007) also discovered that a desire for personal time, opportunities for advancement and personal growth, security, a desire for intrinsic rewards, leadership opportunities and team development all served as motivators of this group.

While much of the recent research touts the Millennial worker's loyalty, teamwork and commitment to corporate mission (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010), there is substantial data to suggest that the same worker is twice as likely to leave a company within one year of hire (Ethics Resource Center, 2010). Other areas of concern center on the evidence of obesity and other unhealthy behaviors, and the absence of cultural and intellectual pursuits by Millennials (Deal, Altman & Rogelberg, 2010).

When measuring the impact of the Millennials on academia or the workforce, one need only examine their demographics: they are more than 60 million in number; are three times the size of Generation X; one third is non-Caucasian; three quarters have a working mother; and, in 2010, 37% were unemployed. Although they are computer savvy, with three quarters creating a profile on a social networking site, they suffer from computer overload. (State of Montana Journal, 2007 & Pew, 2010).

Saba (2007) finds the mentality of entitlement to consist of short term financial goals, a sense of privilege, anticipation of long-term financial gains and an effort to command, not earn, respect.

## METHOD

This research was conducted in three phases. The first phase of the research, which drew from an extensive review of relevant literature and the results from interviews with ten focus groups comprised of five subjects each. The focus groups were used to validate the constructs leading to the development of the instrument included in this study. That instrument attempted to measure the behavioral, cognitive and affective antecedents leading to an entitlement mentality; to provide understanding of this issue; and to confirm that the proposed conceptual framework addresses the relevant constructs.

Given the nature of the population, a convenience sample was used in this phase and was based on responses by undergraduate students who were willing to participate in the study. Standardized open-ended interviews were utilized. With this type of approach, each person was asked to provide his or her answers to the questions which were written in advance and drafted exactly the way they were to be asked in the interview. Standardized, open-ended interviews are systematic and ensure that the interviewer's and interviewee's time is used efficiently. Using standardized questions also made data analysis easier and added credibility to the responses because questions were evaluated prior to the actual interviews. However, to allow for individual

circumstances that may not be addressed by standardized questions, respondents were also given the opportunity to raise additional issues that they considered to be important in relation to work experiences/behaviors that would contribute to the constructs under investigation.

The second phase, and the subject of this paper, consisted of a survey administered to a convenience sample of two hundred and seventy-two undergraduate business school students at two different institutions: a four year private college and a state sponsored university. The purpose of this phase was to generate responses to survey items generated in the interview phase in order to test the major hypotheses developed in the first phase of this study. The purpose of the survey was to determine whether the items identified in the interview do, indeed, lead to an entitlement mindset. The survey contained fifty items measuring each of the constructs. This paper tested the significance of each of the proposed cognitive determinants. Future research will investigate the behavioral and affective determinants on an entitlement attitude.

### **FINDINGS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

Specific cognitive influences as they affect an entitlement mentality were supported by this study. However, one might argue that a self-serving bias or demand characteristic may have affected the results of the interview as well as the completion of the survey, inasmuch as the subjects' responses may have reflected poorly on them. A possible answer to this criticism is, while this argument is probably true, phrasing the questions in the third person, e.g., "Do you feel that individuals in the 18 – 22 year old age group have parents who tend to smother them? Limit their independence? Put them at the center of the universe?" may have helped to reduce this threat.

Regardless, the personal interviews did support the theoretical framework detailed in this paper. Not surprisingly, some subjects did question the constructs dealing with the characteristics of the Millennial generation, such as lack of initiative, lack of ambition and a poor work ethic. As seen in Table 1 below, not all of the hypotheses were confirmed. Hypotheses for the following independent variables were supported: the influence of "helicopter parents"; "Trophies for all" practice; and the "nagging parents" who attempt to vicariously live through their children. However, the fact that members of this cohort group believe that they have many friends lead them to also believe that they let their friends down on a regular basis; that time to pursue personal interests is very important; they believe that others see them as leaders; that their personal goals are most important; and that when raises are given, they should always receive one. Surprisingly, hypotheses about the following independent variables were not supported: that the members of this cohort group do not live up to or exceed their friend's expectations; that they are more committed to an organization with similar values; and most surprisingly, that they should receive good grades regardless of performance.

Tested Construct	Hypothesized Relationship	# of Obs.	Std. Error	Sig.	Results
Helicopter Parents	Positive	272	.014	.002	Confirm
Trophies for All	Positive	272	.025	.023	Confirm
Nagging Parents	Positive	272	.014	.000	Confirm
Know All	Positive	272	.012	.001	Confirm
Solve	Positive	272	.010	.000	Confirm
Many Friends	Positive	272	.011	.000	Confirm
Friend's Expectations	Positive	272	.019	.120	Cannot Confirm
Let Down Friends	Positive	272	.018	.000	Confirm
Time for Self	Positive	272	.017	.000	Confirm
Others Perceive as Leader	Positive	272	.011	.001	Confirm
Personal Goals	Positive	272	.014	.000	Confirm
Org. Commitment	Positive	272	.036	.773	Cannot Confirm
Grades	Positive	272	.014	.113	Cannot Confirm
Raises	Positive	272	.016	.000	Confirm

As seen in this study, the results indicate specific areas in which academicians, supervisors, subordinates and coworkers, may better understand the motivations, thought processes and resulting behaviors of the Millennial cohort. In addition, this study may provide some food for thought for the parents of the next generation regarding ways in which to discourage and deal with this type of behavior. Although this paper is incomplete as to the predictors of or results of entitlement behavior, it can serve as a starting point for understanding the behavior of this group as it moves through college into the workforce.

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# **BRINGING CULTURE ALIVE IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM: USING THE NOVEL *SPEAKER FOR THE DEAD* TO TEACH GLOBAL MARKETING**

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## **ABSTRACT**

*Cultural awareness and sensitivity is one of the most important topics in international marketing courses. But when students have little or no personal experience in dealing with different cultures, it can be difficult for them to deeply understand the manifold ways in which cultural differences and consequent misunderstandings affect global marketing effectiveness. This article proposes a pedagogical remedy for students' lack of experience with cultural differences, misperceptions, and personal growth in cultural understanding—having students read and discuss the novel *Speaker for the Dead*. In reading this intrinsically interesting novel, students vicariously experience both intellectually and emotionally what it means to misunderstand and then, by degrees, better understand another culture. The article highlights telling details in the novel that graphically illustrate important global marketing concepts such as the self-reference criterion.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

One challenge in teaching international or global marketing courses is to vividly illustrate the importance of cultural differences and, thus, sensitize students who have never been abroad to the important role of culture in global marketing. Cultural misunderstandings can have serious and important consequences in international politics, business, and social encounters.

It can be very hard for Americans students (and professors, for that matter) to think outside of the North American box (Gorn 1997). This is especially true because much marketing research ethnocentrically reflects a U.S. reality (van Raaij 1978). Indeed, Usunier (1993) proposes that the very idea of “marketing” is culture bound, that the concept was “initially and for the most part developed in the United States” (p. 12), as evidenced by reference sources, study subjects, and the origin of the literature which defines it as an area of knowledge. Since much of one’s own culture is invisible (Lee 1966), students often have difficulty internalizing cultural concepts when they are taught in the ordinary way in an international marketing course. This is especially true for students who have not ventured very far beyond the confines of their own cultures.

Culture is an integral part of most texts on global or international marketing. Cateora and Graham (2005) devote an entire section of their text, consisting of five chapters, to the cultural environment of global markets. Johansson (2006) includes a chapter on cultural foundations and Czinkota and Ronkainen (2007) devote a chapter to the cultural environment. Usunier and Lee (2005) go a step further and write an entire international marketing text from a cultural perspective. So clearly, teaching cultural concepts is an integral part of the international marketing course. The problem is to make culture come alive in a classroom setting when many students have never been deeply immersed in another culture.

A study abroad experience is a great way to learn about culture (Clarke et al. 2009; Wright and Clarke 2010), but the expense of these programs rules them out for many students (Henthorn, Miller, and Hudson 2001; Muñoz, Wood, and Cherrier 2006). Thus, other less expensive techniques for developing a vivid and deep understanding of cultural differences and their importance should be explored.

Experiential learning is sometimes proposed as a way to give students a real life exposure to the importance of culture. Some have suggested that a computer simulation of one type or another be used to develop cultural awareness (e.g., Li, Greenberg, and Nicholls 2007), for example, an international business negotiation simulation (e.g., Culpan 1990). Others (e.g., Punnett 2005) propose experiencing the international business environment through a series of exercises, projects, and cases. Still others suggest that the real-life experiences of students who have been immersed in more than one culture—i.e., foreign students in the class or domestic students who have lived abroad—be used to highlight the importance and effects of culture (Curran-Kelly 2005). Muñoz, Wood, and Cherrier (2006) suggest using the Internet to do a cross-cultural collaborative exercise in which classes in different parts of the world complete an exercise, then compare and contrast the results, teasing out cultural similarities and differences.

## **LITERATURE AND LEARNING**

Literature is still another way to help students vividly and deeply experience and understand the importance of key business concepts. Recently, Kimball (2007) used assigned readings in contemporary American literature to teach ethical decision making. Kimball argued that this approach better prepared graduates for the “real world by creating a learning laboratory in which graduates can have the business world come alive as a vicarious experience” (p. 64). Since art often imitates all the variety and complexity of life (Auerbach 1953), works of art can serve as manageable and yet relatively verisimilar data sets to teach marketing concepts and to formulate and test marketing theories.

The use of literature to understand marketing is not new. A number of consumer researchers have developed and/or tested their theories by examining various cultural texts (Holbrook and O’Shaughnessy 1988), including novels, comic books, autobiographies, and religious books, among other texts (Belk 1987; Hirschman 1990; Wright and Larsen 1992). For

example, Wright, Larsen, and Higgs (1996) gave a detailed analysis of themes of consumption in Tom Wolfe's (1988) *The Bonfire of the Vanities*. In their analysis, they vividly illustrated the consumer decision-making process through a close reading of extended excerpts from the novel, and they developed new theory on consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction by closely analyzing the modes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction evident in the lives of Wolfe's characters.

<b>Table 1: Literature Review</b>	
Menon, Bush, and Gresham (1988)	Advocates using works of literature as pedagogical tools in marketing.  <i>Julius Caesar</i> by William Shakespeare to teach about the personal selling process.
Lynch and Shank (1991)	Shows how movies can be used to enhance a consumer behavior course.  Makes an explicit call for using other works of art, literature, and popular entertainment in the marketing curriculum.
Usunier (1993); Usunier and Lee (2005)	An international marketing textbook with an exercise that uses extracts from Harlequin romance novels to effectively teach the concept of global/international segmentation
Wright, Larsen, and Higgs (1996)	Uses Tom Wolfe's <i>The Bonfire of the Vanities</i> to illustrate the consumer decision-making process and consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
Patterson and Brown (2005)	Advocates that marketing scholars read novels to learn how to be better story tellers and communicate more effectively with targeted constituents.  Analyzes two novels, <i>Briget Jones's Diary</i> by Helen Fielding and <i>Fight Club</i> by Chuck Palahniuk, to demonstrate more effective communication strategies.
Kimball (2007)	Uses contemporary literature to enhance ethically focused decision making and interpersonal communication skills.  Describes a course in professional selling that uses <i>On the Road</i> by Jack Kerouac, <i>Mother Night</i> by Kurt Vonnegut, and <i>Atlas Shurgged</i> by Ayn Rand.

Using literature as a teaching tool in marketing courses is also not new (see Table 1). In perhaps the earliest reference in the marketing education literature, Menon, Bush, and Gresham (1988) used passages from Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* to teach the six steps of the personal selling process. Echoing Holbrook and O'Shaughnessy's (1988) call to use more cultural texts in basic marketing research, Lynch and Shank (1991) called for the greater use of movies,

television shows, plays, and novels in the marketing curriculum. Subsequent to this call, Usunier (1993) showed how extracts from Harlequin romance novels marketed around the world could be used to teach the concept of global market segmentation. Through close readings of two “marketing saturated bestsellers” (p. 315), Helen Fielding’s *Bridget Jones’s Diary* and Chuck Palahniuk’s *Fight Club*, Patterson and Brown (2005) identified strategies marketing scholars can use to more effectively communicate with their targeted constituents.

Novelists are specialists in the creation of vicarious experience. Their commercial success depends, in substantial measure, on their ability to create vivid realities that capture the imagination of readers. Thus, as Kimball (2007) suggests, having students read novels can provide for a “vicarious experience” that is pedagogically fruitful.

### **SPEAKER FOR THE DEAD**

The purpose of this paper is to add to the repertoire of pedagogically useful fiction by explaining how Orson Scott Card’s *Speaker for the Dead*, a science fiction novel, can be used to give undergraduate students in junior and senior level global marketing courses a deep and vivid appreciation of the importance of cultural differences. It may also be used in undergraduate, junior and senior level courses with substantial amounts of cultural content, including consumer behavior or international business courses.

*Speaker for the Dead* was published in 1986 as a sequel to *Ender’s Game*, which was published in 1985. Both novels are science fiction classics. Each won the two top awards in science fiction, the Hugo Award (given by fans) and the Nebula Award (given by writers), thus making Card the first and, to date, only writer to win both awards in successive years (Wagner 2003). While *Speaker for the Dead* is the sequel to *Ender’s Game*, it can be read and understood as a stand-alone work of fiction by students not familiar with its prequel. However, the sequel is more powerful if students have read the prequel and realize that Andrew Wiggin, the protagonist, is Ender Wiggin, the hero archetype (Collings 1990) from *Ender’s Game*. While both books are so gripping that students often voluntarily read both, instructors who use *Speaker for the Dead* may want to offer extra credit for reading *Ender’s Game*. See Table 2 for a plot summary of the novel *Speaker for the Dead*.

Of *Speaker for the Dead*, critics have said the following: “There aren’t too many recent SF [science fiction] novels we can confidently call truly moral works, but *Speaker for the Dead* is one. Full of careful characterization, intriguing scientific, especially anthropological, speculation, and a fictional challenge to our capacity to define humanity inclusively rather than exclusively, it’s a completely gripping story” (Barbour 1987). Cassada (1986), writing in *Library Journal*, said, “Ender Wiggin, hero and scapegoat in the last war, seeks a chance to redeem his own—and humanity’s—greatest crime, the failure to understand. Told with compassion and keen insight, this powerful sequel to *Ender’s Game* is highly recommended.”



**Table 2: Plot Summary for *Speaker for the Dead***

Approximately 3,000 years after Ender Wiggin destroyed the sentient, insect-like beings known formally as “Formics” and informally as “buggers,” humanity has spread to over 100 worlds. In the continuing exploration, a new planet is discovered that would suit human life. By governmental decree, the planet is settled under a Catholic license by humans who were culturally Brazilian, who name the new planet Lusitania, the ancient name of Portugal. Shortly after arriving, they discover that the little forest-dwelling animals they had called *pequeninos*—piggies—were not animals at all. Though technologically primitive, they used tools, spoke languages, and built houses. The galactic government decrees that they should be studied but left alone. Therefore, they send a team of interstellar anthropologists, called “xenologers” in the novel, to study and learn more about the Piggies.

After several years of study, the piggies brutally murder and vivisection the lead xenologer sent to study their culture. Then a few years later, they murder a second xenologer in the same manner. Thanks to an instantaneous, faster than light communication device called “the Ansible,” everyone learns of the murders in real time. The interstellar government sends a team to take care of the problem, but due to the distance involved, it will be 33 years before they arrive, as space travel is not instantaneous like the Ansible.

Meanwhile, Ender Wiggin, the military genius who destroyed the Formic home world in the novel *Ender’s Game*, has been prolonging his life by making many relativistic space flights at the speed of light. Already near Lusitania when the first murder occurs, he boards a ship and, flying near the speed of light, arrives 22 years later, though only one week of his life has passed on board the ship.

Wiggin, a sort of secular priest, a “Speaker for the Dead,” arrives on Lusitania to solve the mystery of why the piggies killed the first xenologer. He also carries with him the last cocoon of the formic species he supposedly wiped out and is hoping to hatch the cocoon on Lusitania and expiate his xenocide of the formic beings.

He learns of the second murder upon arrival and, with the help of a smart computer program, begins unraveling the mysterious deaths. In the process, he gets to know both the human population of Lusitania and the population of *pequeninos*. The humans have an electronic fence erected around the community that, they believe, is impenetrable. With the murders of the two xenologers, most humans are fearful of the piggies but, surrounded by their fence, do not interact with the piggies. By governmental decree, only xenologers can interact with the piggies, but Wiggin violates this edict to learn more about them.

It is soon apparent to Wiggin that the humans really do not understand piggy culture and that the piggies really do not understand human culture. Both are seeing the other through their own lenses, and making assumptions about the others’ ways of life, and both are wrong more often than they are right. For example, the piggies are able to get through the electronic fence and have been observing the humans unawares for years.

Wiggin’s computer program forces a confrontation between the galactic government and the people of Lusitania by making the government aware of illegal activities on the planet. The government threatens to cut off the Ansible, which controls all of their technology and computers. This forces the humans and the *pequeninos* to truly learn about the other to see if they can live together without killing each other. In the process, the two populations discover just how different they are from each another. The humans discover that the brutal “murders” are meant to take a piggy to a different stage of existence, like a larval slug turning into a beautiful butterfly. The piggies thought humans had similar life stages and were honoring, rather than viciously killing the humans they flayed alive. The novel ends with both populations gaining a greater appreciation of the others’ culture and learning to accommodate these differences. And on the final page, we learn that Wiggin is also planning to hatch the last generation of formics and resurrect that race that had been destroyed through cultural misunderstanding.

Mietkiewicz (1987), who described *Speaker for the Dead* as “the stunning sequel to *Ender’s Game*,” said that “with great sensitivity, Card raises the specter of another allegedly murderous alien society and poses haunting questions about xenophobia and the preservation of

life at all cost.” Wooster (1992) commented that “Card's work has proven popular because he has reached out in his fiction to other cultures and times” and that “particularly *Speaker for the Dead* was enriched by Card's deep knowledge of Brazilian culture.”

Why use a science fiction novel to enrich the cultural experience of students in an international marketing class? Because at its heart, *Speaker for the Dead* is an anthropological novel about cross-cultural miscommunication. And unlike other novels that deal with cross cultural situations (e.g., Michael Crichton's *Rising Sun*), *Speaker for the Dead* has aged well. Since it is not embedded in a particular historical context, it can demonstrate cultural theories in 2012 or 2025 just as effectively as it did in 1986 when it was first published. The passage of time does not render its details quaint or out of date. With sales and popularity that continue to be high (e.g., continuing high rankings on Amazon.com), the novel has passed the test of time.

In the novel, human beings have been alone in the universe for three thousand years, since the destruction of the only other known species of sentient beings in *Ender's Game*. Then the tool-using but primitive porcine “pequeninos” (Portuguese for “little ones”), or “piggies,” a fictional, sentient species that resemble pigs who walk on their hind legs, are discovered on the planet Lusitania. Once again, the alien and human cultures clash, and humans are killed. Andrew Wiggin, an itinerant “speaker for the dead” (a sort of secular priest) comes to Lusitania in order to understand what has happened between the humans and the piggies. The novel is a layered journey of discovery as humans and pequeninos realize they really do not know each other at all. Each culture makes several fundamental mistakes arising out of self referencing (Lee 1966) or cultural myopia (Sheth 2006), and as the author carefully explains each series of mistaken understandings, the reader is taken to a new level of cultural awareness.

*Speaker for the Dead* explores a variety of cultural issues including faith, kinship, communication, misunderstanding, community, family structure and formation, tribalism, cultural prejudice, life, death, and the many assumptions made in daily living. In this complex novel, humans speak two languages (English and Portuguese) and represent different cultures (e.g., Brazilian and American) since Lusitania is a planet colonized under a Catholic license by immigrants from Brazil and since the protagonist, Andrew Wiggin, is American. The Lusitanian aboriginals, known formally as pequeninos, or informally as piggies, speak six languages: English and Portuguese, that they have learned from the humans, plus four of their own languages, males language, wives' language, father tongue, and tree language. On multiple dimensions, they are an alien culture that misunderstands and is misunderstood by the human observers.

Table 3 gives an example of several cultural theories, with page references and sample selections that can be explored with *Speaker for the Dead*. It is by no means an exhaustive list. In this paper, we will focus on and illustrate two specific themes: culture and self referencing.

**Table 3: Cultural Concepts that can be Illustrated with *Speaker for the Dead*. Not an exhaustive list.**

Cultural Element	Sample Selection
Language: Pp. 56-57; 106; 132-133; 146, 240, 244, 315.	<p>Pp. 316-317 Shouter went back into the large log house. Ender turned around and again headed for the forest. Almost immediately Shouter’s voice rang out again. “She commands you to wait,” said Human. Ender did not break stride, and in a moment he was on the other side of the piggy males. “If she asks me to return, I may come back. But you must tell her, Human, that I did not come to command or to be commanded.” “I can’t say that,” said Human. “Why not?” asked Ender. “Let me,” said Ouanda. “Human, do you mean you can’t say it because you’re afraid, or because there are no words for it?” “No words. For a brother to speak to a wife about him commanding her, and her petitioning him, those words can’t be said in that direction.” Ouanda smiled at Ender. “Not mores, here, Speaker. Language.”</p>
Cultural Institutions (e.g., kinship and family structures): Pp. 57; 67-68; 108-109; 143-144; 199-200; 242-243; 245-246; 289-290; 308-309; 314-315; 320; 323; 331-334; 350-351	<p>P. 57 They refer to each other as <i>brothers</i>. The females are always called <i>wives</i>, never <i>sisters</i> or <i>mothers</i>. They sometimes refer to <i>fathers</i>, but inevitably this term is used to refer to ancestral totem trees.</p> <p>P. 323 “We carry them to the fathers, of course,” said Human. “How do you think? The fathers can’t come <i>here</i>, can they?” “The fathers,” said Ouanda. That’s what they call the most revered trees.” “That’s right,” said Human. “The fathers are ripe on the bark. They put their dust on the bark, in the sap. We carry the little mother to the father the wives have chosen. She crawls on the bark, and the dust on the sap gets into her belly and fills it up with little ones.” Ouanda wordlessly pointed to the small protuberances on Human’s belly. “Yes,” Human said. “These are the carries. The honored brother puts the little mother on one of the carries, and she holds very tight all the way to the father.” He touched his belly. “It is the greatest joy we have in our second life. We would carry the little mothers every night if we could.”</p>
Material Culture: Pp. 56, 235, 245, 290, 314, 335, 350.	<p>P. 350 Human held out the knives to Ender. They were both made of thin wood. Ender could not imagine a tool that could polish wood to be at once so fine and sharp, and yet so strong.</p>
Self-Reference Criterion (SRC*): Pp. 14, 32, 71-73, 99-100, 141; 144-145; 146-147, 169-170, 226-227; 230-231; 238; 292-293; 300; 324-325 (*Note: these are additional examples of SRC )	<p>Pp. 144-145 Miro sighed silently. He liked dealing with piggy religion as little as he liked his own people’s Catholicism. In both cases he had to pretend to take the most outrageous beliefs seriously. Whenever anything daring or importunate was said, the piggies always ascribed it to one ancestor or another whose spirit dwelt in one of the ubiquitous trees.</p>

**Table 3: Cultural Concepts that can be Illustrated with *Speaker for the Dead*. Not an exhaustive list.**

Cultural Element	Sample Selection
Non-Verbal Communication: Pp. 3; 37-38; 106; 148; 200; 203; 220; 228; 239; 240; 242- 243; 292; 306; 314; 316; 325.	<p>P. 3 Rooter held still in the expectant posture that Pipo thought of as their way of showing mild anxiety, or perhaps a nonverbal warning to other pequeninos to be cautious. It might also have been a sign of extreme fear, but as far as Pipo knew he had never seen a pequenino show extreme fear.</p> <p>P. 106 Suddenly Leaf-eater began to rock back and forth on the ground, shifting his hips from side to side as if he were trying to relieve an itch in his anus. Libo had speculated once that this was what performed the same function that laughter did for humans.</p>

### CULTURE AND SELF-REFERENCE CRITERION

“Culture” is a multifaceted construct and each of the major textbooks referenced above has its own peculiar definition of culture. In 1952, Kroeber and Kluckhohn reviewed 164 different definitions of culture (c.f., Usunier and Lee 2005, p. 4) and, needless to say, many definitions have been proposed since that time. For the purposes of this paper, Terpstra and David (1991, p. 6) provide a useful definition of culture:

Culture is a learned, shared, compelling, interrelated set of symbols whose meanings provide a set of orientations for members of a society. These orientations, taken together, provide solutions that all societies must solve if they are to remain viable.

Culture is *learned*, in that it must be passed from one generation to the next. People are not born with cultural knowledge. Culture is *shared*. To be meaningful, culture must be possessed and understood communally. Thus, when two people meet, if they do not share a common language and cultural assumptions, communication will be much more difficult. Culture is *compelling* in that it makes members of a society want to do what is culturally mandated. In the United States, people feel more or less compelled to stop at traffic lights when they are red, even if there is no police officer in sight and even if no one sees them stop. This is often not the case in Brazil (Usunier and Lee 2005, p. 74). Finally, culture is *interrelated*. Culture makes sense when various elements are combined together to produce a coherent whole. To truly understand what “hot” means, one must also understand “cold,” and thus grasp the entire *Gestalt*.

Culture, that set of learned, shared, compelling, and interrelated symbols, is largely unconscious. We tend to refer to our cultural upbringing automatically and without thought

when faced with problems to solve. We unconsciously assume that the knowledge, values, and experiences that help guide us in our own culture will also guide us in a new cultural context. In other words, we base our judgments on what Lee (1966) has called the self-reference criterion (SRC). This implicit assumption that others are like us is more often than not incorrect.

### **EXPLORING CULTURE WITH *SPEAKER FOR THE DEAD***

In *Speaker for the Dead*, the divergent meanings of life and death in human and pequenino culture are, perhaps, the best example of cultural difference, SRC, and cross-cultural misunderstanding. In the opening chapter, the piggy named Rooter and the human nicknamed Pipó, one of the anthropologists studying the piggies, are both killed in a particularly gruesome fashion. Rooter's death is described as follows (all passages from the novel are italicized):

*Rooter lay spread-eagled in the cleared dirt. He had been eviscerated, and not carelessly: Each organ had been cleanly separated, and the strands and filaments of his limbs had also been pulled out and spread in a symmetrical pattern on the drying soil. Everything still had some connection to the body—nothing had been completely severed...*

*"They didn't dishonor him," said Novinha. "If there's one thing that's certain, it's the love they have for trees. See?" Out of the center of his chest cavity, which was otherwise empty now, a very small seedling sprouted. "They planted a tree to mark his burial spot. (pp. 25-26.*

Whenever this paper refers to page numbers, they are from Card 1994, the author's revised, definitive mass market paperback edition of *Speaker for the Dead*.)

As the humans try to interpret Rooter's death, they speculate that he must have been in some sort of power struggle that went against him and was, therefore, executed by his tribe of piggies. They realize that the vivisection was too deft to be done by chance, so they conclude this was a form of ritual murder.

In that same opening chapter, Pipó makes some discovery that might influence relations between the humans and the piggies. He rushes off to the forest to discuss it with the piggies. When he does not return, his son Libo, also a xenologer (Card's word for an interstellar anthropologist), goes out looking for him.

*They found him all too soon. His body was already cooling in the snow. The pigges hadn't even planted a tree in him. (p. 30)*

Pipó has been executed in exactly the same manner as Rooter. Needless to say, the gruesome murder of a human by piggies causes ripples of concern throughout the community on

Lusitania and (since this is a science fiction novel) on other planets as well. The Bishop on Lusitania suggests that “the piggies were actually animals, without souls, and so his [Libo’s] father had been torn apart by wild beasts, not murdered.” (p. 43). Libo himself gives another interpretation of this tragic event:

*“We’ll not harm the pigges,” he said, “or even call it murder. We don’t know what Father did to provoke them. I’ll try to understand that later, what matters now is that whatever they did undoubtedly seemed right to them. We’re the strangers here, we must have violated some—taboo, some law—but Father was always prepared for this, he always knew it was a possibility. Tell them that he died with the honor of a soldier in the field, a pilot in his ship, he died doing his job.”* (p. 45).

Ender Wiggin, the protagonist of the novel, views a simulation of Pipo’s death and has this to say.

*“Your simulation—that was not torture.”*  
*“Oh?” Jane again showed the simulation of Pipo’s body just before the moment of his death. “Then I must not understand the word.”*  
*“Pipo might have felt it as torture, Jane, but if your simulation is accurate—and I know it is, Jane—then the piggies’ object was not pain...”*  
*“I can only trust my intuition, Jane, the judgment that comes without analysis. I don’t know what the pequeninos were doing, but it was purposeful, not malicious, not cruel. It was like doctors working to save a patient’s life, not torturers trying to take it.”* (p. 63)

Despite Pipo’s death, the human anthropologists, led by Libo, continue to study the piggies. Ironically, a few years later, Libo is also killed by the piggies, in the same manner as his father and Rooter. Throughout much of the novel, the language used to describe these gruesome deaths suggests, in Rooter’s case, the execution of a criminal or, in Pipo and Libo’s cases, torture and murder. For example,

*And Rooter, no less, the very one that got murdered. In other words, the male with the lowest prestige—an executed criminal, even—has been named a father!* (p. 109)

*Both xenologers murdered by the piggies, a generation apart.* (p. 88)

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*“You’re cultural supremacists to the core. You’ll perform your Questionable Activities to help out the poor little piggies, but there isn’t a chance in the world you’ll notice when they have something to teach you.”*

*“Like what!” demanded Ouanda. “Like how to murder their greatest benefactor, torture him to death after he saved the lives of dozens of their wives and children?” (p. 227)*

*“How can you say that after the way you murdered my father!” (p. 242).*

The definition of culture cited above can help explain the language used to describe the deaths of Rooter, Pipo, and Libo. Humans have *learned* that killing another person without apparent justification is murder. They have a *shared* understanding that ripping a body apart in this manner constitutes torture, a reprehensible form of extreme violence. In an *interrelated* analysis of the nature and use of violence, humans regard more limited violence (e.g., restraining someone who is dangerous) as sometimes legitimate but see the vivisection of a living person as being beyond the pale. Most humans feel culturally *compelled* to avoid both murder and torture. When they see that a piggy or human being has been killed by cutting him apart while still living, they are culturally (and perhaps constitutionally) conditioned to condemn the practice as “torture” or “murder.”

SRC is also an issue in the novel. As Pipo has stated, *“Anthropology is never an exact science; the observer never experiences the same culture as the participant”* (p. 32). This is an implicit recognition of the *emic* vs. *etic* perspectives in anthropological research. The *emic* perspective refers to the reality of the native informant, while the *etic* perspective is that of the observer of the culture, who is trying to interpret and analyze the behaviors of and information provided by native informants (Wallendorf and Brucks 1993). While it is generally accepted that the *etic* perspective of the stranger will never equal the *emic* perspective of the native, cultural understanding is assumed to occur when the stranger’s understanding has become, though still imperfect, sufficiently “thick” (Geertz 1973).

SRC is what prevents the xenologists from achieving the *emic* perspective in this case. As SRC suggests, the previous values, beliefs, and experiences of the observers lead them to conclude that, when a person is flayed alive, it must be torture and murder. They have no frame of reference within which to draw any other conclusion.

Andrew Wiggin delivers a keen insight into the human susceptibility to SRC at one point in the novel:

*“This is how human beings are: we question all of our beliefs, except for the ones we really believe, and those we never think to question.” (p. 236)*

But SRC afflicts the piggies as well. Neither the piggies nor the humans think to question their basic assumptions about life and death because each uses its own culture as a touchstone or index against which all alien behavior is measured.

It turns out, however, as the novel deftly unfolds its plot, that the piggies have a three-phase lifecycle. At the end of the second phase, if they are “killed” just so, with their organs carefully laid out in the proper pattern, they are transformed into a sentient tree. The piggy named Human describes the process as follows.

*“The first life is within the mothertree, where we never see the light and where we eat blindly the meat of our mother’s body and the sap of the mothertree. The second life is when we live in the shade of the forest, the half-light, running and walking and climbing, seeing and singing and talking, making with our hands. The third life is when we reach and drink from the sun, in the full light at last, never moving except in the wind; only to think, and on those certain days when the brothers drum on your trunk, to speak to them. Yes, that’s the third life.” (p. 340)*

Piggies who have achieved great honor can win passage to this highest form of third life and live as sentient trees, also known as “Father” trees. Their greatest rival or truest friend will give this honor to them. All other pigges pass into the third life as “brothers,” unthinking trees, when they die. So, at least from the piggy, or *emic*, perspective, Rooter, Pipo, and Libo were *not* tortured and murdered. They were honored by being granted passage to the highest form of “third life.” Eventually, one of the piggies named, ironically, Human, realizes that the human perspective on death and dying is completely different from his own.

*Ender remembered the picture he had first seen only two weeks ago, of Pipo dismembered and disemboweled, his body parts stretched and spread. Planted. “Human,” said Ender, “the worst crime that a human being can commit is murder. And one of the worst ways to do it is to take a living person and cut him and hurt him so badly that he dies.”*

*Again Human squatted for a while, trying to make sense of this. “Speaker,” he said at last, “my mind keeps seeing this two ways. If humans don’t have a third life, then planting is killing, forever. In our eyes, Libo and Pipo were keeping the honor to themselves, and leaving Mandachuva and Leaf-eater as you see them, to die without honor for their accomplishments. In our eyes, you humans came out of the fence to the hillside and tore them from the ground before their roots could grow. In our eyes, it was you who committed murder, when you carried Pipo and Libo away. But now I see it another way. Pipo and Libo wouldn’t take*



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*Mandachuva and Leaf-eater into the third life, because to them it would be murder. So they willingly allowed their own death, just so they wouldn't have to kill any of us."*

*"Yes," said Novinha. (p. 341)*

Only when both piggies and humans come to see death from the perspective of the other party do they truly begin to understand each other. Neither Pipo nor Libo were prepared to properly honor their beloved piggy friends because, with their incomplete understanding of the piggy lifecycle, they viewed the honor ritual as "murder." Nor were they able to appreciate the "honor" of receiving the "greatest gift" (p. 240), according to piggy cultural norms, that was given to them. Through ill-advised interventions that flowed from cross-cultural misunderstanding, the piggies needlessly slaughtered their two most beloved human friends, Pipo and Libo. And through equally ill-advised actions, the human beings rob two piggies, Mandachuva and Leaf-eater, of their rightful transitions to sentient third life, again because of a cross-cultural misunderstanding. Each race of beings inadvertently murdered those they most wanted to honor or save and ignorantly regarded as murderers those who were acting in the best interest of the victims, Pipo and Libo, Mandachuva and Leaf-eater.

### TEACHING LITERATURE IN A MARKETING COURSE

Having as it does the depth and complexity of well-written fiction, *Speaker for the Dead* can be used to explore many different dimensions of the effects of culture on human interactions (see Table 3 for a sample list of cultural topics to explore with the novel). Thus, this article focuses so far on culture and SRC as just two of the many global marketing issues that are illustrated by the novel. As mentioned previously, literature can be used as a "learning laboratory" (Kimball 2007, p. 64) that provides a vicarious experience for students in marketing courses. As a practical matter, teaching marketing with a novel such as *Speaker for the Dead* may require some adjustments in technique. The next section describes techniques that can facilitate teaching marketing courses with literature. And while all of the examples will focus on using *Speaker for the Dead* in an international/global marketing course, the same techniques could realistically apply to different works of literature used in other marketing courses. Indeed, the authors have successfully used these techniques to teach Michael Crichton's *Rising Sun* in an international marketing class and Tom Wolfe's *The Bonfire of the Vanities* in consumer/buyer behavior courses. These tips are also summarized in Table 4.

Prior to the semester, the professor should read the novel closely, perhaps more than once, to become familiar with the cultural content of the novel. As a practical matter, the authors reread the novel prior to the start of each semester, though that may not be necessary. As

mentioned previously, Table 3 contains a sampling of the many theories and examples of each theory contained in the novel.

**Table 4: Tips for Using Novels in a Marketing Course:**

The Example of *Speaker for the Dead* in a Global/International Marketing Course

*Prior to the Start of the Semester:*

Read the novel thoroughly, perhaps more than once, noting important and relevant topics.

Create reading quizzes or “quizlets” (Kimball 2007, p. 67) covering the assigned readings. Kimball (2007) suggests a single question quiz, scored as either a 10 or a 0, that asks questions that would be difficult or impossible to answer if someone was relying on online summaries or CliffsNotes.

*During the Semester:*

Give the option of earning extra credit for reading the prequel, *Ender’s Game*. Students must complete before starting *Speaker for the Dead*. Give extra credit quiz for *Ender’s Game* (see Table 6).

Cover the cultural content of the course early in the semester.

Assign readings from the novel *Speaker for the Dead* (see Table 5)

Give reading quizzes *before* discussing the text.

Provide overview of the anthropological method (see Table 7).

Discuss the novel over six class periods (in a course meeting twice per week) or nine class periods (in a course meeting three times per week). See Table 8 for some samples of passages from the novel and corresponding questions.

Assess student learning from the experience (see Table 9).

Table 5 shows a proposed syllabus in a 15 week marketing course that meets twice a week detailing the chapters assigned. Students are offered extra credit if they read the prequel, *Ender’s Game*, before beginning *Speaker for the Dead*, as it tends to increase the emotional impact of the novel. However, it is not necessary to read *Ender’s Game* prior to reading *Speaker for the Dead*. Since *Ender’s Game* is a popular novel, there are many plot summaries online. Table 6 contains several questions about *Ender’s Game* that can gauge whether a student has

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read the novel. Answers are not contained in any of two dozen or so plot summaries the authors found online and in CliffsNotes.

Prior to reading *Speaker for the Dead*, the professor should cover the relevant cultural theories that will be used throughout the course and exemplified in the novel. For example, in the text *Global Marketing* by Gillespie, Jeannet, and Hennessey (2007), the authors discuss culture and various forces that influence culture, including religion, family, education, attitudes towards time, Hofstede's measures of culture, language and communication (including body language and non-verbal communication), and culture shock. These cultural constructs would be discussed in depth before introducing the novel to the students and may be supplemented by other cultural concepts, such as Lee's (1966) self-reference criterion, that the textbook authors do not mention. Each textbook varies in what it covers so adjustments may be necessary depending on the text.

After the cultural content has been introduced, the students begin reading the novel. In-class discussions work better if the students have actually read the assigned chapters in the novel, so it may be wise to have a reading quiz or "quizlet" (Kimball 2007, p. 67) before each discussion session.

We normally devote 10 or 15 minutes to discussions about the novel, except for the first day. During that first class period, we begin by giving a brief overview of the anthropological method since the novel is suffused with anthropological thought. Specifically, we discuss the concepts of the *emic* versus the *etic* perspectives (Wallendorf and Brucks 1993; see Table 7). Usually, a substantial number of the students have taken an anthropology course as part of their general or liberal education requirements, and most are at least somewhat familiar with the anthropological method. Then we spend about 15 minutes discussing passages from the assigned chapters. See Table 8 for some examples of passages we read, questions we ask, and connections to cultural theories we make during a typical discussion period.

A benefit of using a novel to reinforce cultural theories is that students revisit the cultural constructs again and again as the semester progresses. Table 5 suggests completing the novel over six class periods, or roughly three weeks of the semester (this assumes the course meets two times per week). As the students read the novel and integrate these concepts with the passages studied, they have a heightened understanding of the uses and applications of the cultural theories. As these theories are brought up again and again in the context of reading the novels, they can also be freshly applied to the current textbook topics, since an understanding of culture undergirds much of what is taught in an international/global marketing course. And since they are brought up in the context of a very engaging and entertaining novel that is emotionally powerful (Rapaille 2006), student learning increases as a result of the technique.

Table 9 lists some potential short answer and essay exam questions that can be used to assess the reading of *Speaker for the Dead*.

<b>Table 5: Suggested Reading Schedule for a 15-Week Semester that Meets Twice per Week</b>	
Week	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> Activity
Week 1	
Course 1	Give the option of reading <i>Ender's Game</i> for extra credit
Course 2	
...	
Week 3	
Session 5	Begin teaching the cultural content of the course
Session 6	Finish teaching the cultural content of the course Give extra credit quiz for reading <i>Ender's Game</i> . See Table 6.
Week 4	
Session 7	Go over anthropological method (Table 7). <i>Speaker for the Dead</i> prologue, chapters 1-3.
Session 8	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> chapters 4-6
Week 5	
Session 9	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> chapters 7-10
Session 10	First Mid-Term Exam (which does not cover <i>Speaker for the Dead</i> , since they have not yet finished reading it)
Week 6	
Session 11	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> chapters 11-14
Session 12	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> chapters 15-16
Week 7	
Session 13	<i>Speaker for the Dead</i> chapters 17-18 (chapter 18 is the last chapter)
Session 14	Summarize the cultural content of <i>Speaker for the Dead</i>
...	
Week 10	
Session 20	Second Mid-Term Exam, which will cover <i>Speaker for the Dead</i> .

**Table 6: Sample Extra Credit Questions for Reading *Ender's Game***  
 These questions are not found in online or CliffsNotes plot summaries

Extra Credit, reading *Ender's Game*

To get extra credit for reading *Ender's Game*, you must answer the following questions in such a way that you convince me that you read the novel. (These details do not appear in online summaries we reviewed.)

1. The phrase, "The enemy's gate is down," appears in several places and is very important to the story. Tell me as much as you know about this phrase. Where in the novel was that phrase used? What does it mean? Who said it, when did they say it, and why?
2. Name or describe Ender's friends who were with him at the last battle. How did he know them? Tell me as much as you can about these people.
3. Who were the two people Ender killed? Describe the context for each killing.
4. What was the giant's drink? What is the significance of this to the book's plot?
5. The last chapter in the novel *Ender's Game* is titled "Speaker for the Dead." What was this chapter about? Describe what happens, who some of the important people are, and explain why it had the same title as the next book in the series.

**Table 7: Overview of the Anthropological Method**

Anthropological Method

Participant Observation

Researchers immerse themselves into a culture and try to "understand" what is going on

They try to see the cultural values shaping the experience under study

They try to gain the perspective of those being observed, describing culture using the words and phrases of the people they are studying

Perspectives on Understanding

Emic: the perspective of those being observed

Etic: the perspective of the researcher

Goal of Research:

achieve the "emic" perspective

understand the thoughts, feelings, emotions, and culture of those observed

Limitations:

It is impossible to experience culture as others experience it

We are only able to interpret...

... and there is always more than one interpretation

Table 8: Sample Passages, Sample Questions, and Related Theories other than Culture and SRC		
Passage from <i>Speaker for the Dead</i>	Sample Questions	Sample Cultural Theories
<p>“Lusitania’s climate and soil cried out a welcome to the oncoming plow, the excavator’s pick, the mason’s trowel. Bring me to life, it said.” (p. 367).</p>	<p>What does this passage tell us about the nature orientation of the Lusitanians?</p>	<p>Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961, pp. 11-12) value orientations. Nature orientation: subjugation to nature, harmony with nature, or mastery over nature?</p>
<p>“In truth she had no answer to give him, his words were so outrageous. She had called him <i>estrago</i>, but he answered as if she had called <i>herself</i> a desolation. And she had spoken to him derisively, using the insultingly familiar <i>tu</i> for “you” instead of <i>o Senhor</i> or even the informal <i>você</i>. It was the way one spoke to a child or a dog. And yet when he answered in the same voice, with the same familiarity, it was entirely different. “Thou art fertile ground, and I will plant a garden in thee.” It was the sort of thing a poet says to his mistress, or even a husband to his wife, and the <i>tu</i> was intimate, not arrogant.” (pp. 132-133)</p>	<p>How is language used in this instance?</p> <p>How is language usage in this passage different from the English you are familiar with?</p> <p>What type of message was the Speaker for the Dead sending to Novinha?</p>	<p>Slow vs. fast messages, high vs. low context (Hall and Hall 1989);</p> <p>Forms of address (Gillespie, Jeannet, and Hennessey 2007).</p>
<p>“But Miro and Ouanda were disciplined. They said nothing, did not even let their faces change from the relaxed, meaningless expression they had practiced for so many years. The art of noncommunication was the first one they had to learn before Libo would let either of them come with him. Until their faces showed nothing, until they did not even perspire visibly under emotional stress, no piggy would see them. As if it did any good—Human was too adroit at turning evasions into answers, gleaning facts from empty statements. Even their absolute stillness no doubt communicated their fear, but out of that circle there could be no escape. Everything communicated something (p. 200).</p>	<p>How does this passage demonstrate the concepts of face and high context communication?</p> <p>How does the act of practicing “noncommunication” actually communicate information? Give an example</p>	<p>Face, high context communication, non-verbal communication (Hall and Hall 1989)</p>

**Table 9: Short Answer and Essay Questions to Test Knowledge of *Speaker for the Dead***

Short Answers from *Speaker for the Dead*. Many can be answered with fewer than five words. The answers to these questions cannot be found in the various plot summaries.

What happened to the hive queen at the end of the novel?

Whose death was “spoken” by Ender? If you cannot remember this person’s name, describe who this person was.

Who is Valentine? When is Valentine’s last appearance in the novel?

Who are the Children of the Mind of Christ?

Who is Jane? By the end of the novel, who is her companion? (Again, if you cannot remember her companion’s name, describe the companion).

Who is the father of Novinha’s children?

Who is Ela? What is her job?

Why can Ouanda no longer be Miro’s girlfriend? What did Miro learn about Ouanda?

What did Ender and Starlooker sign in the forest? Hint: Olhado with his mechanical eyes recorded this event.

Which two people got married at the end of the novel?

Sample Essay Question:

Using at least TWO of the cultural theories we have examined in this class (e.g., culture, SRC, emic vs. etic, high vs. low context, fast vs. slow messages, value orientations, silent language, etc.), analyze the major misunderstandings in *Speaker for the Dead*. Use specific examples from the novel in your answer.

## STUDENT RESPONSE

As mentioned at the beginning of this article, vividly illustrating the importance of cultural differences in an international marketing course to students who have never been abroad is a difficult challenge. Culture is an integral part of most global/international marketing texts, and several strategies have been suggested to better help students understand key cultural issues (e.g., study abroad, experiential learning, using the Internet for cross cultural exercises, etc.; see Culpan 1990; Henthorne, Miler, and Hudson 2001; Li, Greenberg, and Nicholls 2007; Muñoz, Wood, and Cherrier 2006; and Punnett 2005). This paper suggests another technique, using the novel *Speaker for the Dead*, so that important concepts “come alive as a vicarious experience” (Kimball 2007, p. 64).

Student response to using this novel in the classroom has been quite positive. As their commercial success clearly indicates, *Ender's Game* and *Speaker for the Dead* are intrinsically enjoyable to read. Both books are emotionally powerful, and that attribute makes them pedagogically more effective since emotion is a key ingredient in the imprinting of learning (Rapaille 2006). Students have commented that they came to regard reading the novel more as a personal pleasure than as a homework assignment. Here is a typical unsolicited comment in the course evaluation: "The most important thing I learned was about cultural diversity and how we misinterpret different cultures. Excellent use of *Ender's Game* and *Speaker!*" and "I thought the Card novels were great and appropriate."

For three semesters prior to using *Speaker for the Dead*, course evaluations in Global Marketing averaged 3.99 per semester (where 1 is the lowest and 5 is the highest score). After using *Speaker for the Dead*, average course evaluations in Global Marketing across two semesters rose to 4.52. Grading can sometimes be used to explain high course evaluations, where instructors effectively buy higher evaluation scores through lenient grading policies (Krautmann and Sander 1999). But in this case, grades were *lower* in the two semesters that used the novel than in the previous three that did not, due to a downward adjustment to departmental grading norms in an effort to combat grade inflation.

Informal conversations with and unsolicited e-mail messages from students reflected high student satisfaction with the novels in the course. One student confessed to skipping a class because he was 100-pages away from finishing *Speaker for the Dead* and could not put it down. Another recommended several of his friends take this specific section of Global Marketing since it was so different from the "usual" business course. Not all students liked reading the novel, of course. One student complained that she did not read science fiction and took a zero on all test questions relating to the novel rather than read the book. But for the majority of students, the novel enhanced the teaching of the cultural concepts in the course.

To more systematically assess the pedagogical effectiveness of using *Speaker for the Dead*, students taking Global Marketing in the last semester of this study were asked to respond anonymously to a survey designed to measure their experience with the novel. Of the 67 students surveyed in two sections of the course, 58 indicated that they had read the novel, nine that they had not. Male students (seven out of 24 did not read) were significantly less likely to read the novel than female students (two out of 43) ( $\chi^2 = 7.96, p = .005$ ). In addition to indicating their sex and major, students indicated whether the novel had enhanced their understanding of cultural concepts (culture, face, SRC, language, cross cultural communication, non-verbal communication, fast/slow messages, high/low context, and high/low power distance), whether it had enhanced their enjoyment of the class, and whether it was appropriate for and should be retained in the course. All items were five point Likert scales anchored by strongly agree/strongly disagree, with results subsequently recoded so that five is the most favorable response. Composite scales were formed by combining the three questions measuring cultural



learning (Cronbach's Alpha = .86), the two questions measuring enhanced enjoyment (Alpha = .95), and the two questions measuring appropriateness for the course (Alpha = .88).

The mean rating for enhanced understanding of cultural concepts was 3.65 which, in a one-sample  $t$  – test, differed significantly from 3.00, the neutral response (neither agree nor disagree) ( $t = 6.18, p = .000$ ). The mean rating for enhanced enjoyment was 3.29 which differed from a neutral response at a .1 but not at a .05 alpha level ( $t = 1.88, p = .065$ ). The mean rating for retaining *Speaker for the Dead* in the course was 3.37 which differed significantly from the neutral response ( $t = 2.50, p = .015$ ). The male students who read the novel were marginally more likely than female students to say that it enhanced their understanding ( $t = 1.69, p = .096$ ) and to favor retaining the novel in the course ( $t = 1.84, p = .065$ ). There were forty four marketing majors, thirteen international business majors, and one “other” business major in the two sections of the course that were surveyed. There were no significant differences in the responses of marketing and international business majors to the understanding, enjoyment, and retention measures. Thus, it appears that *Speaker for the Dead* is suitable for teaching cultural concepts in both Marketing and International Business courses.

### LIMITATIONS

This article describes how the novel *Speaker for the Dead* by Orson Scott Card enhanced the teaching of cultural concepts in a global marketing course. It offers another option for responding to Kimball's (2007) call to increase the use of literature in marketing courses.

*Speaker for the Dead* may be viewed as a complex and vivid case study of the ways in which culture frames perceptions and behaviors when different peoples meet. Compared with other case studies, this novel is far more detailed, specific, and susceptible to a thick understanding of how various factors interrelate and interact. It is less preprogrammed to point to a particular conclusion and, in that respect, more reflective of the unstructured problems marketers often face in real life. However, unlike most cases, it does not pose any specific marketing strategy or analysis problems. Particular marketing applications must be supplied in other readings, in lectures, or in other teaching techniques such as those mentioned at the beginning of this article.

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# **DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AND INFLUENCES ON MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS' APPLIED PROJECT LEARNING OUTCOMES**

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## **ABSTRACT**

*Businesses expect better student career preparation during their college experience. At the same time, firms are hiring more female graduates. A teaching pedagogy to improve learning (knowledge and skills development) is applied projects, or active learning. This study examines the comparison between male and female students' project learning outcomes, and the significant influences on their learning. Particular differences and relationships with learning outcomes were identified that could improve better employment opportunities and professional careers.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

Employers continue to expect better prepared college graduates in their knowledge and skills (St. Clair & Tschirhart, 2002). While active learning has been mostly used in the social sciences and liberal arts (Zlotkowski, 1996), business schools are increasing the use of this pedagogy to meet employers' expectations for students' career preparation (Hamer, 2000). Experiential projects increases learning outcomes for not only content (knowledge) but also skill development, e.g., critical thinking, interpersonal communications (St. Clair & Tschirhart, 2002). Active learning, or experiential learning projects provide students an experience "to retain information for longer periods of time and apply information to new situations" (Hamer, 2000, p. 26), e.g., for future career employment.

Another employment trend continues to influence business education and its pedagogy – increasing number of female students. Businesses are hiring more women (Bradshaw, 2007) who are having successful careers, and are experiencing that firms with higher percentage of female managers have been more profitable during the 2008-2009 recession (Ferrary, 2009). As a result, business schools are actively recruiting and attracting more female students. However, business schools still lag behind other professional schools, e.g., law, medicine, in the percentage of female students (Ibeh, Carter, Poff, & Hamill, 2008). Females remain the gender minority in business schools. Furthermore, females have a different attitude toward learning and learning style (Gilligan, 1982/1993; Kaenzig, Hyatt, & Anderson, 2007). Therefore, there is a research

need to “investigate the relationship between student characteristics and the use of semistructured activities” (Hamer, 2000, p. 33) in business education, e.g., male/female students and applied learning projects. Hence, this study focuses on two areas, (1) Are there significant differences between male and female students applied project learning outcomes?, and (2) What are the influences on each gender’s learning?

### **APPLIED LEARNING LITERATURE**

Studies on gender specific learning outcomes do not indicate major differences between males and females (Hyde, 2005). However, minor gender specific learning differences have been found in certain fields. Logan and Johnston (2010) state that gender differences in reading attainment have been always in favor of girls. In mathematics area results are generally in favor of boys (Hanna, 2000). Males traditionally outperform females in science (Sanchez & Wiley, 2010). Khairulanuar, Nazre, Jamilah, Sairabanu and Norasikin (2010) in their experiential research show that the boys received a higher rating than the girls in understanding of geometry subject.

Some authors point to the cultural context and stereotypical labeling for specific differences in learning and pupils interest (Steele, 1997). Biology and language, for instance, are regarded as girls’ subject (Gardner, 1998). On the other hand, physics is considered boys subject and interest area (Gardner, 1998). Dar-Nimrod & Heine (2006) in their study state that the gender specific learning outcomes differences could be the result of reaction to the expected cultural stereotypical behavior.

There is not much research on the learning differences between males and females in hands-on applied experiential learning. Batz, Wittler and Wilde (2010) in a quasi-experiential study with a sample of 110 girls and 87 boys in fifth grade tested the gender specific learning differences in an extracurricular zoological garden experiment during a school excursion. Their results showed a higher degree of interest (motivation) and more knowledge gain for the girls than boys.

Business schools, particularly marketing discipline have been integrating applied experiential projects to their curricula in recent years to enhance learning outcomes of the programs. Titus and Petroschius (1993) discuss the beneficial impacts of adding an experiential project to an undergraduate consumer behavior course. Both students and instructor’s evaluations of the learning outcomes of the course and implications of the project reveal several benefits to students learning, including, hands-on experience, analytical skill in the market place, synthesizing theory and practice and relating marketing concepts to real world application, design and execution of a marketing project, and appreciation for marketing research.

Klink and Athaide (2004) indicate that assessment of learning and personal outcomes of the principle of marketing courses with a problem-based service learning project indicated positive outcomes. The authors describe adopting a voluntary problem-based service project for

a non-profits organization to the semester long principle of marketing course. Assessment of the students' project reports and a short questionnaire with semantic differential and open-ended questions indicated enhancement in students' perception of learning, implementation of concepts to real world problems, teamwork and communication skills, and social responsibility.

Geringer, Stratemeyer and Canton (2009) integrate a service project for a non-profit organization to thirty eight sections of marketing concept course. Geringer et al. (2009) state that the service project learning outcomes showed enhancement and development in students' academics knowledge, skills, attitudes, career development and civic responsibilities. Awareness, civic responsibilities and commitment to volunteering of students were impacted the most and career development was impacted to some degree (Geringer et al., 2009). Geringer et al. recommend further research on "how the diverse student populations perform in service learning assignment" (2009, p. 9).

Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp and Mayo (2000) use an exploratory comparative design to assess the learning outcomes of an integrated team-based experiential project. The authors describe integrating three courses of principles of marketing, personal selling and sales management with a common experiential project. The authors explain that a trade show organized and presented by the students applied to all three courses, but different classes have to develop different projects based on the trade show, such as a new business-to-business product and a marketing strategy, sales training video, and sales calls. A survey developed by the faculty members teaching the three courses (nine sections) used to assess the learning outcomes of the integrated experiential project. The authors state that the students' responses to the project were generally favorable, the class rivalry and peer pressure have motivational impacts and it was a more effective teaching and learning method.

Walsh (2002) explains how a SUNY College at Oneonta undergraduate student Marketing Club has successfully conducted a number of major marketing research projects and consulting services for the community private and public organizations. Walsh points out that the service-learning nature of the club has provided the students with the hands on application of the textbook theories. Most of their Marketing Club projects have been presented to the community organizations as written projects resulted in enhancing students' learning objectives. Students have also acquired valuable skills such as collaborative and creative processes, consulting, teamwork and communication, in addition to personal growth and self-esteem and motivation development. The Marketing Club and students have received various international awards and have won recognition as the American Marketing Association's Outstanding Chapter in the Eastern Region for two years. Walsh states the practical experience, success and recognitions have empowered the students in their future career placements and job market competition.

However, there has not been any study on differences and influences on male and female applied project learning outcomes. This paper aims to examine the gender specific learning outcomes of an applied project in seven sections of four marketing courses.

## APPLIED LEARNING PROJECTS

Lynn University is an independent, coeducational, residential institution with 2,410 students (2,032 undergraduate and 378 graduate), and has six colleges of which the College of Business and Management is the largest. Students are from 44 states and 81 nations. The University has a 16:1 student to faculty ratio and offers baccalaureate, master and doctoral degrees (Lynn University, 2009).

Lynn University and its College of Business and Management (CBM) have a mission to being “innovative, international, and individualized,” offering “applied learning” experiences and “providing timely career-based skills and knowledge” (Lynn University, 2008, p. 17). Since 2000, the College of Business and Management (CBM) has had a relationship with SCORE, a partner of the U.S. Small Business Administration, to provide “real world” learning opportunities for CBM students. During the Fall 2009 and Spring 2010 semesters, a highly successful businessperson in manufacturing who is a Counselor for SCORE provided the business projects for and worked with 116 traditional undergraduate students.

### Methodology

From the 2009-2010 academic year, seven sections for four marketing courses (Marketing Communications, Global Marketing, Marketing Research, Business Marketing Management) are included in this study. Both semester’s courses were structured exactly the same with the exception of different businesses for each semester. Examinations were approximately 30% of the course grade, 40% course project, and 30% other.

The first part of the semester was focused on the textbook (readings and examinations), and the last part was only related to the applications of the text (research and project development). While the same semester courses had the common team-based project concept, they had very different project assignments, e.g., integrated marketing communications plan (Marketing Communications), international marketing plan (Global Marketing), research proposal and a market research study (Marketing Research), business marketing plan (Business Marketing Management).

A total of 116 students participated during the academic year of which 69 were males and 47 were females. See Table 1. The vast majority was CBM students (94.8%), and only six students (5.2%) were from another academic unit (College of International Communications). The students tended to be juniors in academic level (62.4% of the males and 53.2% of the females). While there was a large representation of international students (39.7%), U.S. students were the majority (58.0% male and 63.8% female). Male students lived off-campus (82.6%) and female on-campus (53.2%). A slight majority of the male students (50.7%) had completed the University required internship but only 34.0% of the females had completed the internship. About seven out of ten male students (71.1%) did not belong or were associated with a



University organization, e.g., student government, fraternity or sorority, athletic team, but females did (68.1%).

**Table 1: Male and Female Students' Characteristics**

Student Characteristics	Male Students		Female Students		Total Students	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	69	59.5	47	40.5	116	100.0
Academic Major						
College of Business & Mgt.	68	98.6	42	89.4	110	94.8
College of Int'l. Comm.	1	1.4	5	10.6	6	5.2
Academic Year						
Freshman (29 or less credits)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sophomore (30 to 59 crs.)	3	4.3	4	8.5	7	6.0
Junior (60 to 89 credits)	43	62.4	25	53.2	68	58.7
Senior (90 or more credits)	23	33.3	18	38.3	41	35.3
Citizenship						
U.S.	40	58.0	30	63.8	70	60.3
Not U.S.	29	42.0	17	36.2	46	39.7
Residence						
On-Campus	12	17.4	25	53.2	37	31.9
Off-Campus	57	82.6	22	46.8	79	68.1
University Internship						
Yes	35	50.7	16	34.0	51	44.0
No	34	49.3	31	66.0	65	56.0
University Organizations						
None	49	71.1	15	31.9	64	55.2
One	14	20.3	11	23.4	25	21.6
Two	5	7.2	13	27.7	18	15.5
Three	1	1.4	1	2.1	2	1.7
Four of More	0	0.0	7	14.9	7	6.0

Students were given three surveys during each semester. First, at the beginning of the semester (pre-test) they provided demographic information (e.g., gender, citizenship), campus experiences (e.g., student activities), educational experiences (e.g., credits earned, internship completion), and their perception of examinations and applied projects with six 5-point Likert-type scale items. Second, another survey was completed before beginning the project (mid-term test) in which the six items (5-point Likert scale) were asked again. Third, at the end of the semester (post-test) the six items were asked but the verb tense was changed from future tense to past tense. See Table 2, Panel A for the post-test items. As shown in the table, these items were developed measuring students' applied project perceptions and experiences as (1) knowledge, (2) skills, (3) personal development, or (4) both knowledge and skills. Additional data were included

as to the teams' ranking of each member with no two students in the team having the same ranking and was used to compute individual student's applied project score. Furthermore, other data provided for the study were from the instructor or the University, e.g., examination and applied project scores, cumulative grade point average.

<b>Panel A: Student-Reported (Post-test)</b>			
Item	Male Students Mean	Female Students Mean	Mean Difference
Learned more about Marketing in this course than a Marketing course without a service (applied) learning project. ( <i>Knowledge</i> )	1.72	1.74	-0.02***
Developed better or new skills in this course than a Marketing course without a service (applied) learning project. ( <i>Skills</i> )	1.78	1.77	0.01***
Look forward to doing another service (applied) learning course project in the future. ( <i>Personal Development</i> )	2.12	2.13	-0.01***
Look forward to working in a team in the future. ( <i>Skills</i> )	2.16	2.53	-0.37**
Did better in this course that had <u>both</u> examinations and a service (applied) learning course project than without such as project. ( <i>Knowledge and Skills</i> )	2.06	2.17	-0.11
A service (applied) learning project has benefited me more in meeting my career goals than a course without such a project. ( <i>Knowledge and Skills</i> )	2.00	1.88	0.12
<b>Panel B: Instructor-Reported</b>			
Project grade	2.42	1.62	0.80*

Note: \* ( $p < 0.001$ ) and \*\* ( $p < 0.10$ ) indicate significant difference and \*\*\* ( $p > 0.70$ ) significant similarity.

## Results

For the purpose of this study, learning outcomes (dependent variable) are determined by two measures – the students and the instructor. In Table 2, Panel A, the male and female students' post-test results are compared using the t-Test method in which the items were measured by a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). Only one item, "Looking forward to working in a team in the future" (skills item) shows any significant difference (moderately at  $p < 0.10$ ). Males were much more willing than females in the future to work in a team. Three items (knowledge, skills, personal development) have similarities ( $p > 0.70$ ) between the two groups. Two learning items (knowledge and skills) show no differences or similarities. Moreover, in four of the six items male students were more favorable (lower mean scores) towards applied projects. However, for all items male and female students felt favorable (below 3.00, neither agree nor disagree) toward the applied learning experience. In Table 2,

Panel B the project grade results are significantly different ( $p < 0.001$ ) between the two groups in which female students achieved better scores (1 = A to 5 = F).

<b>Panel A: Male Students</b>					
$R^2 = .416$	Adjusted $R^2 = .389$		Std. Error = .59460	F = 15.425	Significant F = .000
Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	Standardized Coefficient	T	Significant T
(Constant)	.960	.443			
Mid-Term Response	.581	.124	.447	4.700	.000
U.S. Citizen	-.484	.146	-.317	-3.318	.001
Rank in Team	.400	.128	.298	3.129	.003
<b>Panel B: Female Students</b>					
$R^2 = .331$	Adjusted $R^2 = .300$		Std. Error = .48553	F = 10.871	Significant F = .000
Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	Standardized Coefficient	T	Significant T
(Constant)	.243	.355			
Mid-Term Response	.453	.116	.482	3.892	.000
Internship	.431	.150	.355	2.872	.006

Learning outcomes as the dependent variable includes the students' post-test results (self-report) and their applied project grades (instructor-report) with equal weight for each. To identify influences that lead to male and female applied project learning, multiple regression method was performed for each gender. In Table 3, Panel A male students' results are presented. The explained variance (adjusted  $R^2$ ) is 38.9%. Three variables are included in the model, and are significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). First, mid-term responses (total of six items) had a positive influence on learning, whereby learning outcomes were high when the students' favorable perception of the project was high. Second, being a U.S. student (1 = U.S. citizen, 2 = international student) had an inverse relationship, or an international student performed with better learning. Third, as expected, active and contributing team members, e.g., males, (1 = top rated student on the team) had a direct relationship with learning. In Table 3, Panel B female students' results are shown. The explained variance (adjusted  $R^2$ ) is 30.0%. Two variables are included in the female student model, and are significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). As in the male student model, females' applied project learning was positively related with their favorable mid-term responses. Having completed an internship also was positively related and significant to female students' learning.

In summary, this study has found significant differences in male and female students' applied project learning. Using comparative analysis (t-Test), male students experienced the perceived team assignment benefits of having greater value than females. Yet, females

performed better based on project grades. In the causal analysis (multiple regression), mid-term responses were significant predictors for both genders. However, being an international student and having a high rank in a team were important for male students' project success. Female students benefited from having an internship.

## DISCUSSION

The findings from the applied projects' learning outcomes study were very positive and revealing from the students' (males and females) and the instructor's perspectives. Students rated their positive learning experience as "agree" (above average, coded as 2), while the instructor evaluated their projects as above average (B, coded as 2.00). These results determined several different relationships for male and female students in their learning outcomes that merit further discussion.

First, for both genders their interest in applied project learning was critical (significant) to their learning success, as indicated in the mid-term survey response, and a significant factor in the regression analysis. The positive relationship between student learning outcomes and mid-term pre-test favorable perception of the project shows the impact of students' personal context motivation factor on learning outcomes (Batz, et al., 2010). Students need to be open-minded to different teaching-learning strategies, realize or understand the long-term benefits of applied projects, e.g., better learning and retention, career preparation, need for extra effort to not only understand content (textbook) but to anticipate its "real world" application. On the other hand, the instructor must make an additional effort to communicate, and even show these benefits to students. This just does not happen in the usual classroom situations. The instructor needs to place greater emphasis on integrating discussions of concepts and their applications during textbook readings and assignments. Furthermore, the projects' success also rests with the business partners. These businesspeople should be invited, encouraged to attend class sessions during the textbook learning period. While the professionals may not know all of the concepts and the students do not know the business, the instructor should "bridge" this situation, e.g., the concepts implications. Lastly, the instructor must "sell" the applied project, e.g., its importance to students' learning and to the success of the business, the students' learning and career development. Being positive and enthusiastic is contagious!

Second, male students post-test results show that they realized, or experienced more benefits (lower mean scores) in four of the six items in comparison to females but yet males got lower project scores. The only significant comparative factor was that male students looked forward to another team assignment. Parker (2010) shows that male-female and female-female pairs perform better in collaborative assignments than male-male pairs. On the other notes, studies on coeducational and mono gender classes show the impacts of socio-cultural stereotypical barriers and gender awareness of female students in coeducational classes (Batz, et al., 2010; Carroll, 2008). In mono gender classes or groups females have to step up to the platform

and take leadership role comparing to co-gender classes or teams where males are present (Carroll, 2008). The findings of working in teams and the male's team ranking may indicate the teamwork and group dynamics might have been male influenced. Research has found males being more individualistic and females being more collaborative (Gilligan, 1982/1993), and these applied project teams might have been with more male orientation. However, this may be an important factor and from the results of this study needs further, more in-depth investigation.

Being an international male student and having a higher peer-evaluated team ranking were significantly related to project learning. This result is similar to Parker's (2010) findings that the quality and grade of a collaborative project is positively related to the academically stronger student in the team of two students.

Third, the results for female students are interesting and revealing. The findings from the projects of (1) meeting female career goals (but not significant), (2) their higher project scores, and (3) the causal influence of having had an internship could indicate that female students gained better preparation for their careers than the males. Prior research has found female students to be more motivated in experiential learning and vocational training (Batz et al., 2010; Tanggaard, 2006). Simpson and Ituma (2009) state that in the MBA program with its masculine bias, women undergo more transformation and deeper level of learning than men. This could be the result of higher level of challenges and awareness that females obtain from a masculine program, or world (Simpson & Ituma, 2009). As compared to other professional schools, business has not implemented experiential learning as others have, e.g., law, medicine (Ibeh et al., 2008). Furthermore, businesses are hiring more women (Bradshaw, 2007) that attract more females as business students. Therefore, the implications of the results from this study may be that female students, as an increasing business demographic segment, are motivated, gaining from the learning experience, and advancing their professional development from applied learning projects more than other teaching-learning strategies might provide.

## CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to identify differences between genders and determine the influences on each gender's applied project learning outcomes. In the male-female comparisons, females did not look forward as much as males to working in a team in the future. While this is somewhat inconsistent with some research (Gilligan, 1982/1993), others (Kaenzig, et al., 2007) support it. Gilligan (1982/1993) found that men were individualistic, and females more caring and having greater connectiveness with others, indicating the personal interaction of teams. On the other hand, Kaenzig, et al. (2007) found similar results as this study that might have been the result of the females' role in and the group dynamics of the teams. In the regression models, the results show the importance of mid-term students' perception of the applied project learning, regardless of gender. The absence of this measure in the pre-test may be a result of not knowing, or fully understanding the learning experience (value). For males, being a highly productive

contributor to the team was recognized, and rewarded by (male and female) team members' ranking that influenced learning. On the other hand, female students benefited by having had an internship or another applied, "real world" experience that improved project learning.

This study has certain limitations. For example, it was at one university, with one instructor, and only undergraduate students. Future research is needed to examine such comparisons of and influences on male and female students applied learning outcomes in other academic areas, at different universities and with graduate students. Further research also is needed to better understand female students' needs and learning styles in applied projects, particularly team-based assignments to better prepare them for successful business careers.

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# COMMUNICATION PREFERENCES AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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## ABSTRACT

*University students and other members of the Net Generation are highly involved with using technology to communicate and stay connected with friends. Cell phones and smart phones are used for both sending text messages and talking, while online communication methods such as email, chat and social networking provide additional methods to keep in touch. Stories of people texting each other while sitting side by side are pervasive, suggesting that technology-mediated communication is preferred over all other methods. However, the modes of communication most preferred by students for social purposes are not necessarily those they prefer for school/work activities. In fact, once institutions and parents adopt a media popular with students, they often move on to new ways of interacting. This study examines the preferred communication methods for work/school and social purposes of university students in the United States and Norway. The results show that, despite the popularity of technology, these students expressed a preference for face to face communication over all other methods for both work/school and social communication.*

## INTRODUCTION

University students and other members of the Net Generation are highly involved with using technology to communicate and stay connected with friends. According to Rishi (2007, p. 7), “Contemporary students use a new and different model for communication and information access, one created by the Internet and fueled by mobile technology.”

Cell phones and smart phones are used for both sending text messages and talking, while online communication methods such as email, chat and social networking provide additional methods to keep in touch. Stories of people texting each other while sitting side by side are pervasive, suggesting that technology-mediated communication is preferred over all other methods. However, the modes of communication most preferred by students for social purposes are not necessarily those they prefer for school/work activities. In fact, once institutions and parents adopt a media popular with students, they often move on to new ways of interacting.

This study examines university students’ preferred communication methods for work/school and social purposes. The following section presents a brief background on student

use of media. The results of a survey asking students about their preferred communication methods are then analyzed.

## TECHNOLOGY AND COMMUNICATION

Students of the Net Generation take technology as a given; staying connected is a central part of their lives (Frاند, 2000). The “need for speed” is evident, as “a faster approach is often perceived as a better approach” (Johnson, Levine, Smith & Stone, 2010, p. 4). Data from a 2009 EDUCAUSE study showed that a little over half of students had internet-capable mobile devices and almost 12% reported that they planned to buy such a device within the next year (Smith, Salaway & Caruso, 2009). Regular cell phones were, of course, ubiquitous. Email, and presumably sms texts, show aspects of both oral and written communication pointing to a perceived convergence of these two basic types of communication (Crystal, 2001; Gruber, 2000; Lightfoot, 2006, Matthews, 2000). This concept is confirmed by a study on teens showing that email and sms texts are not viewed as writing (Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith & Macgill, 2008).

In a study conducted at the College of the Sequoias (Student Voice Forum, 2009), it was determined that slightly over 60% of students prefer to communicate using sms texting, almost 40% use the telephone, almost 30% use email, and about 10% prefer social networking, instant messaging or face to face methods. Of those who said that they do not use the college email system, 17% said they do not use email much for communication. The small proportion of students who named face to face as a preferred method is somewhat suspect, however, given that 58% stated that they would like to attend college social events where they can meet other students, meaning a face to face experience. The way in which the question was asked, or at least perceived, is clearly an important factor.

At the Ohio State University, students were asked how they would like the school to communicate with them about their accounts, academic schedules, etc. (Ohio State University Office of Student Life, 2010). Email was selected by 82% followed by the website (17.8%), with Twitter, sms, phone, and Facebook chosen by fewer than 10%. For general updates, 68.9% chose email and 33.7% chose the web, with the other modes of communication again being chosen by fewer than 10% of the students. Similar results were found in regard to events and activities except that Facebook increased to 14.3%.

These results differ significantly from those of the College of the Sequoias study. One reason for this may be that the Ohio State University study pertained to the school communicating with students, whereas the College of the Sequoias study was more general. This confirms the findings of an EDUCAUSE Center for Applied Research study (Rishi, 2007, p. 8) that suggests students prefer different communication methods for work/school and social purposes. Specifically, 85% of students in the EDUCAUSE study preferred email to the web, IM or paper when institutions communicate with them in an official way, but they enjoy less formal communication with peers.

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In the College of the Sequoias study, sms texting and telephone were the most preferred methods of communication, both of which involve the use of a mobile device (cell phone or smart phone). The Pew Internet and American Life Project (Lenhart, Ling, Campbell & Purcell, 2010) found that 95% of teens use sms text to say hello and chat, while 70% use it to manage school work. Calling (73%) was a little more popular for managing work than texting (70%) and used by a slightly smaller group (90% vs. 95%) for saying hello and chatting. The mobility of cell phones, which provides greater access to communication methods, was appreciated by 92% of teens because, as one teen reported, phones make it possible to “keep in touch no matter where I am” (Lenhart et al., 2010, p. 66).

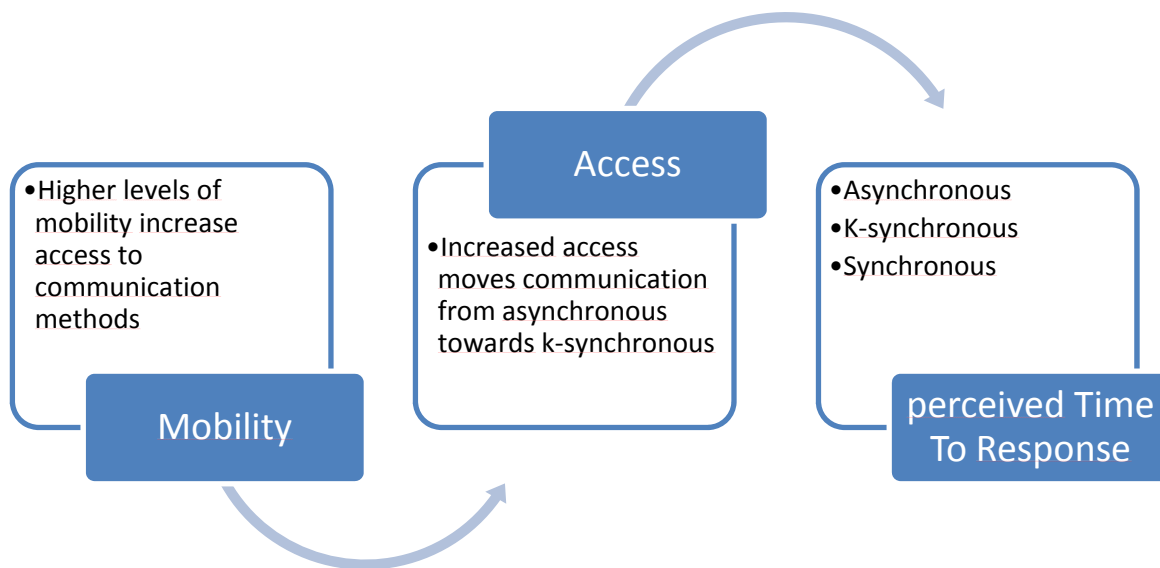
Keeping in touch regardless of location could be said to enhance one’s social presence, which is the perception of awareness of a communication partner (Short, Williams & Christie, 1976) or “the degree to which a person is perceived as ‘real’ in mediated communication” (Richardson & Swan, 2003, p. 70). Because the degree of social presence is based on personal perception, it is a subjective matter that can vary from person to person and from situation to situation, and can be influenced by immediacy (Baskin & Barker, 2004).

The MAT2R model (see Figure 1) depicts communication methods as being influenced by mobility, access and a form of immediacy deemed “perceived time to response” (Robinson, 2011). This model suggests that increased use of mobile devices such as smart phones lead to increased access to electronic modes of communication (such as sms texting and Facebook), which has in turn has begun to alter people’s perceptions of time to response (feedback) in communication. That is, the perceived time from sending a message until feedback is received is reduced, altering the perception of whether asynchronous or synchronous communication is occurring. Indeed, the expectations of time to response have also changed as students expect a text message to be answered quickly.

In the past, face to face and telephone conversations were the primary means for synchronous communication. Written communication methods such as email, online discussion boards, online postings, and “old-fashioned” writing on paper were viewed as asynchronous. However, with the advent and widespread adoption of mobile devices that allow people to be connected to their modes of communication almost constantly, the perception of asynchronous and synchronous communication has been altered. There is now a middle ground that “feels” like synchronous communication but is not technically synchronous communication in which the message is received at the same time it is sent. For example, two people might have a “conversation” via sms texting or email sent to a smart phone. Although a couple minutes may go by between the time a message is sent and receives a reply, the interaction may be perceived as a conversation even though it takes a certain amount of time to read the message and respond. This cannot be truly considered synchronous because the message is not sent and received simultaneously, but “feels” synchronous due to a low perceived time to response that allows a dialogue to occur rather than a series of monologues. This communication is “kind of” synchronous or, in Norwegian, “kan bli som” (can be as) synchronous and therefore is dubbed k-

synchronous (rhyming with asynchronous). How long the delay between messages can be before k-synchronous communication becomes asynchronous communication is up to the individual's perception of time to response. The perception of time to response is likely to depend on the situation. In some situations, a 5 minute lag may still feel k-synchronous, where as in other situations, a 2 minute lag may feel asynchronous (Robinson, 2011). In the same vein, students of today expect that text messages will be replied to quickly, meaning they have expectations for k-synchronous communication with mobile devices.

FIGURE 1: MAT2R Model



(Source, Robinson, 2011)

It should also be noted that because of the k-synchronous communication available through mobile devices, people can “micro-coordinate” their daily activities (Lenhart et al., 2010). It becomes less necessary to agree in advance on a time and place to meet. Essentially, people can use this technology to mediate their relationships in a more flexible and fluid way.

Students are accustomed to being connected to their social networks almost constantly. Several studies have examined the frequency with which young people use various media to communicate, although few (e.g. Ohio State University Office of Student Life, 2010) have specifically examined which modes of communication are most preferred in different situations. This study specifically examines the communication preferences of university students in regard to work/school and social communication.

## METHODOLOGY, RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This study examines the preferred communication methods of university students by using data collected in the fall of 2010. A total of 71 business students participated, including 30 students at a Norwegian college and 41 at an American public university. The participants included students from at least six different countries. Although participants were not asked their national origin, they were asked to indicate whether English was their native language. Analysis of the data using these variables showed that neither native language nor school was related to preferred communication methods.

The students were asked to complete a survey in which they ranked a list of communication methods (face to face, telephone, paper, email, online chat, sms texting, Facebook and “other”) according to their preference for using them, with 1 being the most preferred channel and 8 being the least preferred. Because “other” was the least preferred by the vast majority of students, this study focuses on the 7 other communication methods.

Given that people could have different preferences in different situations, participants ranked the same list of communication methods for two different purposes: work/school and social communication. The mean ranks were calculated and paired samples t tests were performed (see Table 1). Low means represent more preferred methods, and a negative difference in ranks represents a higher ranking for work/school compared to the ranking for social communication. Overall, there were both similarities and differences in preferences for communication based on these two purposes.

**Table 1 : Preferred Communication Method**

Method of communication	Work/school rank	Mean	Social communication rank	Mean	Difference in mean ranks	t	Sig.
Face to face	1	1.44	1	1.52	0.08	.630	.531
Email	2	3.18	6	4.63	1.45	6.010	.000
Telephone	3	3.73	2	3.44	0.29	-1.214	.229
Chat	4	4.66	5	4.17	0.49	-2.273	.000
Sms texting	5	4.85	3	3.48	1.37	-5.330	.026
Paper	6	4.99	7	4.63	0.36	4.865	.000
Facebook	7	5.11	4	4.14	0.97	-3.539	.000

Face to face communication, the most media rich of all communication methods, was clearly the most preferred method for both work/school (mean 1.44) and social communication (mean 1.52) with little difference (0.08) between the mean rankings for both purposes. The other method of synchronous communication, telephone, also ranked high on both lists (work/school mean 3.73; social communication mean 3.44; mean difference 0.29), suggesting that students

value the benefits of synchronous communication in which messages are sent and received simultaneously. No statistically significant difference was found in the mean rankings for these two methods of communication, despite the fact that telephone ranked a third for work/school use and second for social communication. It should be noted that the gap between the mean for the first and second ranked methods was 1.72 (1.44 – 3.18) for work/school and 1.92 (1.52 – 3.44) for social communication, suggesting that face to face was clearly preferred for both purposes. On the other hand, the difference between second and third place for social communication was only 0.04, which represents almost a tie between using a telephone for talking and for texting. For work/school, the difference between second (email) and third place (telephone) rankings was 0.55.

Significant differences were evident in the mean rankings for sms texting, email and Facebook when comparing work/school rankings with those for social communication. While sms texting was ranked high for social communication (third, but almost tied for second), it was fifth for work/school communication, with a difference of 1.37 between the mean rankings. In contrast, email ranked high (second) for work/school and very low (sixth) for social communication with a difference of 1.45 in the mean rankings. For social purposes, email is preferable only in comparison to paper, suggesting students view email similarly to paper in this respect. Email might be viewed more positively for work/school communication because of its practical use in sharing files necessary for completing assignments. Another possibility is that students prefer email because it allows students and instructors to communicate without infringing on communication methods more preferred for social purposes. This would be consistent with the Pew findings that teens like to use email for communication with institutions and adults (Lenhart, 2010).

Paper was unpopular for both uses, but especially for social communication as it received a mean rank of 6.06, which was 1.43 greater (lower) than sixth place email (mean 4.63). For work/school, sixth placed paper was viewed as preferable to Facebook, suggesting students have a strong aversion to using Facebook for work/school. Facebook ranked fourth for social communication (0.97 mean difference in rankings). This finding is consistent with the Ohio State University study (Ohio State University Office of Student Life, 2010). Although reasons for preferences were not included in this study, it is possible that students view Facebook (and other social networking sites) as a method they prefer to reserve for social purposes. Anecdotal evidence suggests that students like to reserve some methods for social communication and keep them “off limits” to other purposes.

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The overall results suggest that, except for the clear preference for face to face communication, students had somewhat different preferences in regard to communication for work/school and social purposes. Thus, these results generally confirm those of the study by

EDUCAUSE Center for Applied Research study (Rishi, 2007). The largest differences in mean rankings were evident in the comparison of email, sms texting and Facebook. In contrast, the first place ranking for face to face for both purposes (with a very small difference in rankings) is an important indicator that technology is not an end in itself and that technology-mediated communication is indeed prevalent and desirable, but not necessarily always the top choice.

This study examined the communication methods university students reported as their most preferred methods for work/school and social communication. By collecting data about the preferred method of communication, not just the methods used, and forcing a choice between methods in order to rank them, students had to choose one above another and could not simply indicate that they used the media. This provided the advantage of allowing a more precise analysis of preferences, rather than just uses.

It should be noted that a preference for a mode of communication and the frequency with which that mode is used are not necessarily the same. While students may prefer to communicate face to face, this is obviously not possible in the majority of situations. Few people are in a situation where they can communicate face to face with any given person at a particular time. Communicating with others who are not physically in the same space was a reason for the development of writing and telephones, and this desire to communicate is certainly not new or unique to the current generation.

Following the MAT2R model (Robinson, 2011) for analysis, the methods that were most preferred were those with the lowest perceived time to response. Face to face communication, the top ranked method for both work/school and social communication is the most media rich synchronous medium available. In contrast, asynchronous communication through paper was sixth for work/school and last for social communication.

The communication methods ranked in the middle (chat and sms texting) for both work/school and social communication are methods that are often k-synchronous. In fact, for social communication, there was a veritable tie between second and third ranked telephone and text, both of which utilize mobile devices. Because students almost always have their phones with them, it is likely they view sms texts as k-synchronous communication. For social communication, these two methods are in close ranks with Facebook, which can also be k-synchronous, especially when a person has increased access through a mobile device with a Facebook app. Therefore, the rankings for social communication tend to follow the continuum from synchronous to k-synchronous to asynchronous communication methods. This would appear to be a logical result given students' desires to be connected to others, and shows they are adept in using technology to mediate their communication with others. As advances in mobile devices such as smart phones become even more widespread (Smith et al., 2009), this trend is likely to continue. In fact, email may see a resurgence because smart phones are capable of offering the same k-synchronous benefits as sms texting, but can also easily handle larger messages and attached files. Following the MAT2R model (Robinson, 2011), increased mobility would increase access, which would lead to decreased time to response.

In contrast to the preferred methods for social communication, the preferred communication methods for work/school purposes showed more of a blend of synchronous, k-synchronous and asynchronous methods. In working together on projects, students apparently find face to face interaction to be the best method of communication. Students working physically together in groups can talk, look at documents together, etc. Via email, they can send each other documents on which they are working and they can receive messages from teachers without imposing on social communication methods such as Facebook that they want to maintain as a social channel. Talking on the telephone provides a synchronous method of communication, while chat and sms texting can provide k-synchronous methods. Even when asynchronous, rather than k-synchronous, chat and sms texting are likely to receive faster replies than communication via paper. These findings suggest the MAT2R model (Robinson, 2001) is a better descriptor of social communication than of work/school communication.

The practical implications of this research for institutions and instructors include the suggestion that their communication channels need to suit the needs and wishes of their students and potential students. This does not, however, mean using the same communication methods that students use for social communication. As Ohio State University (Ohio State University Office of Student Life, 2010) discovered, students preferred email and web communication by a high margin for official communication. Facebook only increased to 14.3% (from less than 10%) when the communication was in regard to events and activities, which is a category easily fitting under the category of social communication. While Facebook groups have become very popular among universities as they attempt to reach members of the Net Generation, this tactic may backfire if students and potential students see this as an intrusion.

Given the rate of change in technology and the increasing use of mobile devices, frequent periodic research will be necessary to assess this moving target of student preferences for communication methods. Such research would also be valuable for the development of activities that could be used inside and outside the classroom to increase student engagement. Future research should also further examine the reasons for communication method choices and the effect of perceived time to response on student interaction.

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# CAN A BUSINESS ETHICS COURSE AFFECT ACADEMIC DISHONESTY?

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## ABSTRACT

*Academic dishonesty is a concern of both instructors, who must deal with the unethical behavior, and business practitioners, who feel this unethical behavior leads to unethical professional behavior as these students graduate and enter the workforce. Many in both groups believe that student behavior can be modified, corrected, or shaped so that unethical behavior is reduced, both in the classroom and after graduation. The purpose of this study is to assess the effects of a business ethics course on students' level of academic dishonesty. The effects are assessed by a pretest and posttest of multiple sections of an environment of business course with an ethics component. Several hypotheses are proposed based on several types of academic dishonesty. New measurement scales were developed based on previous work in the area. The results revealed a decrease in academic dishonesty during the course in one of the five factors analyzed. Conclusions, limitations, and future research directions are discussed and interesting questions are raised regarding the business school curriculum and how it is addressing ethics.*

## INTRODUCTION

Academic dishonesty is regarded as unfair and unethical by most academicians and those students who do not engage in it. In the short term, academicians can be frustrated and honest students can legitimately feel that they are at a disadvantage as a result of academic dishonesty.

Academicians are concerned with the problem of academic dishonesty and the rate at which it is increasing (Park, 2003; Pullin et al., 2000; Williams & Hosek, 2003). Brown and McInerney (2008) found that there were significant differences between 1999 and 2006 for seven of the 16 unethical behaviors examined in their study. All seven differences were increases, with a mean increase of 19.2%. Furthermore, business students are consistently ranked as students most likely to cheat, possibly due to the adoption of a "bottom line" mentality that the ends (better grades) justifies the means (cheating) (Riley, 2004). Choong and Brown (2007) state that this phenomenon is just one component of a broader, "culture of cheating," that includes not only students but also school administrators and teachers who have inflated students' test scores and have manipulated statistical data. Moreover, this culture extends from dishonest practices by businesspersons and politicians to inaccurate and misleading reporting by members of the media.

Academic dishonesty or cheating may be described as "a conscious effort to use proscribed data and/or resources on exams or written work submitted for academic credit"

(Sierra & Hyman, 2008, p. 51). Similarly, academic dishonesty or cheating has been defined as behavior that breaches, “the submission of work for assessment that has been produced legitimately by the student who will be awarded the grade, and which demonstrates the student’s knowledge and understanding of the context or processes being assessed” (Lambert et al., 2003, p. 98). Alternatively, it “refers to any instance in which a student claims credit for the work or efforts of another without authorization or citation” (Becker et al., 2006, p. 37). Anitsal et al. (2009) identified two types of academic dishonesty, active and passive, and state that research has been largely focused on active academic dishonesty, which includes behaviors to raise one’s own grade. Passive academic dishonesty includes behaviors to assist another student (Finn & Frone, 2004). Anitsal et al. (2009) concluded that both constructs are of equal importance in the intention to cheat.

Academic dishonesty involves deceptively violating rules in order to gain something of value and personal advantage (Bloodgood et al., 2008). It has been characterized as a type of fraud (Becker et al., 2006). This issue is critical for universities as it seems to mirror the growing concerns of ethical problems in the business community (Chapman et al., 2004; Kidwell et al., 2003). If professors hope to improve the ethical behavior of students as future business people, they need to first address the ethical behavior that occurs in their classroom, i.e., academic dishonesty. “What kind of expectation for ethical behavior is communicated when professors ignore cheating?” (Copeland, 2005, p. 43).

### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

Many colleges and universities have incorporated ethics courses and/or courses with an ethics component into the business school curriculum. The ethics material usually focuses on ethical issues in the marketplace, often in the form of case studies. The rationale of this effort is to improve the ethical behavior of business students before they graduate and enter the workforce.

Given that students’ ethics in the classroom impacts their ethics as business professionals (Brown & Choong, 2005; Klein et al., 2007), it is vital that business professors gain a clearer understanding of these issues so they can better address the problem. This study focuses on essentially two important questions that are targeted toward business schools that incorporate ethics in their programs: Can business ethics be taught (Sims, 2002)? If so, will students apply business ethics to their own ethical behavior? This paper attempts to address these questions by noting any changes in the level of academic dishonesty by students who have taken a business course with a prominent ethics component. If significant changes in students’ level of academic dishonesty can be noted at the end of this course, then there is support for the notion that not only can business ethics be taught, but also students can apply business ethics to their own ethical behavior.

The study begins with a brief discussion of some of the salient issues surrounding academic dishonesty. It continues by posing relevant hypotheses, developing scales to measure some of the various facets of academic dishonesty, and then testing these measures in a pretest-posttest study of students who have taken a required business core course with an ethics component.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Reasons students engage in academic dishonesty

Williams and Hosek (2003) stress that students, even dishonest ones, are rational and that the decision to cheat is a conscious decision that the benefits of cheating outweigh the risks. “Causal factors run the gamut from large classes, impersonal relationships with professors, competition for jobs, gaining higher GPAs in order to enter graduate school, to a culture that appears to accept cheating readily as a normal part of life” (Pullin et al., 2000, p. 616). The literature offers the following additional reasons for why students cheat: a lack of understanding of what is plagiarism, efficiency gain, time management problems, a lack of personal values, defiance/lack of respect for authority, negative attitudes towards teacher/class, temptation/opportunity, a lack of deterrence (Park, 2003), and a personal crisis (Lambert et al., 2003). Students reported that they felt an increasing pressure to get good grades and that cheating was a legitimate strategy to meet this challenge (Klein et al., 2007). Bolin (2004) showed that students’ attitudes toward academic dishonesty had the biggest impact on it.

Finally, Chapman et al. (2004) state that there is a robust false consensus effect in that students significantly overestimate the degree to which others cheat so they perceive cheating as a normative behavior and believe their own behavior is more honest than their peers. Anitsal et al. (2009) conclude that, if academic dishonesty remains a gray area for students, then group dynamics will continue to support a norm of cheating, which encourages, and even pressures, students to cheat. Broeckelman-Post (2008) concurs that the most prominent factor for students in their decision to cheat is whether they believe their peers are engaging in cheating. Chiesl (2007) notes that cheating has become both more common and more socially acceptable.

### The relationship between academic ethics and business ethics

There is concern that if students see academic dishonesty as a normative behavior, they will also view unethical business behavior as normative behavior (Mangan, 2006). That is, if they think everyone else is cheating, they will be more likely to cheat and when they get into the business world, if they feel cheating is commonplace and acceptable, they may also engage in unethical business practices (Mangan, 2006). Karassavidou & Glaveli (2006) found that academic dishonesty is positively related to students’ attitudes towards unethical managers’

business behavior. This suggests that the impact of academic dishonesty extends beyond the classroom.

Wimalasiri (2000) found that students and practitioners demonstrated similar levels of sensitivity to ethical issues. Singhapakdi and Marta (2005) found mixed results in comparing marketing students with practitioners. They found students to be more relativistic as well as more idealistic than practitioners (Singhapakdi & Marta, 2005). Additionally, students were less likely to perceive the moral intensity of issues (i.e., see a lower degree of harm from unethical behavior) and have less ethical intentions than practitioners; but there was no significant difference regarding the students' and practitioners' perceived importance of ethics (Singhapakdi & Marta, 2005).

### **The identification of academic dishonesty**

These results suggest concern over the ethical levels of students. Based on the notion that cheating is academic fraud, Becker et al. (2006) developed a model similar to the fraud triangle model in business with three components, the incentive to cheat (e.g., to get better grades), the opportunity to cheat (e.g., faculty do not deter cheating), and the ability to rationalize cheating (e.g., penalties are not severe so faculty don't care about cheating). They found that each of the three elements is a predictive factor in academic dishonesty. Although it was concluded that reducing the incentive to cheat would be difficult since it often comes from external pressures, reducing the opportunities for cheating may be more easily addressed. Those in academia who do not attempt to deter academic dishonesty may be fostering an environment that invites dishonest behavior. Defining academic dishonesty in the course syllabus is a way to begin to address this.

### **Teaching ethics**

Teaching ethics in the classroom has been discussed often in the literature (see Alsop, 2003; Copeland, 2005; Klein et al., 2007; Rawwas et al., 2004; Sims, 2002; Singhapakdi, 2004). The topic has more recently been in the forefront as a result of the highly publicized business ethics scandals: Enron, Arthur Andersen, and WorldCom (Alsop, 2003; Copeland, 2005; Singhapakdi, 2004; Smyth et al., 2009). Additionally, the major accreditation body of business schools, The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), requires that ethics be incorporated into business curricula (Bloodgood et al., 2008; Chapman et al., 2004; Singhapakdi, 2004). Yet, academic dishonesty persists, even at some of the best universities (Embleton & Helfer, 2007; Rawe, 2007). Central to this discussion is the debate whether business schools can or should influence the ethical behavior of their students. The argument ranges from the point that one's moral compass is already well-developed upon entering college and will change little, to the notion that people can change throughout their lives, perhaps even in

retirement (Copeland, 2005). A study by Brown and Choong (2005) found that even though there was greater emphasis on ethics and values at a Catholic university versus a public university, there were no significant differences in academic dishonesty between student groups. Moreover, corporate recruiters are cautious in stating that business schools can teach ethics, however, they believe schools can provide guidance in making ethical choices. In other words, the ability to teach ethics may be questionable, but, at the very least, schools can teach the ramifications that result from unethical business practices (Alsop, 2003).

Furthermore, Bloodgood et al. (2008) note that various types of training and interventions can increase moral reasoning for some individuals. Advanced moral reasoners are less likely to focus on their own self-interest and instead accentuate “fairness” and the “greater good.” More specifically, university courses in business ethics may improve ethical understanding and attitudes. However, there is no guarantee that learning about ethics will affect individual behavior, regardless of the approach.

There is no consensus on how to embed ethics into the business curriculum. Some academics feel it is best to sprinkle ethics throughout the disciplines, others support courses dedicated specifically to ethics (Alsop, 2003; Copeland, 2005; Singhapakdi, 2004). Adopting both options is probably the best approach. Likewise, there has been significant discussion over the use of codes of conduct, both on the professional level as well as honor codes (for example, see Alsop, 2003; Chapman et al., 2004; Park, 2003; Sirgy et al., 2006; Taylor, 2003; Williams & Hosek, 2003).

### **Components of academic dishonesty**

Addressing academic dishonesty is especially challenging, since it is viewed as a multidimensional construct (Anitsal et al., 2009; Choong & Brown, 2007; Ferrari, 2005; Rawwas et al., 2004; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000; Sierra & Hyman, 2008) that takes into account a wide range of unethical behaviors including cheating, e.g. on exams (Ferrari, 2005), plagiarism, e.g. on papers (Ferrari, 2005), the misuse of technology (Scanlon, 2004), as well as additional practices to gain an unfair advantage (Rawwas et al., 2004; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000), such as the use of outside help. As a result of addressing the measurement of academic dishonesty and its multiple factors, business professors can gain a better understanding of the issue of academic dishonesty and what impacts it.

There is no consensus in the identification of factors for the academic dishonesty construct. Roig and DeTommaso’s (1995) Academic Practices Survey is a two-factor scale made up of “plagiarism” that deals with written assignments and “cheating” that deals with tests (Ferrari, 2005). Rawwas et al. (2004), in building on the work of Rawwas and Isakson (2000), devised four factors for academic dishonesty: “receiving and abetting academic dishonesty” (items universally perceived as unethical and initiated by the student), “obtaining an unfair advantage” (items in which students take advantage of a situation not of their creation),

“fabricating information” (items that may not be clearly perceived as unethical) and “ignoring prevalent practices” (items that students may view as permissible and ethical). Choong and Brown (2007) found four dimensions of cheating: Flagrant Cheating, Insidious Cheating, Collusion, and Illicit Collaboration. In their study of the joint effect of personal moral philosophy and perceived moral intensity components on students’ cheating intentions, Sierra and Hyman (2008) named four factors: Personal Moral Philosophy of Idealism, Personal Moral Philosophy of Relativism, Magnitude of Consequences, and Willingness to Cheat. Anitsal et al. (2009) conducted research to determine whether students perceive passive and active academic dishonesty as two separate constructs.

The most recent element associated with academic dishonesty is the role of technology. While the web is a resource for both students and faculty, some are concerned that this generation of students may have a different idea of what is considered ‘fair use’ (Scanlon, 2004). The web could be increasing the problem of plagiarism; a quarter of college students surveyed have plagiarized from the Internet, but students perceive that significantly more students than that are doing so (Scanlon, 2004). Additionally, while term paper mills have existed for years, the ease of getting papers has increased with various web sites (e.g., buypapers.com) (Born, 2003; Park, 2003). The concern is that if students perceive that Internet cheating is commonplace, they will be more likely to engage in it (Scanlon, 2004). Thus, consideration of academic dishonesty must include the technological elements that can impact it. Eastman et al. (2008) included a two-item scale, “Electronic Cheating,” in their four-factor study of the impact of unethical reasoning on different types of academic dishonesty.

## HYPOTHESES

The literature review revealed several major issues involving academic dishonesty. First, “Research shows a correlation between academic dishonesty and moral development” (Rawwas et al., 2004, p. 89). Because of its ethical ramifications, which may later manifest themselves in business ethics, academic dishonesty is a concern in both academic and practitioner settings. Copeland (2005) emphasizes the urgency of the situation when stating that society, “is facing an ethical breakdown of crisis proportions” (p. 36). Second, business curricula should therefore address the ethical issue of academic dishonesty. Business school academicians have been challenged with molding their students into ethically responsible graduates. Third, academic dishonesty is a multi-dimensional construct. Due to its complexity, scale development is very important when attempting to measure this construct.

Several hypotheses were designed based on four major categories of academic dishonesty, i.e., exam cheating (Kidwell et al., 2003; Ferrari, 2005), illicit collaboration (Choong & Brown, 2007), slacker behavior (Rawwas et al., 2004; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000), and plagiarism (Ferrari, 2005). The last hypothesis focuses on the reasons for unethical behavior (Bolin, 2004; Klein et al., 2007; Lambert et al., 2003; Park, 2003; Pullin et al., 2000; Williams &



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Hosek, 2003). Thus, it is hypothesized that, as students become more sensitive to ethical behavior, their reported levels of academic dishonesty will decrease:

- H<sub>1</sub>: Students will report a lower level of exam cheating after completing a core business curriculum course with an ethics component.*
- H<sub>2</sub>: Students will report a lower level of illicit collaboration after completing a core business curriculum course with an ethics component.*
- H<sub>3</sub>: Students will report a lower level of slacker behavior after completing a core business curriculum course with an ethics component.*
- H<sub>4</sub>: Students will report a lower level of plagiarism after completing a core business curriculum course with an ethics component.*
- H<sub>5</sub>: Students will report a lower level of reasons for unethical behavior after completing a core business curriculum course with an ethics component.*

## METHODOLOGY

### Sample and procedure

A pretest-posttest study was designed to assess any change in students' perceived level of academic dishonesty as the result of a core course requirement for business administration majors at a medium-size southeastern university. The course catalog states that the course, entitled "The Environment of Business," includes topics that "focus on the conflicting rights and duties of individuals, organizations, and other factions in a domestic and global society that lead to the development of ethical awareness, social responsibility, and law." Furthermore, this course was designed to educate students in terms of business ethics issues, which intuitively may increase their sensitivity toward ethical business issues and in turn result in a lower level of their own unethical behavior, particularly, academic dishonesty.

The questionnaire was designed to allow students to assess their level of academic dishonesty. It consisted of several sections: academic dishonesty activities, demographics, and reasons to engage in unethical behavior. The questionnaire was administered at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester to the same five sections of this course in order to observe any change during the semester in student perception of their levels of academic dishonesty.

There were 202 usable questionnaires in the pretest group and 148 usable questionnaires in the posttest group. Fewer questionnaires were completed in the posttest group due to attrition

during the semester. All students present for the days the questionnaire was administered for the pretest and posttest completed the instrument. It was not possible to remove respondents from the pretest who did not participate in the posttest in order to assure students anonymity of their responses and to minimize respondent bias that this was a pretest-posttest study. Approximately 51 percent of the pretest respondents were males (51 percent posttest) and 18 percent (20 percent posttest) belonged to a fraternity or sorority. Fifty-six percent of the pretest group (60 percent posttest) were upperclassmen (i.e., junior or senior status) and 42 percent of the pretest group (45 percent posttest) were not employed, whereas 25 percent pretest (23 percent posttest) respondents worked between 10 and 20 hours per week. Majors in the pretest group were dominated by marketing (19 percent), accounting (12 percent), and management (10 percent), whereas majors in the posttest group were dominated by management (26 percent), accounting (17 percent), and marketing (13 percent). The mean GPA of pretest respondents was 2.98 (3.06 posttest) and the average age was 20.6 years for the pretest group (21.2 posttest).

### **Scale development: study items**

The final item pool for Academic Dishonesty contained twenty-one items noted frequently in the literature to reflect academic dishonesty. The majority of these items came from McCabe and Trevino's (1993) academic dishonesty scale. Fifteen items were similar to that used by Brown (1996; 2000) and Kidwell et al. (2003). Three additional items addressed changes in technology: using a cell phone to text message for help during an exam, using a cell phone or another device to photograph an exam, and purchasing or finding a paper on the Internet to submit as one's own work (Eastman et al., 2008). The measure of academic dishonesty was scaled on a five-point scale (never, once, few times, several times, and many times).

Responses to these twenty-one attitude statements were factor analyzed using the principal axis extraction method. The solution was followed by a varimax rotation because it was assumed a priori that some of the attitudes might be correlated (see Ford et al., 1986; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted. The items, "Have information programmed into a calculator during an exam" and "Have someone check over a paper before turning it in," were deleted due to cross-loadings, resulting in nineteen items. Thirteen of the nineteen items are similar to those used by Brown and McInerney (2008) in their longitudinal study of sixteen unethical practices. The rotated component matrix, showing the items and their factor loadings, appears in Table 1. The four factors were reflected in the following four dimensions: (i) Exam Cheating (made up of seven items), (ii) Illicit Collaboration or Unapproved Outside Help (made up of five items), (iii) Slacker Behavior or Free Rider Behavior (made up of six items), and (iv) Plagiarism (made up of two items).

**Table 1: Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Items	Factors			
	Exam Cheating	Illicit Collaboration	Slacker Behavior	Plagiarism
Used crib notes on a test.	0.46	0.42	0.27	0.04
Copied from another student on the test.	0.58	0.49	0.16	0.12
Helped someone cheat on a test.	0.68	0.45	0.08	0.19
Manually passed answers in an exam.	0.72	0.18	0.41	0.06
Used a cell phone to text message for help during exam.	0.70	0.10	0.10	0.03
Used a cell phone or another device to photo an exam.	0.64	-0.10	0.15	0.01
Cheated on a test in any other way.	0.61	0.44	0.14	0.20
Asked someone about the content of an exam from someone who has taken it.	0.17	0.77	-0.13	-0.02
Give information about the content of an exam to someone who has not yet taken it.	0.16	0.79	-0.11	0.09
Worked with others on an individual project.	0.03	0.65	0.34	-0.01
Collaborated on an assignment when the instructor asked for individual work.	0.07	0.55	0.41	0.25
Taken credit for full participation in a group project without doing a fair share of the work.	0.43	0.02	0.48	0.11
Visited a professor to influence a grade.	-0.01	0.22	0.55	0.02
Turned in work done by someone else.	0.47	0.06	0.56	0.03
Received substantial, unprecedented help on an assignment.	0.37	0.33	0.43	0.21
Used a false excuse to delay an exam or a paper.	0.44	0.07	0.48	0.48
Purchased or found a paper off the Internet to submit as your own work.	0.23	-0.13	0.61	0.60
Copied a few sentences of material from a published source without footnoting it.	-0.05	0.19	0.04	0.84
Fabricated or falsified a bibliography.	0.26	0.02	0.29	0.61
Eigenvalue	6.68	2.14	1.30	1.15
Percent of variance	31.82	10.21	6.21	5.51

The resulting Exam Cheating Scale was made up of seven items utilized in previous studies (McCabe & Trevino, 1993; 1997; Brown, 1995; 2000) and two of the three items mentioned earlier to reflect the increase use of technology, i.e., “Used a cell phone to text message for help during an exam” and “Used a cell phone or another device to photograph an exam.” The Illicit Collaboration Scale was made up of four items, three of which were utilized by Brown (1995; 2000). The six-item Slacker Behavior Scale included three items that were utilized by McCabe and Trevino (1993; 1997), one item from Brown (1995; 2000), and one item from McCabe and Trevino (1993; 1997) that was updated to include the Internet, “Purchased or found a paper off the Internet to submit as your own work” (Eastman et al., 2008) rather than “Copying material and turning it in as your own work” (McCabe & Trevino, 1997, p. 386). Finally, the Plagiarism Scale was made up of two items from McCabe and Trevino (1993; 1997).

Internal consistency was evaluated by computing coefficient alpha. These values (see Table 2) were at least the 0.70 value recommended by Nunnally and Berstein (1994), with the exception of the pretest sample for the Slacker Behavior factor, which was 0.66. The correlation of the two-item Plagiarism Scale was 0.42 for the pretest sample, 0.59 for the posttest sample, and 0.53 for the total sample.

<b>Table 2: Reliability Estimates of the Factors</b>			
Items	Pretest Sample	Posttest Sample	Total Sample
<b>Exam Cheating</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.86</b>
Used crib notes on a test. (EC1)			
Copied from another student on the test. (EC2)			
Helped someone cheat on a test. (EC3)			
Manually passed answers in an exam. (EC4)			
Used a cell phone to text message for help during an exam. (EC5)			
Used a cell phone or another device to photograph an exam. (EC6)			
Cheated on a test in any other way. (EC7)			
<b>Illicit Collaboration</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.76</b>
Asked about content of an exam from someone who has taken it. (OH2)			
Give information about an exam to someone who has not yet taken it. (OH3)			
Worked with others on an individual project. (OH4)			
Collaborated on assignment when instructor asked for individual work. (OH5)			
<b>Slacker Behavior</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>0.71</b>
Taken full credit in project w/o doing fair share of the work. (SB1)			
Visited a professor to influence a grade. (SB2)			
Turned in work done by someone else. (SB3)			
Received substantial, unprecedented help on an assignment. (SB4)			
Used a false excuse to delay an exam or a paper. (SB5)			
Purchased or found a paper on the Internet to submit as your own work. (SB6)			
<b>Plagiarism</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.53</b>
Copied sentences of material from a published source w/o footnoting it. (P1)			
Fabricated or falsified a bibliography. (P2)			
<b>Reasons for Unethical Behavior</b>	<b>0.93</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.94</b>
According to you, <u>you would engage in unethical behavior:</u>			
UB1 When you want a get a high grade.			
UB2 When you have the time but do not want to study.			
UB3 When you do not have time to study.			
UB4 When nobody is hurt by your behavior.			
UB5 When the material is difficult to understand.			
UB6 When there is a low risk of getting caught.			
UB7 When the work is irrelevant to your major coursework.			
UB8 When the instructor is poor or indifferent.			
UB9 When everyone else does it.			
UB10 When doing it is a challenge or thrill.			
UB11 When peer pressure makes you do it			

To measure unethical behavior, the eleven items from Brown's (1995; 1996; 2000) "Reasons for Unethical Behavior" on a five-point scale were used: "not at all likely," "somewhat likely," "neutral," "likely," to "very likely." These items measured reasons for unethical behavior, such as to get a high grade, feels no one is hurt by behavior, everyone does it, to name a few. Brown (1996; 2000) did not report any reliability or factor structure on these items. Factor analysis of the scale on Unethical Behavior revealed that it was a unidimensional construct. The items used to measure Unethical Behavior and their reliability are reported in Table 2. Brown's Unethical Behavior scale is both unidimensional and has good reliability. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted and the items significantly loaded on the hypothesized factors ( $p < 0.05$ ).

## RESULTS

The means of the variables for the pretest and posttest samples were compared via t-tests. The differences between the means for each of the factors examined were non-significant except for Illicit Collaboration, which was significant at  $p < 0.05$  (see Table 3). In other words, even though the means were slightly different for the factors, Exam Cheating, Slacker Behavior, Plagiarism, and Unethical Behavior, none of the differences was significant. Therefore,  $H_2$  was supported and  $H_1$ ,  $H_3$ ,  $H_4$ , and  $H_5$  were not supported. It can also be noted that Illicit Collaboration was higher than any of the other variables for both pretest and post-test group means.

**Table 3: T-Tests Comparing Pretest and Posttest Samples**

Variable	n (pretest) (posttest)	Mean (pretest) (posttest)	Std Dev (pretest) (posttest)	t-value*	Degrees of Freedom	p-value (two-tailed)
Exam Cheating	193 143	1.55 1.56	0.60 0.71	-0.16	334	0.87
Illicit Collaboration	201 146	2.90 2.69	0.86 0.84	2.26	345	0.02**
Slacker Behavior	200 145	1.51 1.53	0.53 0.61	-0.39	343	0.70
Plagiarism	199 147	1.70 1.69	0.73 0.81	0.12	344	0.91
Reasons for Unethical Behavior	190 143	2.19 2.15	0.88 0.94	0.39	331	0.70
*equal variances not assumed						
**significant at $p < 0.05$						

## DISCUSSION

There are several possible reasons to explain the largely non-significant results. First, the test course for this study, “The Environment of Business,” covered a variety of topics, including business ethics. Thus, the ability of the course to change students’ report of their ethical behavior may have been limited since ethics was not the only focus of the course. Second, the non-significant results correspond to the results of similar work done by Bloodgood et al. (2008), which found that, on average, students who had taken a business ethics course cheated as much as those who did not take a business ethics course. Their findings concluded that business ethics instruction generally had no effect on the extent of cheating. Third, the issues covered in business ethics courses are business ethics issues versus personal ethics issues. Students may not apply appropriate ethical behavior for organizations to their own ethical behavior. Fourth, Griseri (2002, p. 371) notes that, “it is better to regard this field as a *form of personal development* than a subject which gets taught.” One course may not be enough to significantly affect a construct that evolves, such as ethical behavior.

In contrast, the sole significant finding of a lower level of illicit collaboration in the posttest group is encouraging. This finding is in contrast to the work done by Bloodgood et al. (2008) that found no significant differences at the course level, in which students who had taken a business ethics course cheated as much as those who did not. It also contrasts with Brown and Choong (2005), who found no significant differences in levels of academic dishonesty between management majors at a public and at a private, Catholic university. The private, Catholic university placed more emphasis on ethics and values, based upon statements of educational philosophy, educational goals, and course requirements. Moreover, the Illicit Collaboration factor consists of activities that may be considered as more subtle forms of academic dishonesty, such as having someone check over a paper before turning it in. Students may have become sensitized with these more subtle forms of academic dishonesty more quickly the other more overt activities, which are captured in the Exam Cheating, Slacker Behavior, and Plagiarism factors. These behaviors may be more challenging to change.

## IMPLICATIONS

This study has yielded several implications for the business curriculum in regard to ethics-based courses. Based on the results of this exploratory study, it is concluded that a business course with an ethics component may affect students’ level of academic dishonesty. Although Illicit Collaboration was the only facet of academic dishonesty that was significant, the reduction of Illicit Collaboration provides support that academic dishonesty can be addressed in the classroom. Additional courses in business ethics may be necessary to further positively influence students’ ethical behavior. Therefore, this study suggests a prominent representation of

ethics in the business school curriculum, whether as an element in a class or in classes focused solely on the topic.

Furthermore, this study has raised an interesting point. Business courses that focus on ethics may need to target students' personal ethical behavior. Does the student's personal ethical behavior need to be addressed first in order to prevent future unethical business behavior in the marketplace? It seems that teaching business ethics may be premature if a student's personal ethical behavior is not affected first. Is it possible to curtail future unethical business behavior in the marketplace without first improving personal ethical behavior in the classroom? Intuitively, changing an individual's ethical behavior would be a necessary first step in influencing his or her professional ethical behavior in the marketplace in later years. Moreover, students will better identify with changing their own ethical behavior than reviewing case studies that focus on the ethical behavior of business professionals. The issue may be addressed by incorporating personal ethics, versus business ethics, into the business curriculum. These courses could serve as a foundation or prerequisites for courses focusing on appropriate business ethical behavior.

### **LIMITATIONS**

This study has several potential limitations. Although a student sample was appropriate for this study, the sample of largely traditional students (age 18-23) may not be representative of other student populations, due to demographic or geographic differences. Furthermore, variations in demographic variables may influence the level of academic dishonesty, as illustrated in previous research. For example, age may have an impact on the level of academic dishonesty. Older or non-traditional students may have a different outlook or perspective toward academic dishonesty, based on changes in their life situation or simply maturity.

Additionally, even though the respondents remained anonymous, a level of respondent bias may have been present due to the classroom setting for the administration of the instrument. Questionnaires were completed in the classroom, so student respondents may have reported a higher or lower level of academic dishonesty. Private or off-campus facilities for each respondent may have addressed this limitation.

### **DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

There are possible future research directions for this study. First, although the sample was appropriate for this study, since most subjects were traditional undergraduate students (had not entered the workforce), different results may be obtained for non-traditional students and/or those entering professional and graduate schools. Second, because the sample was drawn from a mid-size university in the southeastern United States, future studies with schools of other sizes in other regions are needed to establish external validity. Third, although many of the items used in the instrument were those that have appeared in previous work, there may be other items that

could be included in future work. Fourth, and similarly, there may be other types of academic dishonesty that could be examined in future studies. Fifth, the scope of the study could be changed or broadened to include various other issues that have been a focus of previous research, such as religiosity and intelligence (Bloodgood et al., 2008). Sixth, this study did not focus on the issue that particular demographics (e.g., age, GPA, and gender) may influence the degree to which students' level of academic dishonesty may be affected.

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# ETHICAL REASONING INSTRUCTION IN UNDERGRADUATE COST ACCOUNTING: A NON-INTRUSIVE APPROACH

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## ABSTRACT

*This article discusses a series of studies designed to yield statistically significant improvements in student moral reasoning when specific strategies and instructional materials were utilized in non-ethics undergraduate accounting and other business courses taught by instructors who were not formally trained in business ethics. The most recent research study reported in this article was conducted in an undergraduate Cost Accounting course. The results of the current study have yielded statistically significant increases in student moral reasoning as measured by the DIT-2, confirming the effectiveness of an intervention methodology. The specific intervention strategies and instructional materials utilized were developed through several iterations of developmental research studies that were carried out over a four-year period at a mid-sized Midwestern university. The measurement instrument of moral reasoning used in all of the research studies is the revised version of the Defining Issues Test, the DIT-2 (Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Originally funded by a grant from the Lilly Endowment, the most recent study reported in this article was funded by a generous grant from the Delta Pi Epsilon Research Foundation, Inc.*

**Keywords:** accounting, accounting education, business schools, business ethics, ethical reasoning, teaching, moral development, decision-making model, designing a course, integrated curriculum, Defining Issues Test

## INTRODUCTION

This article discusses a series of studies designed to yield statistically significant improvements in student moral reasoning when specific strategies and instructional materials were utilized in non-ethics undergraduate accounting and other business courses taught by instructors who were not formally trained in business ethics. The most recent research study reported in this article was conducted in an undergraduate Cost Accounting course. This study is one part of a larger set of confirmatory studies designed to corroborate results of previous research (Wilhelm, 2008) during the developmental phase for the intervention protocol. Control

groups that were used in the previous studies (Wilhelm, 2008) served as proxy controls for the present study. Originally funded by a grant from the Lilly Endowment, the most recent study reported in this article was funded by a generous grant from the Delta Pi Epsilon Research Foundation, Inc.

### **NEED FOR THE STUDY**

A profession such as accountancy is formed on the basis of (1) a generally accepted body of knowledge, (2) a widely recognized standard of education, and (3) a code of ethics (Smith & Smith, 2010). A code of ethics is a crucial element in guiding the behavior of a professional. The three major accounting professional organizations that have established a professional code of ethics are the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), the Institute of Management Accountants (IMA), and the Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA). The responsibilities that the three codes of ethics place on accountants and the related professional standards for each organization have many similarities. They all require professional competence, confidentiality, integrity, and objectivity. Accounting professionals should only undertake tasks that they can complete with professional competence, and they must carry out their responsibilities with sufficient care and diligence. Ethics in accounting has become even more important in light of the scandals at Enron, WorldCom, Tyco, Arthur Anderson, and others in the early 2000s. The Sarbanes–Oxley Act of 2002 is a reaction to these scandals. The act created the Public Company Accounting Oversight Board (PCAOB), and places greater responsibility on the company officers as to internal control and independent central oversight of public accounting firms that perform audit services.

While business schools accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) must meet ethics training expectations delineated by Assurance of Learning Standard 15: Management of Curricula (“Eligibility Procedures,” 2007), AACSB does not specify any courses or program template for delivering ethics and corporate social responsibility training to students. However, AACSB does proffer the notion that it is business faculty – not faculty from outside the business school, who should teach these concepts to undergraduate and MBA students. As stated in the AACSB study document, *Ethics Education in Business Schools* (AACSB International, 2004):

Faculty involvement is an important indicator of the salience of issues in academic environments. Relegation of ethical issues to a small fraction of the faculty or to those perceived as having low status vitiates the power of the educational experience. Also, in an environment where concern over ethical issues has risen sharply, lack of business school faculty involvement may indicate a disconnection between the academic experience and the real world. If ethics content is taught primarily by faculty from outside the business school, questions

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should be raised as to what is done to convey the relevance of ethics in business practice. (p. 19).

Since “business ethics” and “corporate social responsibility” are not business disciplines in the traditional sense, and since many business professors do not feel themselves sufficiently trained to teach such courses (see Bok, 1988; Klein, 1998; Norman, 2004), business schools are left to grapple with the conundrum of how to teach business ethics to all students by using a large percentage of business school regular faculty. Teaching business ethics throughout the core curriculum in delineated integrative programs has proved problematic for some business schools because the longevity of these programs is limited by faculty turnover and new faculty members’ unwillingness to assume responsibility for teaching outside of their areas of specialization.

Therefore, the objective of this stream of research has been to identify non-intrusive classroom instructional methods and materials that can be effectively used by accounting course instructors (and instructors in other business disciplines not formally trained in ethics) to positively affect levels of moral reasoning of undergraduate business students. Instructional methods are *non-intrusive* in the sense that the classroom interventions are reasonably easy to integrate into an instructor’s course plan without causing a major displacement of the content that is normally taught in the course, nor requiring extensive instructor training in ethical theory.

The current study was conducted in a Cost Accounting course for undergraduate accounting majors (juniors and seniors) in order to corroborate and confirm the validity of the intervention methodology developed in this stream of research which had previously generated statistically significant increases in student moral reasoning in other sample groups. The results of the current study have also yielded statistically significant increases in student moral reasoning as measured by the DIT-2, confirming the effectiveness of the intervention methodology.

## MORAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

The best-known model of moral reasoning is Kohlberg’s (1969, 1981) model, which primarily addresses the formal structures (stages) of ethical development in the cognitive developmental process. Kohlberg focused on ethics in relation to society (i.e., laws, roles, institutions, and general practices) instead of personal, face-to-face relationships that occur in particular, everyday dealings with people—that is, on macro morality instead of micro morality (Rest et al., 1999). Kohlberg’s emphasis was on “right” as a concept of “justice” rather than “good” based on individual standards of personal perfection, virtue, or theology. Kohlberg’s six stages of moral development can be characterized as follows (Jeffrey 1993, p. 87):

1. Punishment and obedience orientation.
2. Naïve instrumental hedonism.

3. Good-boy or good-girl morality of maintaining good relations, approval of others.
4. Authority maintaining morality.
5. Morality of contract, of individual rights, and democratically accepted law.
6. Morality of individual principles of conscience.

James Rest's (1979) theory of cognitive moral development recognizes Kohlberg's developmental levels as more akin to schemata than to stages. Rest's schema theory conceptualizes cognitive moral developmental reasoning as encompassing concept driven ways of thinking based on experience. Cognitive moral development will increase the number of available schemata available for use in solving a dilemma while at the same time increasing the level at which each successive schema is developed, but the newer, more advanced schema doesn't necessarily usurp all previous lower-level schemata. Given the right set of circumstances, an individual may utilize a previous schema to process a dilemma (Rest et al., 1999).

Moral reasoning is only one part of a model of ethical behavior that Rest called the Four-Component Model (1979). The basic idea behind the four component model is that four inner psychological processes together give rise to outwardly observable behavior. Moral *sensitivity* involves the ability to interpret a situation, imagining cause-effect chains of event, and awareness that there is a moral problem when it exists. Moral *reasoning* has to do with an individual's capabilities for judging which action would be most justifiable in a moral sense. Moral *motivation* involves the individual's commitment and willingness to take the morally correct course of action, to value moral values over other values, and to take personal responsibility for the moral outcomes of their decision. Moral *character* involves persisting in a moral task, having courage to consistently adhere to the morally correct decisions, overcoming fatigue and temptations, and implementing subroutines that serve a moral goal (Rest et al., 1999).

### **MORAL DEVELOPMENT ASSESSMENT**

James Rest devised a paper-and-pencil instrument to measure moral reasoning, the Defining Issues Test (DIT). The DIT is the most widely used instrument for this purpose and the best documented in terms of reliability and validity (Rest, 1986). Based on the notion that moral reasoning involves distinctive ways of defining social moral dilemmas and evaluating crucial issues in them (Rest, 1979), the DIT presents participants with moral dilemmas. Each dilemma is followed by items for the participant to consider in solving the dilemma. The participant rates and ranks the importance of each item and chooses a course of action to resolve the dilemma. Ratings and rankings are used to derive a participant's score. The most used index of the DIT has been the principled reasoning or P score. Rest believed that the P score is a reliable index of moral development across the six theoretical stages (Rest, 1979).

The new version of the DIT, known as the DIT-2 (Rest et al., 1999), reflects several improvements. The DIT-2 contains moral dilemmas that are more up to date, whereas the

original DIT contained dilemmas related to the war in Vietnam and culturally antiquated terms such as “Oriental” to refer to individuals of Asian descent. The DIT-2 is also shorter, consisting of five dilemmas instead of six. Instructions for completing the DIT-2 have been improved, and the instrument purges fewer subjects for bogus data. The new N2 index score has a slightly better Cronbach alpha internal reliability, and the DIT-2 is slightly more powerful on validity criteria. Based on a 1995 composite sample (n = 932), the Cronbach alpha for the P index was 0.78, whereas for the N2 Index it was 0.83 (Rest et al., 1999). The present study reports both the post-conventional (P) index and the N2 index; both are measures of moral reasoning.

While moral behavior is not dictated by one’s sensitivity to a moral dilemma or even by one’s choice of the correct moral decision, moral behavior has been shown to correspond closely to moral reasoning. A significant number of research studies relating to moral behavior based on Kohlberg’s and Rest’s methods of assessment (Blasi, 1980; Rest, 1986) found that moral behavior was closely correlated to moral decision making. As reported by Rest (1986), “[S]ince we observe a consistent pattern of significant relationships between DIT scores and the behavior measures, it seems safe to conclude that generally there is a link between moral reasoning and behavior” (p. 135).

### **MORAL EDUCATION RESEARCH IN BUSINESS AND ACCOUNTING**

While descriptive studies about levels of moral reasoning among students number in the thousands, the number of studies that deal with evaluations of effectiveness of ethics education interventions for accounting students is considerably less. James Rest cited numerous intervention methods that were designed as educational programs with the objective of increasing student moral reasoning (Rest et al., 1999). These interventions include elements of lecture, guest-speaking appearances, video exemplars, case analyses using an ethical decision-making framework, philosophic studies of ethical theory, and reflective analysis.

Utilizing a class in ethics and professionalism to introduce an array of ethical instructional interventions ranging from studies in ethical reasoning to analyses of congressional investigations, Armstrong (1993) reported a statistically significant difference in changes in DIT post-conventional (P) scores among students who took the course over those in a control group that did not. Armstrong also reported that students who had taken previous classes in ethics (as reported by the students) demonstrated increased levels of moral-reasoning maturation.

Green and Weber (1997) assessed the levels of moral reasoning in accounting and other business majors both before and after they had completed an auditing course which emphasized the AICPA Code of Professional Conduct. Moral reasoning levels were assessed separately by both authors utilizing the Abbreviated Scoring Guide based on Kohlberg’s scoring method (Weber, 1991). They found no differences in ethical development between junior accounting majors and other junior-level business majors. They did, however, find significant differences between senior-level accounting and non-accounting students’ levels of moral development. The

primary difference appeared to be related to the auditing course taken by the senior accounting students (Green & Weber, 1997).

Bigel (2002) demonstrated through the use of similar learning activities (lecture, case analysis and the study of ethical theory) that a course in business ethics has a positive effect on students' moral development, particularly with undergraduates. Sampling Canadian graduate accounting students, Thorne (2000) tested whether a person's cognitive moral capacity, i.e., the most sophisticated moral reasoning a person is capable of, matches that person's moral reasoning, i.e., how a person actually decides an ethical dilemma. Thorne questioned whether a person solves ethical dilemmas using their *cognitive* moral capacity or some lower level of reasoning. Two accounting-specific tests, one prescriptive and one deliberative, were developed using the DIT as a model. Prescriptive reasoning involves considering what should ideally be done as prescribed by laws or codes within the context of internally defined concerns for principle and fairness. Deliberative reasoning involves intent to act on an ethical dilemma while using more sophisticated and complex moral structures acquired through maturation and exposure to external influences. The validity and reliability of the accounting-specific tests, as determined by professional accountants and experts, were found comparable to those of the DIT. The results indicated that accountants do not resolve ethical dilemmas at their cognitive moral capacity. The subjects' scores on the two accounting tests are lower than their scores on the DIT.

Another study that seems to confirm Thorne's findings, Dellaportasa, Cooperb and Leungc (2006) studied the moral reasoning levels of 97 accounting students over a one-year period using the DIT and a context-specific instrument developed by Welton (Welton, LaGrone & Davis, 1994). Test scores were significantly higher on the DIT than scores on the Welton instrument suggesting that accounting students use higher levels of moral reasoning in resolving hypothetical social dilemmas and lower levels of moral reasoning in resolving context-specific dilemmas.

Bay (2002) was critical of the DIT's use in assessing ethical development in accountants and accounting education programs. Claiming that the DIT had inherent biases toward political conservatives, religious conservatives, and different cultures, she cautioned the dependence upon the DIT as a sole measure of moral development in the accounting profession. Her criticism of the DIT as biased against political and religious conservatives is not a legitimate claim. Cognitive moral theory substantiates the invariant requirement for an advanced degree of empathy in individuals possessing moral reasoning of the highest – post-conventional – levels (Gibbs, 2010; Gilligan, 1982; Hoffman, 2000; Kohlberg, 1969, 1981; Rest, 1979, 1986; Rest et al., 1999). As defined by Gibbs (2010) empathy “is a biologically and affectively based, cognitively mediated, and socialized predisposition to connect emotionally with others” (p. 78). Conservative perspectives in politics and religion by nature do not focus on empathic primacy. Primacy lies instead in the tenets of the political beliefs or the religious dogma.



There is some legitimacy to Bay's critique of using the DIT to assess the moral development of non-Westernized cultures because of potentially significant differences in closely held values of fairness and justice (individualism versus collectivism), but that does not weaken the instrument's validity in ethics research in the United States. Further, Bay's criticisms only addressed descriptive research studies that attempted to characterize sample populations as to moral development. There is no reason to suggest that the DIT in its newest version (the DIT-2) is not a valid and reliable instrument to use in measuring *changes* in levels of moral reasoning in studies that assess the effectiveness of ethical training intervention protocols. [For a bibliographic review of ethics research studies covering a wide range of foci in accounting see Uysal (2010).]

## METHODOLOGY

Consistent with the findings from many of the studies discussed above, and after reviewing the top U.S. business schools' instructional practices for business ethics education, the primary researcher set about the task of developing an instructional protocol and instructional materials that can, when properly sequenced and integrated into undergraduate non-ethics business content courses taught by professors not formally trained in ethical reasoning pedagogy, increase levels of student moral reasoning as measured by the revised version of the Defining Issues Test (DIT-2). All iterations in this series of research studies were approved by the primary researcher's institutional review board prior to the first study. This section will first present an overview of the studies that took place during the development of the intervention protocol and instructional materials, and then will present the findings from the most recent study used to confirm previous findings of effectiveness of the protocol and instructional materials with undergraduate accounting students.

### Intervention Developmental Studies

Each study in the developmental stage of this research (Wilhelm, 2010) involved the continuing attempt to refine the instructional methodology and materials (interventions) so that non-ethics business course instructors could simply and effectively integrate the methodology into their courses in order to teach ethical decision-making theory and engage undergraduate business students in reflective analysis so as to improve their moral reasoning as measured by the DIT-2. The instructional methods employed in these interventions included the following:

- Reading assignments explicating commonly taught Western ethical theories (deontology, teleology, virtue theory and social conventions and mores) and a step-by-step ethical decision-making framework handout. The present study used two articles written by the primary researcher to accomplish this explication (Wilhelm, 2006a, 2006b).

- Lecture and classroom discussion to clarify the ethical theories and the ethical decision-making framework. The lecture was organized into a PowerPoint presentation with instructor lecture notes prepared by the primary researcher.
- Cases related to each content area, but also containing ethical elements or dilemmas. All cases were discipline specific and were selected by each course instructor.
- Both reflective individual written and/or interactive group discussions of the cases. As will be shown below, written reflective case analyses using the ethical decision-making framework proved the most effective.
- Quizzes to assess student comprehension of reading assignments.
- Grades related to the ethical reasoning component in each course.

All iterations of the studies in this research (Wilhelm, 2010) involved the nonequivalent control group quasi-experimental design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) which can be used when true randomization of subjects and extraneous variables cannot be achieved. The selection of subjects based solely on their self-selection to the different courses did not involve random assignment. However, pretest P-score comparisons showed that the groups were similar. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), comparable pretest scores help confirm internal validity:

The more similar the experimental and control groups are in their recruitment, and the more this similarity is confirmed by the pretest, the more effective this control becomes. Assuming that these desiderata are approximated for internal validity, we can regard the design as controlling the effects of history, maturation, testing, and instrumentation. (pp. 217-218).

Assessment of improvements in moral reasoning was based on pretest – post-test comparisons of two key indicators on the revised version of the Defining Issues Test (DIT-2): the post-conventional P score and the new N2 score. After each study was completed the researcher made adjustments and refinements to the instructional methodology (intervention) based on findings from each previous study and debriefings of student participants and course instructors. Convenience samples used for each study consisted of students in a range of undergraduate core business courses composed of foundation business disciplines – including undergraduate accounting – at a mid-sized Midwestern university.

### **Current Research Study**

The current study utilized the same pretest-posttest design that was used in the previous iterations of the research. An accounting professor who had used the ethical decision-making instructional materials in previous developmental stages of this research volunteered to follow the most recent refinement of the instructional protocol by incorporating the instructional

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procedures and materials into two sections of his undergraduate Cost Accounting course. While enrollments for the two sections totaled 35 students, only 30 DIT pretest-posttest protocols ( $n_1 = 17$ ,  $n_2 = 13$ ) were acceptable for inclusion in the sample. This course is a required class for all accounting majors and may be taken by other business majors as an elective. The two classes contained predominantly accounting majors with three to four finance and business administration majors respectively. The students were all juniors or seniors; 10 were male and 20 were female.

In both classes the DIT-2 was administered on the first day of class. The two essays prepared by the primary researcher to explicate Western ethical theory and the ethical decision-making framework were assigned for study. Each essay was subsequently discussed in class for approximately 35 minutes. The 20-question quiz designed for this research was administered after the classroom discussion of the ethical decision-making framework, and counted for 40 points out of 1,000 course grade points.

During the course of regular cost accounting instruction, the students were also assigned four cases containing ethical dilemmas and were informed that they would have to prepare a written reflective analysis for each case using the steps delineated in the ethical decision-making framework. The instructor and the primary researcher had determined through previous iterations of this research that a single case was insufficient in helping students to engage in ethical decision making since it took practice on more than one case to successfully utilize the ethical decision-making framework. In addition, the instructor and the primary researcher determined in previous iterations that more than four ethical case analyses in a non-ethics course were overly laborious for students and motivationally problematic. Therefore, the instructor selected four single-page ethics cases from the Carnegie Mellon Tepper School of Business Arthur Andersen Case Studies in Business Ethics website. The instructor chose cases containing ethical dilemmas that related to each chapter's content. For example, a case containing an ethical budgeting dilemma was used with the budgeting chapter. The four cases were covered over a contiguous five-week period.

All cases were discussed briefly in class before students began their reflections. This was accomplished so that the students clearly understood the ethical dilemma in each case. The professor noted that several students asked for this clarification as they had problems identifying just one ethical dilemma. During the class in which the reflective case analyses were turned in, the case was discussed in more detail and solutions were evaluated. Student's written reflective analyses were graded on how well they followed the steps delineated in the decision-making framework and the logic and strength of their arguments. Their final decision did not impact their grade; just how well they supported their decision using the framework. Each of the four cases was worth 40 points. The quiz and ethics case analyses equaled 20% of each student's final grade. The DIT-2 posttest was administered on the last day of class.

An independent samples t-test using the pretest P and N2 scores of the two undergraduate cost accounting classes ( $n_1 = 17$ ,  $n_2 = 13$ ) established that there were no differences in the mean

pretest scores, and since the professor taught both classes in exactly the same way, the two samples were combined and treated as a single sample ( $n = 30$ ). The post-test scores are shown in Table 1. Paired samples t-test post-test results and effect size calculations showed statistically significant increases in the P scores with a medium effect size (pretest  $\bar{x} = 30.7000$ , posttest  $\bar{x} = 36.5415$ ),  $t(29) = -2.379$ ,  $p < .05$ , two-tailed,  $r = 0.404094$ . Additionally, the paired samples t-test results and effect size calculations showed a statistically significant increase with a large effect size in N2 post-test scores (pretest  $\bar{x} = 31.2015$ , posttest  $\bar{x} = 40.2511$ ),  $t(29) = -5.601$ ,  $p < .05$ , two-tailed,  $r = 0.720860$ .

DIT-2 Measure	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	<i>r</i> Effect size	Effect size
P score	-5.84150	13.44907	2.45545	-2.379	29	.024	0.404094	med
N2 score	-9.04960	8.85031	1.61584	-5.601	29	.000	0.720860	large

Source: Primary

These results demonstrate significant increases in levels of student of moral reasoning based on both measures on the DIT-2, i.e., the post-conventional P score and the new index, N2 score, with medium and large effect sizes respectively. According to Thoma, “N2 is more sensitive to change ..., whereas P scores seem to be more strongly related to political variables” (personal communication, Steve Thoma, August 27, 2009). This insight about the N2 by one of its developers would seem to indicate with a significant degree of certainty that the instructional materials and methodology developed throughout this research and used in this Cost Accounting course did indeed improve undergraduate student moral reasoning. (Statistically significant increases in moral reasoning were also found in other non-accounting student samples in this most recent study. These results are contained in another manuscript currently under review.)

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Utilization of the instructional practices and materials developed throughout this research effort can produce statistically significant increases in moral reasoning of undergraduate accounting students enrolled in non-ethics accounting courses taught by instructors not formally trained in ethical theory. While instructors need to invest significant time and effort to successfully incorporate case-based moral decision-making instruction into their courses, and significant grade incentives are needed for students to engage the use of the ethical decision-making content, instructors not formally trained in ethical theory can indeed generate positive improvements in student moral reasoning.

The procedures identified in this research allow for substantial flexibility in instructional methodology, but do require a close adherence to some tenets. First, students need to be

introduced to the basics of Western ethical theory including deontology, teleology, virtue theory and cultural conventions and mores – more in layman’s terms than in philosophical terminology. Second, students need to study and apply to more than just a single ethical case dilemma (preferably three or four) an ethical decision-making framework. Three, students need to write their reflections and analysis of how they applied the ethical decision-making framework to each case study. Four, students need to know that the ethical component in the non-ethics course is of sufficient grade weight that it must be engaged with effort and commitment.

While there are many and varied approaches to teaching ethical reasoning to undergraduate business students, this research has identified a combination of practices and instructional materials that work to increase levels undergraduate accounting student moral reasoning at one particular institution. It stands to reason that these practices and instructional materials will also accomplish similar results if utilized as recommended at another institution. Additionally, employment of this type of integrative approach across the business curriculum meets the AACSB caveat that ethics instruction should be taught by business faculty members and not be relegated “to a small fraction of the faculty or to those perceived as having low status” (AACSB International, 2004, p. 19).

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