LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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A Comparison of Learning Outcomes in Business Communications Courses Taught On-Campus, On-Line, and by Compressed Video

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate and compare the learning outcomes of teaching and delivering Business Communications courses via on-campus instruction, online instruction, and compressed video instruction. In addition, the benefits and limitations involved in the instruction (teaching as well as learning) will be discussed. The question which will be researched is whether there is a significant difference in the learning, which occurs in these three modes of delivery. The null hypothesis being tested in this study is that there is, in fact, no significant difference in learning between or among the three delivery methods. This null hypothesis will either be accepted or rejected. The methodology used in this study includes scores from written letters, scores on research papers, and oral presentation grades. The data collected represents classes taught in the spring semester of 2004. When comparing scores, only the students who actually completed all three segments were used as subjects. A review of the literature will be used to support or contradict the hypothesis. It will examine other similar studies and will promote ideas for recommendations and future studies related to this topic and the various delivery methods. Several issues will be discussed. Are the three methods of delivery measuring the same skills equally? How can it be measured? Are the comparisons objective or subjective? How can the assessment instruments used be made more uniform for the three delivery methods? The results of this paper will hopefully help us in the upcoming revision of this course.

INTRODUCTION

Technological advances have changed the way many organizations, including academic institutions, are currently operating. One cannot assume that a college student will be required to sit in a traditional, on-campus classroom 3 hours per week for every 3hour course as they did years ago. Due to the "age of technology," one can now expect that a student will have the opportunity to choose distance learning classes, such as on-line courses or compressed video (CV) classes. The compressed video (CV) class in this paper represents a face-to-face media-readied classroom on our main campus and remote classrooms simultaneously receiving course instruction at two branch campuses (similar to interactive television). These new instructional delivery systems, however, create a challenge to educators in determining whether students participating in distance learning education are learning as much as those participating in the traditional, on-campus classroom. This study is an attempt to measure learning among these three delivery methods.

While the researchers of this study were instrumental in developing several online and compressed video university courses, many challenges still exist which lead to questions about the learning outcomes university students experience. Do online and CV students learn just as much as on-campus students? What about a course such as Business Communications, where an oral presentation is required? What are the limitations?

This study compares the learning in a traditional on-campus class to an online class and to a compressed video class at three locations. The course in question is a 2000 level "Business Communications" class, and each of the sections were taught during the spring 2004 semester.

Two traditional Business Communications classes were taught during the day- time hours on campus by the same instructor. The only technology used for the class consisted of a Web site syllabus, Internet assignments, and some homework turned in using e-mail. In addition, some students used Powerpoint slides to enhance their oral presentations.

The online section of this course was taught by the same instructor. The class was completely online using the eCollege course platform. Interactivity was achieved by threaded discussions. Some exams were taken online and some were proctored. A time limit was given to each exam and students were restricted to the time limit. The oral presentations were videotaped by the students and then mailed to the instructor, who viewed and graded them. In this instructional mode, the student used a computer (usually from home) to access a range of services. These include online registration, dissemination of course materials, access to online materials, and communication with instructors and other students via e-mail. Classes and discussion groups were conducted online and assignments emailed to the instructor or sent to a "Dropbox" for a particular unit.

A second instructor taught the compressed video class, which was offered during the evening hours at three locations including the main campus. The instructor taught classes from each location at least one time. Additional technology consisted of a Web site syllabus, Powerpoint presentations, and homework submitted and returned by e-mail. A facilitator at each site proctored exams, and the instructor was not present. This interactive videoconferencing mode provides the opportunity for an instructor to teach a class in a classroom-type setting, while concurrently instructing two different groups of students in two other locations (branch campuses). This instructional method allows for live interaction and enables questions from all sites.

Since the SAT exams now include a written component, the researcher chose to study the learning outcomes using written and oral samples of graded work (a letter, a research paper, and an oral presentation).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Review of the literature provides an overview of the current research related to different methods of delivery of college courses. The emphasis is on distance education. The past decade has seen what could be called a revolution in education, particularly in the new methods of classroom delivery. Online courses (and even degree programs completely online) are becoming increasingly popular. Students are excited about the convenience and about not having to come to campus; however, some lack the necessary discipline and end up dropping a particular online class.

The institution where this study was done has been delivering courses and degrees by distance education for nearly a decade. Courses are being delivered as traditional on-campus courses, as compressed video courses, and as online courses. In fact, approximately 40 percent of our students are enrolled in at least one class that is either online or compressed video. In addition, since this institution is extremely involved in distance education, it is essential that program assessments include the distance learning activities, as well as the on-campus activities. Since assessment is so crucial in educational institutions today, it becomes important to find methods to measure the outcomes of the same courses taught using the different delivery systems and using the same evaluation instruments. The main research question is whether or not a significant difference in learning exists among the three delivery modes employed in this study. This question seems to be of great interest, according to a review of literature; however, there appears to be no universal agreement on the answer. Most of the studies reviewed compared two mediums of delivery, while the study being reported in this paper compares three: on-campus, on-line, and compressed video.

A few studies have already been done comparing these three methods of delivery on a university campus. However, this unique study focuses on Business Communications as a university-required course in the Business Administration Bachelor's and Associate's degree programs. At this time, it is limited to data collected on the written and oral components of a good news letter, a research paper, and an oral presentation.

Existing literature comparing differences in learning outcomes in distance education and traditional classroom instruction is quite extensive. Since it is well beyond the scope of this study to complete an exhaustive literature review, the researchers decided that a representative review of other researchers' findings would be sufficient.

The past decade has been witness to what could be seen as a revolution in education, particularly in the new methods of classroom delivery such as online teaching and compressed video instruction. For example, in an introductory to psychology course two studies were done to compare student attrition, student performance, and student evaluation in classroom sections and online sections (Waschull, 2001). No significant difference was found in the performance of the students in this course, but the online students tended to score slightly lower on exams and were more likely to fail. These online students also evaluated the course similarly to the on-campus students, and there was no significant difference in attrition.

In another study, an introductory psychology course (Bacon and Jakovich, 2001) was taught on instructional television and was also offered in a traditional classroom setting. Three groups of undergraduates were compared: one group received traditional classroom instruction, one group received instruction through instruction television (ITV), and one group received televised broadcasts in a remote classroom on campus. The instructional formats all resulted in similar outcomes in performance and no statistical difference was found among the three instructional formats.

As more and more students enroll in online classes, the questions of quality and comparability of such instruction with traditional classroom methods arise. In a study conducted at the University of Phoenix, achievement scores of online graduates were found to be 5% to 10% higher than graduates of competing oncampus programs at three Arizona public universities (Gubernick & Ebeling, 1999). Likewise, the University of Michigan concluded that computer-based instruction yielded higher average scores than traditional instruction (Vasarhelyi & Graham, 1997).

Along these same lines, Schulman and Sims (1999) looked at pre- and post-test scores of students enrolled in online and oncampus versions of the same class taught by the same instructors. Their study found no significant differences, which demonstrated that the learning of online students is equal to the learning of traditional on-campus students for the sample studied. In addition, it was found that the online students scored higher on pretests than did the on-campus students. This seemed to indicate that the students who select online courses may be better prepared for the course material than the students who select on-campus courses.

In a study to define distance education (Matthews, 1999), the many advantages of distance education were discussed. Some of those mentioned included increased access to higher education, flexible scheduling of time devoted to coursework, individualized attention by the instructor, less travel, and time to reflect on questions that may be asked by the instructor or posted in the threaded discussions.

Another study was done to determine the learning outcomes between live instruction and interactive television in a research course (Petrocchi and Patchner, 2001). Performance of the students was evaluated. The conclusion was that no significant difference was found in the students' performance when comparing the two groups. In addition, ITV was found to be a viable technological option for research courses.

Research on learning outcomes has been done in many disciplines, especially when comparing various delivery methods. One in particular studied the effects of the traditional classroom and distance continuing education (Umble, Cervero, and Yang, 2000). This study evaluated the effects of training between classroom and broadcast courses related to polio vaccination. No significant difference was found between the knowledge of those health workers who took courses in a traditional, on-campus course and those who took them by broadcast medium. The findings thus supported the incorporation of distance education in national public health training.

In a recent study (Tollison and Garrison, 2004), researchers compared learning among a traditional campus class, a compressed video interactive class at three locations, and an online class. The course in question was a "Fundamentals of Supervision" class. After all of the students were evaluated, no significant difference was found in the performance of the students, and the null hypotheses failed to be rejected. However, one of the limitations of this particular study was that the measuring instruments were objective tests only. The current study will endeavor to remedy this limitation with the use of written criteria.

Still another study was done in an introductory psychology course (Poirier and Feldman, 2004), where the effectiveness of online instruction was tested when compared to large, traditional on-campus instruction. Students were randomly assigned from a group who had indicated that either instructional format was acceptable. Poirier and Feldman found that online students performed better on tests and equally well on written assignments. In addition, online students expressed greater satisfaction with the course than those students on campus. The results clearly support the concept that online distance learning courses are at least as effective as the traditional courses.

Many more articles which have investigated the performance differences of traditional classroom and distance learning students could be cited in this paper; however, for the sake of brevity, they will be discussed in future studies. The majority of studies find no significant difference when comparing the traditional on-campus classroom to distance education courses. If these differences do not exist, one might ask why investigators continue to do research related to the various methods of delivery. Many reasons exist, including the need to assess the relationship among the different delivery processes. Perhaps the most compelling reason is the belief that there are experiences in the traditional on-campus classroom that cannot be duplicated by distance education.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

It is important to recognize the limitations of this study, which include the following:

- ► The study was conducted at a single university.
- The study was conducted for a single course, Business Communications.
- ► The class sizes were relatively small.
- Subjective assessment was performed by two individual instructors.
- ► Data was collected for only one semester.

HYPOTHESES

The null hypotheses for this study are:

- 1. There is no statistically significant difference in student learning among in-class students, compressed video students, and online students in business letter writing.
- There is no statistically significant difference in student learning among in-class students, compressed video students, and online students in the writing of research papers.
- 3. There is no statistically significant difference in student learning among in-class students, compressed video students, and online students in oral presentation grades.

METHODOLOGY

This study used students in four sections of a Business Communications course. Two sections were traditional on-campus day classes, one section was an evening compressed video class incorporating three locations, and one class was an online class.

The two traditional on-campus classes consisted of a total of 38 students, all of whom met the criteria of completing the specific good news business letter, research paper, and oral presentation. Nineteen (19) of these students met on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 11 a.m. until 12 noon, while 19 met on Tuesday and Thursday from 11 a.m. until 12:15.

The compressed video (CV) class consisted of 17 students who completed all three assessment segments. The class was conducted for 1 and ½ hours, two evenings per week.

The online section consisted of 12 students who completed all three assessment segments. The eCollege course platform was used, and the instructor provided the content. Twenty-six (26) students started the course, 5 withdrew, and 9 did not complete all three assessment segments and could not be used in the study.

The same text was used for all courses. Graded exercises consisted of a good news business letter, a research paper, and an oral presentation. Directions for all segments were identical and were administered (and graded) to all subjects within a week of each other.

The mean scores, standard deviation, means squared, and level of significance were computed using SPSS version 7. Multiple Analysis of Variance tests were conducted on the data to determine if a statistical difference existed between the scores. A level of significance of alpha = .05 was established for this study.

FINDINGS

The information computed by SPSS includes the mean scores of t	he
exams, the standard deviation, the means squared and the level	of
significance:	

Combined Results					
		Mean	Std	Mean ²	Sig
	Traditional	78.38	8.98	6,143	.000
Letter	Compressed Video	93.06	5.46	8,660	.000
	Online	75.83	13.79	5,751	.000
	Traditional	78.21	11.39	6,117	.000
Paper	Compressed Video	80.00	12.67	6,400	.000
	Online	78.18	10.27	6,112	.000
	Traditional	92.66	5.42	8,585	.000
Oral	Compressed Video	83.12	11.13	6,909	.000
	Online	84.75	10.59	7,183	.000

Hypothesis 1 Letter				
	Mean	Std	Mean ²	Sig
Traditional	78.38	8.98	6,143	.000
Compressed Video	93.06	5.46	8,660	.000
Online	75.83	13.79	5,751	.000

The mean score for the business letter for the traditional class was 78.38 with a standard deviation of 8.98. The mean score for the business letter for the compressed video class was 93.06 with a standard deviation of 5.46. The mean score for the business letter for the online class was 75.83 with a standard deviation of 13.79. The mean squared for the letters were 6143.17, 8659.94, and 5750.69, respectively. The level of significance was .000; therefore, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis. There is no statistically significant difference in student learning between in-class students, compressed video students, and online students for the business letter.

Hypothesis 2 Research Paper				
	Mean	Std	Mean ²	Sig
Traditional	78.21	11.39	6,117	.000
Compressed Video	80.00	12.67	6,400	.000
Online	78.18	10.27	6,112	.000

The mean score for the research paper for the traditional class was 78.21 with a standard deviation of 11.39. The mean score for the paper for the compressed video class was 80.0 with a standard deviation of 12.67. The mean score for the paper for the online class was 78.18 with a standard deviation of 10.27. The mean squared for the research papers were 6116.89, 6400, and 6112.4, respectively. The level of significance was .000; therefore, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis. There is no statistically significant difference in student learning between in-class students, compressed video students, and online students for the research paper.

	Hypoth Oral Pres	esis 3 sentation		
	Mean	Std	Mean ²	Sig
Trad	92.66	5.42	8,585	.000
Compressed Video	83.12	11.13	6,909	.000
Online	84.75	10.59	7,183	.000

The mean score for the oral presentation for the traditional class was 92.66 with a standard deviation of 5.42. The mean score for the oral presentation for the compressed video class was 83.12 with a standard deviation of 11.13. The mean score for the oral presentation for the online class was 84.75 with a standard deviation of 10.59. The mean squared for the oral presentations were 8585.49, 6908.54, and 7182.56, respectively. The level of significance was .000; therefore, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis. There is no statistically significant difference in student learning among in-class students, compressed video students, and online students for the oral presentation.

The investigators found an additional finding that was not a part of the original study. The number of course withdrawals for the online students seemed to be more than the other two sections.

CONCLUSIONS

There are many issues that surround the delivery of courses in a distance-learning mode. Clearly some of the concerns and issues

cannot be resolved here because they include such things as the non-informational type of learning, the interaction with other students in a classroom setting, and so on. However, the following conclusions were determined from this study:

- 1. Student performance is the same on written exercises regardless of media delivery.
- Further research in this area is required that encompasses more courses, institutions, and media delivery techniques.
- 3. Further research is required to determine if there is a relationship between course completion and method of delivery because of the high number of withdrawals from the online course.

This study did not attempt to measure the value of teacher/student and student/student interaction. This could have an impact on the students' success after graduation.

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An Exploratory Study of Business Students' Attitudes Toward Family & Technology Issues as Related to Sales Careers

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ABSTRACT

Many students will enter the sales field for their future careers. However, it is unclear if they truly understand the demands that this career choice will place on their family and personal time. One area of current interest is the study of work-family conflicts on salespersons. It has been proven that salespersons have multiple conflicting responsibilities between their family and work. For some, technology has reduced the conflict while for others it has added additional stress. This paper will describe the results of a survey of business students to ascertain student perceptions of salespersons' careers and the impact of information technology and security issues on salespersons. These results can then be shared with business students to help them have a realistic understanding of what choices they will be making if they choose a career in sales. Hopefully, this will lead to better decisions by the students and provide them with the knowledge to help their families comprehend the requirements of a successful sales career.

INTRODUCTION

Many business students will initially enter the workforce through the sales field. However, it is unclear if their perceptions of the field are realistic. As noted by Stevens and Macintosh (2002-2003, p. 23), this "interest is fueled by the fact that college students make up a large and attractive pool of job candidates," recruiting companies "would like to know the reasons why students are or are not attracted to sales" and professors want to "know what role education plays in students' attitudes and perceptions of sales as a career." Many students have not faced the challenges of juggling a career and family-related issues, including aging parents. Do students understand how technology utilization, along with schedule flexibility and other employment practices, facilitate or hinder their current and future care giving responsibilities for children and parents? A review of the literature revealed the connection of family-related issues, and to a lesser extent, technology issues, to the larger issues of work and family conflict and role conflict and ambiguity for sales people. The questions thus arise: are students aware of work and family conflict issues in general, and care giving, in particular, and are they aware of technology issues that can add to these conflicts?

Business students were surveyed, along with a small number of salespeople (see Authors 2004a, 2004b), by the researchers. The

rationale for looking at students, the focus of this paper, is to see what business students' attitudes toward these issues are. Since many business students will leave college to be salespeople, there continues to be interest in assessing said students' perceptions of the sales field as a career path.

Students are changing and it is unclear if the "me" generation or "gen X" will be willing to manage multiple work-family conflicts. What do they perceive their future career will entail, how does that match with what current salespersons are experiencing, and how would this information help us in academics better prepare the student to manage the work-family conflicts? The authors reviewed the literature on work-family conflict to begin to assess what students will be facing in their future careers. The following is a brief review of prior research in this area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Work-family conflict has been established by prior research to be bi-directional; i.e., it involves two types of conflict, work obligations interfering with family life (work-family conflict, WFC) and family life interfering with work duties (family-work conflict, FWC) (Marchese, Bassham & Ryan, 2002, pp. 145, 146). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified three key types of WFC in their review of existing literature: time-based conflict (e.g., hours worked per week, schedule flexibility, child care demands); strainbased conflict (e.g., tension, depression, irritability, family roles expectations); and behavior-based conflict (role expectations).

A growing area of the work-family literature is that of the impact of caregiver arrangements and related issues on employees' attitudes and behavior. Boyer, et al. (2003, p. 179) noted that as "children, siblings, or elderly family members require care, obligation to meet their needs can influence family roles" and ultimately create familywork conflict (FWC). Watson, Srisupandit & Tung (2002, p. 5) noted that the increasing elderly population and the shrinking size of the family have "left caregivers with fewer siblings to help with aging parents and longer time periods to care for family members of the sandwich generation." "According to the National Partnership for Women & Families, 67% of Americans under 60 expect to care for an aged relative in the next 10 years, up from 25% who were caregivers in 1997" (Park, 2005, p. 86). "Family responsibilities, too, typically still fall more heavily on women, and neither society nor employers have found good ways to mesh those with job demands" (Bernstein, 2004, p. 58). Two growing types of elder care add additional family stress, namely, long-distance care, for an estimated seven million Americans (Shellenbarger, 2004b), or inhome care, provided by 24% of American caregivers (Shellenbarger, 2004a). Research in this area has been done by, among others, Gerstel and Gallagher (1993), Jansen et al. (2003), Kossek, Colquitt and Noe (2001), Kossek and Ozeki (1998), Lee, Walker and Shoup (2001), Marks (1998), and Shoptaugh, Phelps and Visio (2004).

Research on WFC has reached the selling/sales management literature, with a number of factors being studied, including work environment and mental health (Borg & Kristensen, 1999), salesforce culture, role conflict and turnover (Jackson, Tax & Barnes, 1994), coping strategies and WFC (Nonis & Sager, 2003), turnover intentions (Good, Page & Young, 1996; Good, Sisler & Gentry, 1988; Netemeyer, Brashear-Alejandro & Boles, 2004) and job satisfaction (Boles, Wood and Johnson, 2003; Namasivayam and Mount, 2004).

Students today have incorporated mobile phones and other technology into their every day life. It is uncertain if technology will help resolve some of the work-family conflict, or change it into different stresses and/or conflicts. Being accessible through technology 24/7 has added to their personal time management issues and has necessitated reevaluating work and family conflicts.

"Technostress (also known as technophobia and computer anxiety) manifests itself in two distinct but related ways: the struggle to accept computer technology and over-identification with technology" (Tu, Wang and Shu, 2005, p. 78). Ragu-Nathan, et al. (2004) identified five components of technostress, including "*Techno-invasion*. Technology invading personal lives, so less time is spent with family or on vacation, giving the time over instead to learning about new technology" (Tu, Wang and Shu, 2005, pp. 78-79). Some research was found in terms of the influence of technology on salesperson's careers and role conflict (e.g. see Boles & Sunoo, 1998; Prewitt, 1998; Speier and Venkatesh, 2002). Salesperson technophobia was found to be related to age and education level of salesperson and was a contributing factor to increased role stress (Rich, 2000).

Since the terrorism attacks on September 11, 2001, and given the subsequent passage of the Patriot Act along with Sarbanes Oxley Act of 2002 (AICPA, 2005), the authors decided to investigate attitudes toward computer security issues both at home and in the sales office. Recent security breaches on corporate computers, as well as laptops in the field, has made data protection and security critical if information technology is to continue to play a role in the sales person's activities in the field. Personnel in the information technology field are very concerned about the salespersons' understanding of the need to protect their laptops and especially the data on the laptops.

Research on student attitudes toward sales as a career has been conducted since 1958. Negative images, due in large part to stereotypical portrayal of salespeople in books, movies and other mass media, were found by practitioners and academicians alike. Later studies revealed a more positive attitude toward sales as a career. Research also expanded to include preferences, crosscultural differences, and demographic differences (racial, gender). For excellent reviews of student-based career perception research, see the works of DelVecchio and Honeycutt, 2000; Kavas, 2003; Sohail and Bradmore, 2003; and Stevens and Macintosh, 2002-2003.

Based on the literature review and the anecdotal experiences of the authors, the purpose of the study was two-fold: first, to add to the body of knowledge regarding students' perceptions of salespersons' careers; and second, to assess the students' perception of the impact of information technology and security issues on salesperson's lives.

METHODOLOGY

A four page cover letter and questionnaire designed in November 2003 and pretested on eight students in an upper-level Marketing class at a southern regional university. As a result of the pretest, wording on the two technology usage questions was changed from "use computers" to a broader, less confusing, "use any kind of technology". For the three questions regarding how far respondents lived from family members, the response categories were changed from region of the state to distance in miles (less than 20, less than 60, less than 100, or greater than or equal to 100).

The final version of the Institutional Research Board-approved booklet-format questionnaire contained 28 questions. The first 10 questions addressed the following topics: length of employment with current employer, travel expectations of job, extent of travel, hours worked per week, work schedule flexibility, use of technology at work and at home for work purposes, online work assessment, and percentage of time spent on sales tasks (selling, meetings, paperwork, etc.).

The next three questions consisted of five-point scale items. A search of the three volumes of the *Marketing Scales Handbook* yielded two scales that appeared to be appropriate for the authors' assessment of family-related issues. Chonko and Burnett (1983) developed a 27-item scale that measured role conflict (Bruner & Hensel, 1998). One segment (four items) from Chonko and Burnett's scale was used in our study as question #11; this segment represented Factor 3: Family, and required time spent working, socializing (with customers and other salespeople), and traveling. Responses were measured on a five-point scale ranging from "Complete agreement" to "No agreement."

Good, Page and Young (1996) used a 13-item scale adapted from Fournier (1981) to measure work and family conflict (as noted in Bruner, James & Hensel, 2001). The items addressed self-image and esteem, impact on productivity, spousal career conflict, and contentment with current city. A five-point Likert-type scale was used to measure responses, ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Agree strongly," with "Not applicable" as the fifth scale point. Since specific questions that measured the impact of family members' health on one's sales career could not be found, four questions were added to the work and family conflict scale: health of spouse/significant other, health of parents or spouse's parents, health of children, and anticipation of career move/change due to health issues in next five years. Question #12 thus consisted of 17 statements.

A search of the literature did not reveal any scales that were up-to-date and relevant to current technology issues (security, training, viruses, and computer usage). Therefore, for question #13, the authors developed a 12-item Likert-type scale, using the same five-point scale that was used by Good, Page and Young (1996), to measure work and family conflict possibly stemming from technology-related issues.

The final series of questions (14-28) dealt with demographics, including gender, age, marital status, number of children, state of residence, and education, computer usage (number at home, Internet access), and family information (parents living, distance from parents, distance from children, and primary caregiver).

RESULTS: OVERVIEW

Surveys were completed by 52 students in two upper-level marketing classes during December 2003. Over half of the respondents were women (29/51, 56.9%) and 44 (86.3%) were less than 25 years old. Most were single (43/51, 84.3%) and more than six out of ten had some college education (32/51, 62.7%). Only four students indicated that they had children (4/51, 7.8%); of these, all four had one child each, and three of the children were under the age of 18. Most of the students were from one state (48/50, 96%). Half of those who responded had one computer at home (25/50) and another 16 (32%)had two computers at home. Most had internet access at home (49/51, 96.1%); 22 (22/49, 44.9%) used dial-up to access the internet while 16 (32.7%) used a cable modem. Most of the students (46/51, 90.2%) reported that both parents were still living, and over 60% (32/51) lived less than 60 miles from their parents. Five students (5/49, 10.2%) indicated that they were the primary caregiver for their parents. No significant differences by gender were found when cross tabulations were run on age, education, and other demographic variables.

Many of the students that participated in the survey are employed. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for their employment status.

Table Descriptive Statistics	e 1 Emplo	wmen	t Stat	119	
Variable	Mean	S	Median	Mode	c
Length of employment (months)	25.21	20.17	24	6	43
Hours worked per week	27.19	10.09	27.5	20	49

The respondents have been with their present employers just over two years. Over four-fifths of the students (43/51; 84.3%)do not have to travel as part of their jobs. Frequency of travel was evenly spread out from several times a week to monthly or less. Of the eight students who indicated that they had to travel, five (62.5%) said that their travel did not require an overnight stay. Respondents averaged 27.19 hours of work per week, with one person reporting 70 hours a week as his/her workload. Over threefourths of the students (40/52; 76.9%) indicated that they had a flexible work schedule. Most (80.8%) reported daily usage of any kind of technology (computers, registers, etc.) at work; meanwhile, 21 (40.4%) reported using technology at home for work on a daily basis versus 13 (25%) who rarely used it at home. Over half (27/50; 54%) indicated that their use of the Internet for work is more than it was a year ago; while 21 students said their Internet work usage had remained the same.

One of the issues that this study focused on was the student's perceptions about how a salesperson spends his/her time. Table 2 summarizes the students' estimates about a salesperson's time obligations.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics How Time is Spent (Given in Percentages)

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	с
Time spent on:					
selling	29.50	25.81	30	0	48
meetings	7.17	10.96	0	0	48
traveling	4.96	10.88	0	0	47
entertaining	8.91	13.19	I	0	47
sales follow-up	8.62	13.93	I	0	47
professional development	7.81	11.90	0	0	47
paperwork	21.17	26.40	10	0	47

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics
Participant's Perception of Health-Related Concerns

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	c
Able to do things as well as others	3.61	0.63	4	4	51
Personal concerns reduce productivity	2.16	0.77	2	2	50
Family has resources to meet desired lifestyle	3.24	0.72	3	3	50
Spouse's job/career conflicts with mine	1.92	0.91	2	2	25
I certainly feel useless at times	2.10	0.90	2	2,3	49
Family problems cause loss of time at work	1.58	0.66	I	I	45
Inclined to feel like I'm a failure	1.38	0.67	I	I	50
Nervous/tense/frustrated when I get home	2.06	0.87	2	2	50
Take a positive attitude toward myself	3.40	0.57	3	3	52
I am satisfied with myself	3.44	0.58	3	3,4	50
Spouse is content with his/her work status	2.91	1.14	3	4	21
I'm content with spouse's work status	2.92	1.08	3	3,4	25
I'm content with city in which I live	2.92	0.81	3	3	49
Spouse's health has affected my career plans	1.74	0.86	2	I, 2	27
Kid's health affected my career plans	2.60	1.08	3	3	10
Parents' health affected my career plans	1.72	0.97	I	I	36
Make career move due to family health	1.77	0.97	I	I	35

Respondents were then presented with the questions borrowed from the scales mentioned in the Methodology section, plus the set of questions on technology issues developed by the authors. Before proceeding to the scale-based questions, respondents were given the following definition:

For this next section of questions, "family" refers not just to your spouse or significant other, but also to your children, your parents and/or in-laws, and any other significant people that would make up your "extended" family.

Four questions dealt with perceptions of salesperson-family agreement on time spent on four primary salespersons' activities: working, socializing with customers, socializing with other salespeople, and traveling (see Chonko & Burnett, 1983). Means ranged from 2.14 for time spent working to 2.54 for time spent traveling (see Table 3). Respondents felt there was very much agreement between them and family members on how they spent their time in these four areas.

Descr	Table	3 Statistio	2S		
Salesperson-Family	Agreer	nent or	n the T	ime Sp	pent
Variable	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	с
Time spent:					
working	2.14	1.06	2	I	51
socializing with customers	2.22	1.12	2	I	51
socializing with other salespeople	2.22	1.18	2	I	50
traveling	2.54	1.59	2	I	50

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics
Information Technology and Security Issues

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	c
Using computers is more important in job	3.18	0.95	3	4	49
Required to login using password at work*	3.23	1.05	4	4	44
Required to login when accessing from home*	2.97	1.14	3	4	34
Spouse uses home computer for work*	2.64	1.08	3	3	25
Family uses computer for non-work activities	3.56	0.71	4	4	50
Time on computer takes away from family*	2.23	1.03	2	2	44
Company is overly concerned about security	2.45	0.94	2	2	42
I'm concerned about work computer security	2.18	0.91	2	2	39
I'm concerned about home computer security*	2.56	1.03	3	2	45
Company provides adequate training*	2.68	1.07	3	3	40
Careful to ensure work anti-virus is up- to-date*	2.93	1.05	3	3,4	42
Careful to ensure home anti-virus is up- to-date	3.20	1.00	3	4	49

As stated earlier, 13 WFC questions (Good, Page & Young, 1996) and four health-related questions developed by the authors were measured on a five-point scale, where I =Strongly disagree, 4 = Agree strongly, and 5 = Not applicable. For purposes of analysis, any "5" score was dropped, leaving a four-point scale. As seen in Table 4, respondents tended to agree with positive self-related statements (able to do things, family has resources to support lifestyle, take a positive attitude, satisfied with myself) and spousal career statements (spouse content with his/her job, I'm content with spouse's job). Respondents tended to disagree with negative self-related statements (feel useless, feel like a failure), work-home conflict statements (spouse's career conflicts with mine, feel tense when get home), and three health-related career-impact statements (health issues affecting career plans). There were some points of indecision, however. Respondents were torn between agreement and disagreement over "the health of my children has affected my career plans." Also, while much agreement was found with satisfaction with spouse's work (spouse's viewpoint and respondent's viewpoint), the standard deviation for both was over 1.0, indicating some minority disagreement with these issues. Table 4 provides the descriptive statistics of the participants' perception of healthrelated concerns.

Finally, with regard to the technology issues (see Table 5), respondents tended to agree or agree strongly with these issues: using computers is more important in my job today; have to login with a password at work; have to use a password when logging in to the company's computer system from home*; family members use the home computer for non-work activities; and being careful about having anti-virus software up-to-date both at work* and at home. Those marked with an asterisk (*) had standard deviations larger than 1.0, indicating some minority disagreement. Participants tended to disagree with: time spent on computer takes away from family time and I am concerned about my organization's computer security. Students were torn between agreement and disagreement over: company is overly concerned about computer security; I'm concerned about computer security at home; company gave me adequate computer training; and my spouse uses the home computer for work.

Given the scope of the exploratory research undertaken, the authors decided to focus on significant differences by gender and work schedule flexibility in this paper. For the scale-based questions, the t test for two independent samples was selected over the Mann-Whitney U test, though there is the risk of violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption and the sample sizes varied above and below 30 (see Sheskin 1997, pp. 153 and 181). Since we did not hypothesize any directional differences, twotailed probabilities were used.

RESULTS SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES

Turning first to gender differences, two significant differences were discovered for percentage of time spent in various sales-related tasks. Women students tended to spend more time on professional development (11.8% vs. 2.5%, t = -2.809, p < .01) and paperwork tasks (27.2% vs. 13.7%, t = -1.744, p < .09). With regard to family versus student agreement on time spent on various sales activities, women students indicated moderate agreement over how much time they spent on job-related travel, while men students indicated very much agreement (2.96 vs. 2.09, t = -1.96, p < .06). No significant differences by gender were found with regard to the 13 WFC questions, or with regard to the four health-related questions.

One significant gender difference was found with regard to the technology issues questions. Women strongly agreed that computers are more important in their jobs today, while men only agreed with the statement (3.39 vs. 2.90, t = -1.795, p < .08). No other significant differences were found by gender.

Next work schedule flexibility was evaluated, two significant differences were found with respect to time spent on activities. Those students with fixed work schedules tended to have higher levels of agreement with family members on the time they spent socializing with other sales representatives (1.64 vs. 2.385, t = -1.90, p < .07) and time spent on job-related travel (1.73 vs. 2.77, t = -1.97, p < .06).

With regard to the WFC questions, significant differences were found for two questions. Those with a fixed work schedule indicated more differences in agreement over their spouses' jobs conflicting with their jobs, while those with flexible schedules tended to deny any conflict existed (2.43 vs. 1.72, t = 1.827, p < .09). Those with a fixed work schedule tended to agree more that they had a positive attitude toward themselves than did those with a flexible schedule (3.67 vs. 3.325, t = 1.868, p < .07). No significant differences were found with regard to the health-related questions.

Two significant differences with respect to technology issues were found by schedule flexibility. Those with fixed work schedules were more in agreement with these statements: I must login from home to access my organization's computer (3.625 vs. 2.77, t = 1.93, p < .07) and I am more careful to make sure my work computer's antivirus software is up-to-date (3.5 vs. 2.75, t = 2.057, p < .05).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations that need to be addressed first. The analyses were limited by the small sample size of 52 (or fewer, depending on variable and analytical method). The sample is not a representative sample, since it was a convenience sample and also drawn from a small region of the United States. The study also is affected by the use of borrowed scales and the appropriateness of added items (see Engelland, Alford & Taylor, 2001 for cautions in such use). In hindsight, the 10-item sales activity classification taxonomy developed by Moncrief (1986) should, perhaps, have been used instead of the sales tasks developed by the authors. The scale items also need to be carefully examined through factor analysis and reliability analysis which requires a larger sample size.

CONCLUSIONS

Students did seem to understand that more than half of their time in sales would be spent on selling and paperwork tasks. They may have underestimated the amount of time that would be spent on travel, although with the expanded use of technology, traveling may not be as prevalent in the future. Women students may see the value of professional development more so than males. Most of the students were not working full-time and tended to have flexible schedules therefore they may not be cognizant of work pressures in most sales careers. However, this may have resulted in them picking up on time-based conflict with their families. If one is working on a fixed schedule, the family may be able to establish daily routine patterns. If one spouse has a fixed work schedule and the other one doesn't, this could lead to more stress and conflict. Women students may be feeling the "catch 22" of job expectations versus home expectations here. Most of the students felt that there was agreement between the salesperson and the family about the time commitments with the job. The authors felt that the students

were very naïve about what happens in the real world. It is also unclear about the impact of children's health on students' career plans. With regard to technology issues, there was more agreement than disagreement amongst the students that technology is a part of the job and will have an expanded use in the future.

Even though this was an exploratory study, there are some results that should be of interest to instructors and students. This article or the results from this study could be shared with students to get their opinions and to help them better think about what it would be like to have a future in sales. The next step would be to test whether or not these significant differences between men and women will be maintained, expanded, or minimized with a larger sample size. A wider geographic range of participants is also warranted. The scales need to be tested and further refined by other researchers. A factor analysis of the scales, followed by reliability assessment, is the next step for the authors. More data is also being gathered by the authors as one of several next steps in this vein of research.

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Concept Matrix Approach to Teaching Management Information Systems

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was twofold. One, to experiment in the classroom with different note taking methods that hopefully would allow students to better synthesize the material presented in an introductory management information systems course. And two, to reinvigorate the instructor after teaching the introductory management information systems course for about twenty years. Students in two sections of an introductory management information systems course in using mind mapping, concept matrices, and adding notes to power point lectures. Then each class voted as to their preferred method of note taking. One section selected adding notes to power point lectures and the other section selected concept matrices. The students were given pre and post tests over the course content. The results of this small exploratory study showed minimal impact from the change in instruction methodology. Anecdotally, the students liked learning about the different approaches and used them in other settings.

INTRODUCTION

This study began when the author was involved in a reading group sponsored by the faculty development center. The group read Maryellen Weimer's book: Learner-Centered Teaching (2002). In a discussion on developing independent learners, the idea of using concept maps and concept matrices to help the learner categorize content for better understanding was briefly mentioned (p. 172). This sparked the author's interest and curiosity, which led to researching concept maps and matrices use in the classroom. The research evolved into an exploratory study that experimented with different note taking methodologies and used two sections of an introductory management information systems (MIS) course. These classes meet in a computer lab where each student is at a workstation. It can be frustrating teaching in a lab environment when you know that many of the students are checking email, playing games, surfing the Internet or doing other work. Keeping the student's attention during class is not a unique situation to introductory MIS courses. In John Schwartz's article, "Professors Vie With Web for Class's Attention" in The New York Times, (2003) he stated that "professors say the technology poses a growing challenge for them: retaining their students' attention." Most teachers know that distraction is not new; however, the computer technology now gives the student access to greater time wasters, at least from the teacher's perspective. Professor Mallek at American University said "As a professor if you are not productively engaging them, they have other opportunities" (Schwartz, 2003). Therefore, finding an activity that required the students to use the computer during lectures would be beneficial to the students' learning process and hopefully less frustrating to the instructor.

In addition, the author has been working on moving the MIS classes from being teacher-centered to a more student- or learner-centered classroom environment. Moving to a student-centered course requires that the students assume responsibility for their learning. The teacher is there to help and facilitate the learning but no longer is up in front of the class lecturing, except where this is appropriate. This is not an easy transition, and it requires changing

not only the teacher but also how the students think of the class. One way to do this is to help the students learn techniques or strategies that enable them to have a better understanding of the material and how to learn the material, beyond memorizing definitions and studying the night before the exam. In an article by Nancy Romance and Michael Vitale (1999), they suggested "concept mapping techniques as a strategy to include conceptual course content as a complement to student-centered activities (p. 74)."

Given the resources available in the computer lab, research was done to see what kinds of teaching strategies could be incorporated into the introductory MIS class. The author found the following approaches would be viable and could be done with the software currently available to the students. These approaches were concept maps (Visio[®]), concept matrices (MS Word[®]), flowcharting (Visio[®]), and adding notes to power point presentations (MS Power Point[®]). As tempting as it would be to have the students do flowcharts in this course, the author decided that it would not be as attractive as the other approaches. The following sections explain these approaches and how they were used in the course. The three approaches that were presented to the students are concept maps, concept matrices, and notes on power point and are briefly explained.

NOTE TAKING METHODOLOGIES CONCEPT MAPS

When thinking about writing a paper or organizing material, one could begin by doing an outline. In spite of an outline, our brain may not work in the outline format. We think of a topic then leap frog to another topic that is related but does not directly follow the first topic. It can be very frustrating for us to try to organize our ideas to begin writing a paper that should have a logical format. In today's age of word processing this is easier, since we can jump from section to section. But it would still be nice to be able to conceptualize our ideas into a format that shows the relationships between the ideas without forcing any organization. The concept map is one way of putting down our ideas and their relationships, which can then be moved to a logical outline for our paper.

What is a concept map? A concept map is a visual model of a topic. It will visually show through the use of nodes and links how the various categories or characteristics relate to each other without a formalized structure. This idea of drawing a visual model of a topic, concept or idea originates from G.A. Miller's work on the notion of chunking (Alpert, 2003), where working human memory handles seven active groups, and to access additional pieces of data or information our memory must expand on the active groups to obtain greater detail. It is this idea of chunking together key concepts and then exploding each of the key concepts into specific characteristics that gives the concept map its appeal.

Nancy Romance and Michael Vitale (1999) looked at the research on the application of concept mappings. One finding from the use of concept maps in the sciences included a consistent correlation between the quality of the concept map and other course assessments. They also noted the weakness of the time required to develop concept maps and that for some students this was not an attractive technique.

This idea has many different terms depending on the developer. In education the term is usually concept map, concept web (Freeman & Urbaczewski, 2001), or sometimes knowledge map. In business you often hear the term mind mapping stemming from Tony Buzan's work (Buzan & Buzan, 1996).

Concept maps can be drawn on paper or by using several software packages. Visio[®] does support the drawing of concept maps but it is not as easy as some of the other software packages. Other software that supports concept maps are Inspiration^{*}, Webster^{*}, and SemNet^{*}.

For the first introduction to concept maps the author explained what concept maps were and how to draw them. The author felt that having the students learn Visio[®] before completing their first concept map would waste time, since the concept map would be lost as the students focused on learning Visio[®]. After the students completed their first concept map on paper, Visio[®] was taught and the students took the instructor's concept map into Visio[®]. The instructor's concept map was used so that the instructions given to the students would be applicable for all students. At the end of the class students were given five minutes to create their own concept maps in Visio[®]. This was not enough time and most students just left the lab.

The following steps were adapted from an article found on the Internet from the Grayson H. Walker Teaching Resource Center (2003).

Steps in Preparing Concept Maps

- Write down major terms or concepts about a topic
- ► Identify the most general, intermediate, and specific concepts
- Begin drawing the concept maps:
- ▷ Concepts are circles (nodes)
- ▷ Place the most general concepts at the top
- Place intermediate concepts below general concepts
- Put specific concepts on bottom
- Draw lines between related concepts
- Label the lines with words defining the relationship and arrows to show direction
- For each specific concept draw or identify an application
- Revise the map if necessary

CONCEPT MATRICES

Concept matrices, while similar to concept maps, use a grid structure. Maryellen Weimer (2002) defined the matrices as "a grid with defining characteristics across one axis and categories on the other (p. 174)." Jyostsna Kinnard (2003) in her article describes a "HyperDim Research Grid." This grid is a "non-linear, multi-dimensional tool that can be used as an electronic notepad for brainstorming, as a centralized repository of ideas for group projects; or as a medium to link concepts, lend perspective, and help students understand historical trends (p. 3)." The grid represents four quadrants. She used "features, impact, opportunities, and trends (p. 3)" in her IT courses. This grid is a tool to help students organize the concepts and how they are related. Other references to concept matrices were for mathematical, engineering or project management and didn't specifically relate to this use of a matrix. There was one software application called the Mind Matrix[®], which is a Java application, but it was not available to the students in our computer lab.

The author decided to approach the development of a concept matrix in class using MS Word[®]. The other choice would have been MS Excel[®]. Initially the students in the introductory MIS course are more familiar with MS Word[®], although they typically have not spent much time developing and working with tables. Since the author stresses applications, not just identification of terms, the following column headings were used: concepts, categories, characteristics, applications. An example of the concept matrix is shown in Appendix A.

The following steps were developed by the author for use in the MIS courses.

Steps in Preparing Concept Matrices

- Create a table in MS Word[®] that has 4 columns and 10 rows (the number of rows can be expanded later if necessary)
- Create the following column headings: Concepts, Categories, Characteristics, Applications
- Identify the main concepts of the chapter
- Identify the categories under each concept
- Specify the characteristics of each category
- Define an application for each of the characteristics
- Revise the matrix if necessary

NOTES ON MS POWER POINT®

The author had traditionally taught this course using a Power Point presentation covering the chapter concepts. Many students have printed out the power point presentation and take notes on the paper. Other students felt they could print the presentation out any time, so they were free to do other things in class. This created a very frustrating experience for some of the students and the instructor. To give the students an activity to do while the lecture was going on, the students were taught how to add notes to the Power Point presentation.

Steps in Adding Notes to a MS Power Point[®] Presentation

- Open the power point presentation
- Click so that the normal view is displayed
- Use the mouse to decrease the size of the power point slide, which increases the note taking section

- Place the cursor under the power point slide in the blank section
- Add notes to the power point presentation
- ► At the end of the session, save your file on your own disk.
- ► To print out the note pages select: File, Print, Print What, Note Pages, OK

THE EXPLORATORY STUDY

The author felt that the three teaching strategies explained above would be a viable approach to use in an MIS class scheduled in a computer lab. And that any of the three methodologies would engage the students during the lectures. It was not possible during the study to deviate from the lecture format since that was the expectation of the students and other faculty members. However the author decided to try an experiment with two sections of the introductory MIS course. The class would be taught how to do concept maps and concept matrices, and add notes to Power Point[®] presentations. Explaining the three approaches was time consuming and took the first two full weeks of classes to do this while covering and recovering chapter 1. Since the first chapter covered all of the concepts to be covered in more detail throughout the semester, the author did not feel that this was necessarily a bad thing.

As stated, the semester began by the author explaining to the students the various teaching approaches in general and the format for the exploratory study. If the students wanted to participate in the study, they could take the test at the beginning of the semester (pre-test) and again at the end of the semester (post-test). As an incentive if the students took the pre-test they would earn five bonus points. Five bonus points were also given at the end of the semester for taking the post-test. The course grading schema used 800 points so the 10 bonus points would not adversely inflate the grades for the course.

The first approach taught was taking notes using Power Point[®]. This was done first since it would be the most familiar approach for the students, thereby getting them comfortable using the computers in the lab. The second approach presented was the concept matrix. Again, chapter 1 was covered. The students were given the basic template with the concepts, categories and characteristics completed by the instructor. The student then added the applications for each characteristic. These were in the student's words to give the concepts personal meaning. The third approach taught was the concept map. Since Visio was not a software tool that most of the students were familiar with, the first concept map was done on paper; using colored pencils was optional. The students were then shown how to take their paper maps and put them into Visio. This was very slow and the students were frustrated many times. On hindsight, the use of Visio® should have be postponed until the decision was made on what teaching strategy was to be used in each section.

The next action required the students to participate by voting, electronically, on which approach the class should take for the remainder of the semester. The instructor, when asked if they could change later in the semester, agreed that if the class wanted a revote, that could be done at any time it was requested by at least 3 students in the class. After the votes were completed each section decided to use a different approach. The results of the votes are presented in Table 1. Section 6 clearly chose the concept matrices approach and section 7 clearly chose adding notes to Power Point.

The instructor did lecture differently for each section. For section 7, Power Point slides were used and to keep the instructor

Table 1 Student Voting Results for Teaching Approach to Be Used					
Section	Class Size (N)	Notes	Maps	Matrices	Didn't Vote
6	36	4	2	27	3
7	34	23	4	3	4

on topic. For section 6, initially a concept matrix was used with the concepts, categories, and characteristics given the students. Then after the first exam or the completion of one fourth of the course material, the students were given the concepts and categories. After the second exam, the students were given the concepts only. After the third exam, the students had to fill in all of the columns. The instructor would lecture using slides from the textbook to illustrate key points and to provide some direction for the lecture. Initially students asked what would be examples of applications, but about one third of the way into the semester, the class would throw out suggestions for applications. This was very helpful, since it got the students talking and paying attention in class. Also they enjoyed being the ones who suggested applications that everyone else thought was good enough to put in their matrices.

Neither the Power Point[®] notes nor the concept matrices were collected by the instructor. A couple of times during the semester the instructor would ask to see examples of their work but it was not for grading, just a reminder to keep them on task during class. In looking at the student evaluations of the course during the following summer, there were several comments that the notes or the matrices should have been collected for points since they were a lot of work. It would have been nice to be able to compare the students who had this comment to their final grade. Anecdotally, the students who did very well in the course, commented that it was worthwhile to do either approach so they had their notes to study for the exams.

Towards the end of the semester the instructor was reading about teaching approaches and that no one approach works for every students. Many researchers are tying teaching approaches to student learning styles (Sutliff & Baldwin, 2001; Wilson & Cole, 1996, BizEd, 2003). Students were asked to go to two web sites and determine their learning styles using the Myers Briggs scale (www.typefocus.com) and the DVC four learning styles (www. metamath.com/lsweb/fourls.htm). The Myers Briggs scale brought back four dimensions; this study used the introvert or extrovert classification, the first of the four dimensions. The other Myers Briggs dimensions are sensing or intuition , thinking or feeling, judgment or perception. The four Myers Briggs dimensions could not be used due to cell size problems. The DVC four learning styles looked at visual, auditory, kinesthetic and tactile dimensions.

The concept comprehension pre- and post-tests given at the beginning and end of the semester were identical. The test was made up of 30 multiple choice questions from the instructor's test bank. The test covered all the material to be covered during the semester. Students were assured that at the beginning of the semester they were not expected to know the answers.

RESULTS

The study looked at many different data items for analysis: the pre-test score of correct answers, post-test score of correct answers, difference score between the pre- and post- test, the student's age, gender, the student's learning style - introvert or extrovert, and visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile or balanced. In addition the students' grades on exams and course assignments were input to see if there was a correlation between the teaching approach and individual grades on assignments and exams. The classes began with 36 students in section 6 (matrix) and 34 students in section 7 (ppt). Twenty-one students from section 6 (matrix) completed the pre- and post-tests, while only sixteen students from section 7 (ppt) completed the pre- and post-tests. These were the only participants used in the statistical analysis. Twenty-four of the participants were female and thirteen were male. The student ages ranged from 19 to 43. Thirty of the participants were under 28 years old. Ten students were 23 years old.

Using cross tabs and chi-square analysis there was no difference between the sections by gender, age, pre-test, post-test or grade. In addition there was no difference between the sections by learning style for either the DVC four learning styles scale or the Myers Briggs scale for introvert or extrovert. And there was no difference between the DVC four learning styles scale and the Myers Briggs by gender. Additionally, there was no significant differences between the sections for the grading components or the total points earned. Therefore, we can conclude that the sections were homogeneous.

There was a marginally significant difference in the post-test score by gender. Female students did better than male students (16.7 vs. 14.3). The women's score had a significant improvement between the pre-test and post-test (14.25 to 16.7) whereas the men's score dropped but it was not significant. The women in section 6's (matrix) score improved from 14.4 to 16.5 and the women in section 7's (ppt) score improved from 14 to 17. The score for the pre-test, post-test, and difference is the number answered correctly. For example, 14.4 means that the average was 14.4 questions answered correctly. The men in section 7 (ppt) improved from 15.1 to 16.7. Introverted students tended to have higher pretest scores in section 6 (matrix) than the extroverts (p = .10). Introverts earned more points on the pre-test and for the difference score (p = .10). In section 6 (matrix) kinesthetic and tactile had marginally higher post-test scores. Auditory, visual, and those students that were balanced between the four dimensions scored marginally lower on the post-test.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations of this exploratory study. The first one is that student grades were not affected by the teaching approach. This could be good from the students' and instructor's perspective, since this would suggest that instructors can try different teaching approaches and not adversely affect the student's final grade. The exploratory study was designed to not be reflected in the students' grades; however, having the post-test be a factor in grade determination may have eliminated guessing or not really trying to answer the questions correctly. On the other side the author felt that this just suggested that course assessments may not truly assess the level of concept mastery by the students. Or verify that they know the material well enough to build on it in future courses and/ or after graduation.

The other limitation of the study is the number of participants and the lack of a section using the concept maps. The author has been doing the same approach for several semesters but has not had the luxury of having two sections of the introductory MIS course since the Spring 2003 semester. The students have been allowed to do any of the approaches; however, Visio® has not been taught. In addition, the first chapter has not been repeated three times as during the experimental semester. The instructor covers creating concept maps and matrices, and how to add notes to the power point lectures using different chapters. One student who received the highest grade in class sent the instructor an email that stated, "I really like the concept matrices and I did them for each section in the course. The matrices really helped me understand how the material was related and putting the applications in my own words helped me remember what the characteristics meant for the exams." I thanked her for her comment and asked if she would recommend them to other students. Her reply was "YES."

Other student comments sent to the instructor from the study group via email acknowledged that trying new teaching approaches was appreciated by some of the students. For example, ED stated "I'm thankful that a teacher would care enough to try something new in the classroom." JD sent "I didn't like the mind maps but I was talking about them to my boss. She has a son with learning problems and she thought this might help him. She asked if you had any references, so she can learn more about mind mapping." And JB commented "I liked the mind maps but maybe it was just the colored pencils. Anyway I wanted to let you know I will be doing these on my own. Can I borrow some of your colored pencils?"

CONCLUSIONS

This is an exploratory study, which the author undertook for two reasons: to evaluate different teaching approaches and to re-energize the instructor. From the instructor's perspective this really did require a new methodology to teaching, openness to student decision making and control over the course, and to really look at the introductory management information systems course material. The instructor's bad habits showed up and some were caught by the students in the section using the concept matrices. This study did not overwhelming convince the author or other colleagues that changing our teaching approach will improve the students' learning of the material. Then again, it showed that what we do in the classroom may not positively affect the students but it didn't negatively affect them either. About the same number of students from the two introductory sections went on to the next course in the MIS sequence, Database Management, as usually do.

The feedback from students indicated that they were pleased to try something new. No negative comments were sent to the instructor either through email or through the student evaluations. In asking other colleagues, they did not hear negative comments about the experiment. Would the author recommend other instructors try this: YES without reservation. But be aware it is more time consuming and risky for the instructor. However, this teacher has been re-energized about teaching and no longer feels that the classes have to be the same: that both the instructor and students can be taught new teaching approaches.

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APPENDIX A AN EXAMPLE OF A PARTIAL CONCEPT MATRIX

Deterrents To Online Academic Dishonesty

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ABSTRACT

Technological innovation offers numerous opportunities to the 21st century. In a knowledge-based society, employers are increasingly demanding their workforce to achieve further education. Educational institutions in the nation and around the world strive to meet the needs of employers with online delivery of courses and programs. The flexibility of online courses offers a number of benefits but with it comes some downfalls that need to be addressed. One of the most prevalent difficulties encountered by online faculty members is the problem of maintaining academic integrity.

Online courses offer unique opportunities for students to commit acts of academic dishonesty. Nationwide, the increase in cheating in our schools has received significant press. While the research is mixed as to how prevalent cheating is in online courses in comparison to the traditional classroom, it is an issue that requires a proactive rather than reactive response. Faculty members at Northwest Missouri State University have met this challenge head on. This paper offers measures proven to prevent and deter academic dishonesty in online courses.

CHEATING: AN EPIDEMIC ON COLLEGE CAMPUSES

Cheating on college campuses is a long-standing problem that is intensifying. The number of students reporting that they have engaged in serious cheating continues to increase at an alarming rate. Research by Niels found evidence of correlation between academic dishonesty and academic practices around the nation (Niels, 1997). Olt reported an alarming 10-point increase from a previous survey conducted 15 years ago from Who's Who Among American High School Students indicating 80 percent of the 3,123 students surveyed admitted to cheating on an exam (Olt, 2002). U.S. News & World Report presented a disturbing story in the November 1999 cover page entitled "A New Epidemic of Fraud is Sweeping Through Our Schools" (Kleiner & Lord, 1999). Bushweller offered an astonishing 50 percent of the students surveyed did not perceive cheating as necessarily wrong, and 95 percent of those who had cheated stated that they have never been caught (Bushweller, 1999). The Center for Academic Integrity at Duke University found similar results when 75 percent of all college students confessed to cheating at least once (Kleiner & Lord, 1999). The Rutgers' Management Education Center conducted a national survey and found three quarters of the 4,500 high school students they polled admitted to engaging in serious cheating (Slobogin, 2002). McCabe of Rutgers University found that cheating at colleges had doubled since the early 1960s (Carroll, 2002). Koch offered the most staggering statistic of 20 - 30% of college undergrads cheat on a regular basis (Koch, 2002). Based on the literature, it appeared

that McCabe's conclusion was once again proven right "...that these results indicate that dishonesty appear to not carry the stigma that it used to (McCabe, 1999).

A major reason students continue to cheat is that they rarely get caught. In 1999, McCabe interviewed 1,000 faculty members from 21 campuses and nearly a third admitted to observing cheating in their classes yet doing nothing about it (Koch, 2002). Even schools with strict honor codes are not exempt from the tendency to avoid taking action against academic dishonesty. At the University of Virginia, two surveys indicated "significant number of students and professors who'd be unlikely to take action if they suspected cheating" (Cheating Thrive, USA Today, May, 2001). Fear of lawsuits, time required to handle cheating incidents, and lack of institutional rewards for catching cheating are all listed as rationalizations for this behavior (Koch 2002).

ONLINE CHEATING

Carneval posits that advancement of technology offers students more efficient ways to cheat, but fortunately, the same technology also affords instructors with new tools to identify acts of academic dishonesty (Carneval, 1999). The inception of online education led to the rapid growth of dotcoms involved in the sales of prewritten and custom tailored term papers or the so-called digital paper mills. Paper mills such as Schoolsucks.com, PaperTopics. com, and Cheathouse.com offer recycled papers and custom tailor assignments to students at a rate of \$20 to \$35 per page (Heberling,

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2002). The Paper Store Enterprises Inc. doing business under www.termpapers-on-file.com claims to offer "the largest catalog of expertly-researched model term papers all written by our company after 1995" (Heberling, 2002). The Paper Store Enterprises Inc. offers their service at \$9.95 per page for pre-existing papers to \$19.95 per page for custom research (Heberling, 2002). It does not matter if the price per page is \$9.95 or \$35, paper mills are lucrative businesses and one such paper mill, Schoolsucks.com, professes to have been profitable "from Day 1" (Groark, Oblinger, & Choa, 2001). Several of these sites claim their papers are guaranteed to beat plagiarism software programs and services. According to Anderson, although paper mills do not outwardly endorse cheating, the message they are sending is that it is acceptable to cut corners and cheat (Anderson, 2001). To make matters worse, some digital paper mills generate revenue by providing advertisements on their websites and offer papers for free papers" (Heberling, 2002).

The use of technology to cheat does not end with purchasing paper from digital paper mills. A Rutgers' survey found that half of the students had plagiarized work they found on the Internet (Slobogin, <u>2002</u>). An in depth ABC News Primetime report "Cheaters Amok: A Crisis in America's Schools – How It's Done and Why It's Happening" depicted high tech alternatives to crib notes placed under a book bag. Today's students are downloading material to graphic calculators and palm pilots. Cell phones are used to record pictures of test questions or notes and answers to multiple choice questions can be text-messaged to fellow classmates (Cheaters Amok, ABC, 2004).

Using deterrence technique such as random seating assignments and proctoring the room during a test do not normally apply to online classes. Since there is no face-to-face interaction between the instructors and students, it becomes a challenge for instructors to ascertain academic honesty in their online classes. In the information-based society, old ways to deter students from committing acts of academic dishonesty are not always applicable or suitable. Additional measures to minimize academic dishonesty in online classes need to be explored. A comparative study conducted at Northwest Missouri State University found that 14% more of the students taking online classes admitted to receiving unauthorized help on an assignment than their classmates who are not taking online classes (Kenkel, 2004).

Another major concern of academic dishonesty in online courses is the use of "ringers" or experts who stand in to take test for others. According to Wein, at the University of Arizona campus, a flyer was circulated offering services of attending classes and taking exams for a fee (Wein, 1994). The U.S. Department of Education reported that having someone else take exams for students is one of the more prominent cheating activities in colleges (Maramark & Maline, 1993). In a survey conducted by Nuss, faculty members considered having someone take exams for someone else among the most serious forms of academic dishonesty (Nuss, 1994). The use of "ringers" in online classes can be more severe as it is harder for faculty to identify who is actually taking the course and completing the assignments for the course.

Many might wonder whether or not it is truly easier to commit acts of academic dishonesty in online classes. Heberling offers an optimistic perspective and points out that, "ironically, a strong case can be made that it is actually hard to cheat online and that it is also easier to detect" (Heberling, 2002). Chapman et al. offers some support in their research that found 26% of students admit that they had at least sometimes used "stolen" exam, 92% of these students felt that others would cheat in a this situation, but only a mere 2% of all students in the sample admitted to working together on an electronic exam when it was prohibited (Chapman, Davis, Toy, & Wright, 2004).

CHEATING: THE FACULTY PERSPECTIVE

Kenkel conducted a survey to find out how faculty members who teach online courses perceive academic honesty online. She found 37.5% or 9 out of 24 faculty members considered academic honesty as their number one concern regarding online teaching (Kenkel, 2004). It is interesting to learn that majority of faculty members surveyed do not consider academic honesty as a major concern. Nevertheless, the findings of Kenkel's research were in accordance with Kaczmarczyk report that professors of distance education do not perceive cheating as a major problem (Kaczmarczyk, 2001). It is disconcerting and bewildering to know that in the aftermath of the corporate ethical scandals, faculty members are not more wary of academic dishonesty in their courses.

McCabe and Trevino found early on that faculty members in general are reluctant to enforce academic integrity rules. McCabe and Trevino's study showed that 40% of the 200 instructors surveyed have never enforced their institution's academic integrity rules; 54% reported they seldom enforce the rules; and only 6% indicated that they often enforce the academic integrity rules (McCabe & Trevino, 1993). It is noteworthy that faculty members at honor code institutions enforce academic integrity rules twice as often as those faculty members from non honor code institutions (McCabe and Trevino, 1993).

The majority of the researchers continue to seek ways to ensure that academic dishonesty temptations are kept at a minimum. Numerous researchers (McCabe & Pavela, 2000; McMurtry, 2001; and Rowe, 2004) advocate discussion of academic integrity with students as a major factor to deter academic dishonesty. Although sharing the importance of academic integrity with students appears vital to establishing an environment reed of dishonestly, Olt found very few online faculty members actually discuss academic integrity with their students (Olt, 2002). Dirks found only 15% of faculty members actually had an academic honesty policy in their syllabus. Dirks conclude that faculty lack enthusiasm because cheating is extremely difficult to prove and they are solely responsible to show unequivocal proof (Dirks, 1998).

Educators have a responsibility to teach but moreover, they must guide their students towards an ethical life and career. Educators can begin by explaining to students the importance of academic integrity and by encouraging them not to cheat (Nonis & Swift, 2001). According to Sims, there appear to be strong similarities between school and work related cheating behaviors. Sims found that the propensity of people to behave honestly or dishonestly depends on their general attitude toward dishonesty. He recommends that although universities are not responsible for the morality of their students, they are nevertheless responsible to establish and enforce behavioral guidelines to their students (Sims, 1993).

DETERRENCE TO ONLINE CHEATING

Northwest Missouri State University started offering online courses in the fall of 1999. Since its inception, online courses have been very popular with students for reasons ranging from flexibility to the misconception that online courses are easier. At the time of this writing, Northwest Missouri State University offers over 100 online classes each academic year. Aside from offering online courses, Northwest Missouri State University offers degree completion programs in business management, accounting, and a master degree in geography. Faculty members at Northwest Missouri State University recognize and address the issues associated with academic dishonesty in the online environment. Ten methods that have worked for faculty members at Northwest Missouri State University are discussed and shared in the following paragraphs.

DEVELOP RAPPORT WITH YOUR ONLINE STUDENTS

According to James, people find it easier to cheat what is perceived as a large, faceless entity like a corporation or the government than to cheat a friend or acquaintance (James, 2002). Developing rapport with students is one of the primary means to encourage academic honesty. In 1999, George and Carlson found that cheating tends to increase as the bandwidth (information per second) of the communications channel between assessor and assessee decreases: that is people who feel more "distant" cheat more (George & Carlson, 1999). On the other hand, Graham et al. posit that effective online teaching can be achieved by encouraging student-faculty contact. They propose that frequent student-instructor communication allow instructors to get a better sense of a student's ability and increase the difficulty for students to find consistent help to respond to classroom activities (Rowe, 2004). Furthermore, Graham, Cagiltay, Lim, Craner, & Duffy, and Chapman et al. concur that students were less likely to cheat if they respected, and felt respected by their faculty. The feeling that cheating would betray the trust their instructor had bestowed on them serves as a deterrent to cheating (Graham et al., 2001, and Chapman et al., 2004).

Northwest online faculty members ascertain that they establish a solid flow of communication with their online students. Faculty members establish communication and rapport with students long before the academic year starts. One of the most common topics for the first threaded discussion is self introduction. Some faculty members also require their students to upload their pictures to help students create a more personal atmosphere. Faculty members also communicate with students on a regular basis through threaded discussions, emails, and face-to-face visits with students who are on campus.

Discuss the Importance of Academic Dishonesty

Discussing the importance of academic dishonesty is supported by research done by McCabe and Trevino who found a strong relationship between a student's propensity to cheat and their perception of their peers' level of cheat. Furthermore, McCabe and Trevino posit that students rationalized their behavior to cheat based on overestimated cheating frequency by their peers (McCabe & Trevino, 1993). Chapman et al. found that 42.6% of high frequency cheaters believe their peers would also cheat (Chapman et al., 2004).

Northwest faculty members make it clear that appropriate actions will be applied to everyone involved in academic dishonesty. Faculty members are encouraged to include a clear academic dishonesty policy in their syllabus. Discussion of academic integrity can be posted as a topic for threaded discussions. Faculty member can share different scenarios and teach students the severity of consequences of academic dishonesty. It is always better to preempt acts of dishonesty than to implement punishment in its aftermath.

Develop an Online Academic Honesty Contract

Olt indicates that providing students with an academic honesty policy can minimize academic dishonesty (Olt, 2002). McCabe and Pavela identified 10 principles of academic integrity including defining and supporting campus-wide academic integrity standards and affirming the importance of academic integrity (McCade & Pavela, 2000). Taylor concurs with the need of an academic policy but stresses the importance of mutual accountability by students and instructors (Taylor, 2001).

Many Northwest faculty members have required students to sign a binding contract to abide by the University's and Department's policies. This is particularly necessary in the Computer Science/ Information Systems department since students needed clear guidelines and examples to address content specific situations (i.e. programming and computer assignments) so they created a document that gives examples of what is acceptable, what is not acceptable, and how to document help received on assignments. It is vital that students are aware of the consequences of their actions and that the online instructor has given thought to academic integrity issues.

Walk the talk

Chapman et al. strongly supported what faculty members have known for quite a while, students are less likely to cheat if they fear they may actually get caught. When they asked students about their likelihood to cheat on a web-based exam, the number of students who indicated they would dropped from 42% to 14% after they were told that electronic surveillance would be used and students from an earlier class were caught cheating (Chapman et al., 2004).

At Northwest Missouri State University faculty members are vigilant about upholding academic integrity. The university had revisited the Academic Honesty policy and revised it accordingly to ensure that students can fully understand what it entails. Northwest Missouri State University takes academic honesty seriously and any student who is charged with an act academic dishonesty is automatically punishable by an "F" for the course. If a student is charged a second time, it would mean termination from the university.

Guard Against Plagiarism

While the ease of copying, pasting, and downloading electronic files have contributed to academic dishonesty, they can also provide useful file history information. McMurtry advises instructors to require their students to electronically submit their assignments so that they can be archived for future reference (McMurtry, 2001). Furthermore McMurtry stresses a proactive approach to designing assignments can lessen plagiarism in the classroom. She recommends instructor give clear instructions and specific goals for assignments. She urges instructors to be familiar with what is available online before assigning a paper (McMurtry, 2001).

At Northwest Missouri State University, most online instructors require students to write in a variety of settings. This allows an instructor to get to know a student's writing style better and decreases the chance of someone else contributing for a student. Making threaded discussions a significant part of the class where students are required to log in and participate more than once weekly can do this. Also including short answer and essay questions on exams and requiring other written assignments are other ways to guard against plagiarism. Customized writing assignments that

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require current sources and unique topics related to class material can also deter students from patronizing paper mills.

Inform students that you have spent time familiarizing yourself with the cheat sites inventory. Require students to upload articles that they have used in their research. Make sure that you check the file properties for creation date, revision dates, etc. Some of these file properties may be lost when files are downloaded from the online class websites but some are still available. You may want to use a text search engine such as AltaVista or Advanced Google to quickly identify unoriginal writing. Consider subscribing to paid services such as Turnitin.com. Just letting students know that you have electronic copies and know techniques to track down academic honesty may make the students think twice before using someone else's file.

Develop Meaningful Assessments

While using all objective questions is easy for online grading, students who see exams as being worthless, too hard, or too easy will be more likely to cheat because they do not see the point of the exam (Rowe, 2004). Writing and grading application questions are certainly more difficult and time consuming than objective questions but may make the exam seem more significant as the students have a chance to write and show how they can apply the material to a new situation. Students can stand out from others because their thoughts will be read and analyzed by the instructor. If the importance of writing and thoughtful discussion has been introduced with threaded discussions, students will have a better idea of what is expected in this type of question and can be rewarded for their efforts on the exam.

Protect the Test Bank Integrity

There are a variety of ways to protect the integrity of a test bank. Some of the methods to ensure test bank integrity include by rotating the test banks in different class terms, and to periodically rewording questions and changing the order of the answers. By rotating the questions, every student will take a different assessment through randomized question pools. Requiring the students to justify their multiple choice answer selection or writing application objective questions are other ways to call for higher-level thinking and preventing cheating. Whether to allow the students to view their objective questions and the correct answers after the exam is an issue where faculty are divided as there are clearly two sides to the issue. To allow the students to have feedback and to learn from their errors, it is necessary to let them see the questions and answers. The obvious downside to this is that the questions may be printed or viewed by other students, which could jeopardize the integrity of the test bank. One possible option is to use software that limits students' actions when they take and later view the exam.

Northwest Missouri State University use the eCollege Course Management which incorporates the ExamGuard that can prohibit students from having other programs open, to copy and paste, or to print an exam either during the exam or when viewing the results later. Another way to protect the integrity is to limit students' access time to view their graded exams.

Set Strict Time Limits on Tests

A proven method utilized by online faculty members at Northwest Missouri State University is to set strict time limits on tests. Students are made aware of the time remaining for them to complete a particular test. In addition, faculty members have the options to choose whether or not the test will be automatically closed when the time elapsed or penalize students for exceeding the time allowed for the test. Whichever option the faculty member decides upon should, nevertheless, be made crystal clear to the students in the syllabus and remind the students of the consequence of exceeding the time set forth for each test. More faculty members preferred to shut the exam because students often ignore or forget about the timer and exceed the time limit if they are not automatically exited when the time has elapsed. If one should choose to allow students to complete their test after the time has elapsed is to devise a suitable penalty rubric for each minute over. To establish a time limit, give a similar exam in a live, proctored class setting and see how much time students need for the exam.

Use Proctored Settings or One-on-One Chats for Tests

Northwest faculty members utilize a proctored setting that requires online students who live within 30-45 miles from the school to come to school at a set time to take a test. Although this creates some benefits similar to a classroom assessment, the difficulty encountered is finding a time that will work for most or all of students. Furthermore, students have shown resentment of having to come on campus to take an online test, especially for those who are juggling work, family, and school. Kenkel successfully incorporates a face-to-face final exam with her student by requiring her online students who live within the 30-45 miles radius to take the test in her office during finals week. This afforded her a unique opportunity to meet the students and also gave her students the flexibility they experienced online.

Another method is to have the online students find a proctor. This can be a local community college teacher or perhaps a work supervisor. The instructor then emails, mails, or faxes the exam or password and the proctor agrees to supervise the exam. Yet another innovative way to deter academic dishonesty in online testing is a unique method utilized by Dr. Janet Marta, a faculty member teaching International Business online at Northwest. The faculty member requires her students take their final exam in a private chat room at a designated time. While time-consuming, the faculty believes this method ensures academic honesty and provides immediate feedback.

Recognize and Account for the "Friend Factor"

If your typical online student lives within close proximity to other students enrolled in the same courses the likelihood they may be cheating is greater. Chapman et al. found that students are much more likely to cheat with friends (Chapman et al., 2004). While traditional classroom cheating is often limited to the confines of the classroom, online courses open the parameters to an entire host of accomplices. Chapman et al. offers statistical support of the "friend factor" that found a substantial difference between information sharing between friends and acquaintances. Table I reflects the finding from the study by Chapman et al. and showed that the likelihood of students to cheat drops dramatically when an acquaintance versus a friend is involved (Chapman et al., 2004).

Northwest faculty members often hear stories of group test taking, collaboration among students enrolled in the same oncampus course, and sharing of test materials from students who took the same course in previous semesters. One measure that faculty members have implemented is to create pools of multiple questions that allow random selection of questions every time a student logs in to take a test or quiz. Furthermore, some faculty members require a qualitative rationale for multiple choice

Table 1				
Scenario	Friend	Acquaintance		
Give answers to someone on a test	37%	8%		
Use "stolen" copy of an exam to study	63%	40%		
Participate in group involved in e-cheating	42%	14%		
Participate in e-cheating when the instructor had warned of electronic surveillance and students were led to believe the instructor had punished others	14%	4%		

assessments. Another measure is to ensure that correct answers to tests were not given out before all students from all the sections had taken the particular test. In addition, faculty members had utilized pools of essay questions that require personal applications.

CONCLUSION

Faculty members have a moral obligation to curtail cheating. According to McCabe and Trevino, high school graduates go to college prepared to follow the rules, and they generally believe that the atmosphere for cheaters will be tougher than it was in high school (McCabe, 1993). Unfortunately, when students see cheating in the classrooms and professors ignoring it, they feel that they too can cheat. As a consequence, cheating can spread like wildfire (Koch, 2000). Online courses offer unique opportunities for students to commit academic dishonesty. Instructors of online courses must be more vigilant as the nature of the delivery mode requires unique solutions to ensure academic honesty.

This paper offers measures that have been applied and proven to work for numerous online faculty members at Northwest Missouri State University to curtail academic dishonesty. Although the list is by no means exhaustive, it is definitely a good start for educators who believe that education is lost if the student learner can take another's work as their own. Academic integrity is an integral part of quality education that is losing ground is an ever changing information-based society. Whether education is delivered in the classroom or online, educators must be vigilant and relentless in upholding academic honesty. Educators must take advantage of the benefits technological advancement offers and use it to enhance academic quality and integrity.

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E-Learning Paradigm (ELP): Intellectual Framework for Computer Mediated Universities

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ABSTRACT

Scholars, who were once skeptical of the Internet's impact on educational systems, now recognize that our paradigms are, in fact, shifting from the traditional "brick and mortar" schooling process to a contemporary virtual environment (e-universities). A paradigm represents a way of looking at the world, a shared set of assumptions that enable us to understand or predict activities and behavior. Firstly, the study establishes innovative concepts, strategies and practices that existing literatures seem to have overlooked. Secondly, the authors propose an intellectual framework that highlights issues surrounding e-learning methodologies and technologies. The methodological (e.g. delivery process or content quality) aspect has become a hot topic among governments and universities as well as academics today. This needs critical attention. The technological aspect (i.e. Internet-based instruction (IBI)) has taken many forms, from reading on-line syllabus to a "full-fledged" delivery of course material. This raises design tools and usage issues. A survey instrument was used to validate the study. The findings indicate that more functional, user-friendly tools are needed to support online learning. Moreover, integrated wireless application protocol (WAP) conferencing, integrated spellcheckers, real-time group discussion, and analytical tools must be considered. In conclusion, we recommend the use of the authors designed strategies (Diversified, Determined, Bold and Balanced) and the proposed intellectual framework to resolve these contemporary concerns.

INTRODUCTION

During the early 1990s, many of those interested in the impact of information technology liked to talk about "paradigm shifts." Despite its attainment of cliché status, the concept of elearning paradigm is a powerful one (Tapscott, 2001). This study presents innovative strategies and an intellectual framework to e-universities and conventional ones. These innovative strategies are very different and their application can successfully position conventional universities in the e-business field to ensure growth and competitiveness (Berryman, Harrington, Layton-Rodin and Rerolle, 1998).

Based on innovative concepts and strategies, this study identifies four e-business practices (diversified, determined, bold and balanced (DDBB)) that are significant to universities that are "contemplating" using an online system. Diversified practices seek to use e-business as a means of increasing their strategic scope in terms of creativity, territory and client base. Determined practices seek to lead their market by imposing an indispensable technological standard. Bold practices rely on innovation and their technical expertise to develop new ways of doing business on the Internet. Finally, balanced practices essentially use e-business to consolidate their core competencies. These types of practices, if implemented, would be pragmatic for universities to achieve outstanding success (Hamel, 2000).

A well designed and adequately deployed e-business paradigm can include a prosperous strategy (e.g. DDBB practice) that could be extremely interesting in terms of creating value for both existing Universities and its new entrants. Not only does a university have to select the target and services sold on the Web, it also has to (A) determine the nature of the Internet-based relations it has with its customers, (B) determine a level of e-business integration for its operations, (C) identify technological solutions, and (D) select the deployment strategy that is best suited, while attracting the right students and ensuring the viability of its e-business scheme (Dutta and Segev, 1999).

DEFINITION, TERMINOLOGY AND CLASSIFICATION

The authors define e-learning paradigm (ELP) as Web-type technological solutions implemented in support of a University's e-business strategy and education-to-students (E2S) learning. Also, ELP could be described as Electronic Information and Feedback Exchange (EIFE) among students and Universities. e-learning encompasses the delivery of course content via all electronic media, the Internet, intranets, extranets, satellite broadcast, audio/video tape, interactive TV, and CD/DVD (King and Ellzy, 2004). The term e-learning also covers a wide set of applications and processes, including computer based learning, Web-based learning, virtual classrooms, and digital collaboration.

E-learning represents the entire category of technology-based learning, while online learning is only associated with Internetbased learning. Online learning constitutes just one part of technology-based learning and describes learning via Internet, intranet, and extranet. Terms like e-learning, technology-based learning and Web-based learning are defined and used differently by different organizations and user groups. Moreover, use of these terms is constantly changing, as the world of e-learning evolves. In this paper, online learning is considered a subset of e-learning as indicated in Figure 1.

As King and Ellzy (2004) put it, e-learning universities are those that leverage various electronic technologies to create, enable, deliver, and/or facilitate lifelong learning. Components can include content delivery in multiple formats, management of the learning Figure 1 Online learning as a subset of E-Learning



experience, and a networked community of learners, content developers and experts. E-learning provides faster learning at reduced costs, increased access to learning, and clear accountability for all candidates in the learning process. In today's fast-paced educational culture, universities that implement e-learning provide their establishments with the ability to turn change into competitive advantage.

Online learning could be designed in many forms: From basic to advanced. A basic online learning program includes the text and graphics of the course, exercises, testing, and record keeping, such as test scores and bookmarks. An advanced online learning program includes animations, simulations, audio and video sequences, peer and expert discussion groups, online mentoring, links to educative materials on other universities or institutions intranet, and communications with established educational proceedings.

Over the past few years, the Internet revolution has led to the development of electronic learning (e-learning) that has been perceived either as a drastic alternative, or solution for traditional universities looking for market expansion. These universities adopt technological solutions that are innovative and create value. Their strategic intentions are to either make use of the new technological solutions, engage in aggressive growth at a higher than-average pace in the University "industry" or sector, and/or to increase the market by imposing a technological application. Figure 2 identifies seven positives of implementing e-learning.

THE "E" DETERMINISTIC AND MOTIVATIONAL DYNAMICS

The potential of technology is determined by motivational factors. The authors identified seven core factors presented in Figure 2. These factors are recognized as the motivational backbone for implementing e-learning.

THE INTELLECTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 3 illustrates the authors proposed framework that could be implemented or adapted by universities in their traditional business model by integrating e-business applications. The following are the core e-business applications indicated in the outer sketch of the framework.

- Connectivity access to information is available on a global scale.
- Flexibility learning can take place any time, any place.
- Interactivity assessment of learning can be immediate and autonomous.
- Collaboration use of discussion tools can support collaborative learning beyond the classroom.





Figure 3 Proposed E-Learning Framework

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Computer Mediated University

E-Business Practices

Diversified Determined Bold Balanced

Innovative Concepts

- Extended Opportunities e-content can reinforce and extend classroom-based learning.
- Motivation multimedia resources can make learning fun.

E-Learning Paradigm - Modules

The *Institutional module* is concerned with the entire university goals and issues. This includes the technological, managerial and pedagogical. Universities' primary focus is on student services (e.g. pre-enrollment services, course and program information, registration and payment, etc.) that are related to e-learning.

The *Pedagogical module* of e-learning refers to teaching and learning. This dimension addresses issues concerning, content, design approach, organization, methods and strategies, and medium of e-learning environments. Various e-learning methods and strategies include presentation, demonstration, practice, tutorials, simulations, discussion, collaboration, etc.). In this module, the academic affairs (e.g., faculty and staff support, instructional affairs, workload, class size, etc.) are largely considered.

The *Technological module* of the framework examines issues of technology infrastructure in e-learning environments. This includes infrastructure planning, information technology services and support, hardware and software.

The *Management* module of e-learning refers to the maintenance of the learning environment and distribution of information. This includes administrative affairs (e.g., ethics, organization and change, instructional development and media services, etc.).

E-Learning Paradigm – Elements

Figure 4 E-Learning Elements



Innovative Concepts - Strategies

Balanced Practices

Balanced practices are applied by traditional universities whose conversion to e-business is carried out cautiously. The universities in this group-feature business models which rely on a specialization or a limited diversification by capitalizing on the company's skills and core business (entrepreneurial niche or productive function in its sector) that also deal with e-business competition. In this practice e-business implementation does not conflict with the traditional business model as long as a university's core business remains the same (Mahadevan, 2000).

Furthermore, balanced universities view e-business as an economic lever enabling them to strengthen their strategic position. These universities focus on control, integration and visibility. In terms of performance, they seek to maintain or increase profit margins as well as maintain or increase the perceived value of education while improving efficiency and effectiveness of the target processes. In this type of practice, universities tend to favor the following technological solutions: management information systems, promotional or transactional Web sites, and navigation tools for ease of course searches.

Diversified Practices

This group features universities for which e-business conversion focuses on external positioning as measured by operational diversification and growth. We view the ELPs of such universities as being especially useful in sectors where traditional learning is already structured. Indeed, the developed paradigms take into account existing rules of competition and growth potential, thus promoting diversification of the universities' operations (Venkatraman and Henderson, 1998). Moreover, similar rules of competition, applying to both e-learning and traditional studies (face-to-face), facilitate the management of diversified practices. Some universities in this e-era are not as well prepared to function in emerging markets where the criticisms in e-learning are becoming a concern. Such is the case for numerous emerging e-learning education sectors whose prototypes are still in the thinking process. Furthermore, e-learning diversification can cause these universities to suffer significant conflicts in terms of quality, system availability and procurement which are requiring management skills. Successful diversified businesses however are able to seize opportunities for growth and diversification.

Determined Practices

The strategic aim for this group of universities is to acquire maximum students in the market, or a segment thereof, by imposing a technological standard or by systematically utilizing an electronic channel. For Universities whose strategy is based on these e-learning paradigms targeting the market with additional overhead (e.g. the setting up of technological standards: design, development, implementation and online maintenance) is a fundamental methodology (Evans and Wurster, 2000). To achieve this, determined practices attempt to structure the market using portals (e-marketplaces). New entrants create independent, neutral portals while the already well established e-universities share marketplaces, often by teaming up with their competitors. At any rate, determined practices generally invest more in their technological infrastructures (e.g. IT/IS skilled labor). In fact, the implementation of such e-learning paradigms calls for the establishment of technological standards that require major investments, whose payback periods are often longer than expected and whose operating costs are substantial (Mahadevan, 2000).

Bold Practices

Universities regarded as bold adopt an ELP that is innovative but always focused on their basic strategic skills. Although they tend to pursue aggressive growth that is greater than the market's, their strategic scope is reduced. Bold practices opt for experimental and



8 (16%)

	Table 1		
Interpretation of Data Collection			
CDADU			
GRAFH #	EXPLANATION		
#			
	A total of 50 survey responses were received. 44% were female while 46% were male. The following is an		
Α	overview of the gender and age intervals:		
	Female = 2% (ages 31-40), 34% (ages 21-30), 8% (ages 15-20);		
	Male = 4% (ages 31-40), 48% (ages 21-30), 4% ages 15-20).		
в	This graph illustrates two categories of e-learning experience. Mixed mode and Online dependent. In the		
D	mixed mode completed were 30% and greenhorn were 16% that added up to 46%, whilst in the online,		
	completed were 32% and greenhorn were 22% which added up to 54%.		
-	This question provided an overview of respondents who viewed e-learning opportunities from different		
С	perspectives. On average a higher number of respondents agreed on the following described perspectives:		
	Intellectual Challenge, Diversity of Experience, Research, Flexibility, Career Development, and Time Saving.		
	In this graph, it was obvious that respondents maintained some consistency in regards to the "neutral"		
D	perceptions which were based on the two core factors (self motivation and face-to face). This is evident from		
	graph C. However a summation of "strongly agree" and "agree" opens up for a debate as explained in graph E.		
	Based on the two significant variables (e-learning opportunities and limitations – C & D), it can be argued		
F	that, a discrepancy was found in responses provided by the survey participants. Although 54% were consistent		
-	in indicating that e-learning provided magnificent opportunities, self-motivation was an issue that accounted		
	28% and lack of face-to-face contact was also favored by 18%.		
_	A ranking of e-tools importance and use were depicted as above e-mail (26%) was the most significant and		
F	preferred use and upeypectedly FMS was the least favored with only 4%		
	preferred use, and unexpectedly Elvis was the least favored with only 470.		

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The following seven graphs depict the detailed survey responses collated in graph C



no other statistical method was necessary since it was believed that a percentage summary of data responses would be adequate as this research was not based on the cause and effect (scientific) approach.

Findings from the following survey questions achieved a significant result in regards to e-learning opportunities. The following graphs provide a synopsis of percentage (statistical) analysis on participants' background and 4 core areas in the study. The graphs are the result of 50 survey responses. Table 1 describes and provides interpretation of the graphs. Participants for the

students' perceptions through a 'questionnaire'. The survey was an inexpensive, quick, efficient and accurate way of seeking perspectives as far as this study was concerned (Galliers, 1992)

The survey results are presented in a descriptive data analysis format, i.e. a percentage distribution summary of responses. Descriptive data analysis is suitable for a structured questionnaire survey (Galliers and Land, 1987). In a descriptive data analysis, survey were asked to indicate their gender, age and experience in e-learning. They were all upper level undergraduates and were seeking various degree programs.

The following graphs depict the detailed survey responses collated in graph C above. (Explanation of these Graphs will be provided upon request).

CONTRIBUTION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The intellectual contributions of this study come from both the theory and findings of the survey as described throughout the paper. Well designed e-learning tools could provide opportunities for learners as well as assist in applying appropriate strategies by e-universities (Porter, 2001). Analyses of most responses from the survey indicated that the framework (Figure 3) could be ideal for e-learning. This research will be ideal for conventional universities, e-universities, governments and academics who wish to understand the issues associated with the quality and delivery of e-learning.

Also, this paper has argued that elearning can be achieved by exploring the proposed paradigm (Figure 3). Numerous literatures have supported this argument, particularly DeMoor (1999), Hirschheim and Klein (1992), Hirschheim, Klein and Lyytinen (1995), Jones (1998) and Lucas (2002), who recognize the reliability and effectiveness of e-learning systems. However, there are important factors that need to be considered when designing a system, like training, skills and computer administration.

From an e-learning perspective, there are several illustrated figures and tables (Figures 1, 2, 3 & 4; and Table 1) that lead to the understanding of this framework if implemented. E-universities and designers of e-learning systems need to take into account the necessary functions that may be required. For example, in the process of online communication messages, it is important for the system designers to ensure that communications are not intercepted, so that confidentiality and reliability of information are established. This will increase the number of students who wish to utilize the opportunities of elearning systems.

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Exploring Cultural Implications of Teaching Logistics and Project Management in the Russian Far East

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ABSTRACT

Teaching Western style logistics and project management, within the Russian Far East, is culturally constrained. Based on four years of first-hand experience, in teaching and researching within the former USSR, this paper presents a step-by-step-methodology for increasing your chances of success. This paper also presents the results of an ongoing, four-year survey methodology to define the cultural factors of conflict and acceptance of developing nations such as RFE to western style programs. While this paper is based on Russian Far East experiences, the knowledge can be generalized to other emerging nations.

INTRODUCTION

The Russian Far East has embraced a rush to learn western methods of logistics and project management, since the Soviet Union has become history. Organizations and universities are also helping, but not rushing, to fill the educational and training needs of the RFE. (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Bradshaw, 2001) One organization working toward that end is the American Russian Center, located in the College of Business and Public Policy of the University of Alaska Anchorage. As of May 2005, the American Russian Center has provided training for more than 65,000 Russian Far East professionals and academics in topics ranging from how to start a hair dressing business, to how to be a logistics or project manager for American oil companies working in Russia. A comprehensive effort was started by the University of Alaska Anchorage Logistics Department in 2001 to bring training and education to the RFE in logistics and project management, funded by the Department of Labor. This effort to take traditional academic and experiential knowledge and skills proved to be more than expected from the typical America classroom instructor. Over a period of three years the UAA Logistics Department was continuously revising its teaching methods to maximize the learning experience from the Russian students. Many language and cultural issues have been identified that need addressing before any widespread logistics or project management or any subject training can be offered to professional or academics in RFE. These issues are hidden bottlenecks of philosophical differences between two cultures that will undermine any education or training efforts within the RFE if not properly considered when adopting western methods as part of post-Soviet methods of learning. For example, there is no direct translation of the terms "logistics management" or "project management" from English into Russian (Hedgepeth and Morgan, 2004; Hedgepeth and Morgan, 2003; Voropajev; 2001). Thus, the teaching of any course of instruction is placed in jeopardy before it begins if using any standard English logistics management or project management text. Also, if you are teaching professionals such as Russian engineers, they seem to practice a discipline-oriented (Meredith and Mantel, 2003) approach toward management, which is different than the problem-oriented approach of westerntrained project managers.

LITERATURE SEARCH

The far eastern portion of Russia or RFE is an isolated place for the most part. It is connected by train and airports; there is no realistic, safe road system for transportation. It also has no legal status in the Russian Federation (Bradshaw, 2001). This large piece of Russia has its roots in the abundant raw natural resources of timber, gold, diamonds, oil, coal, all catering to the strategic plans of the Soviet leaders. Today this remote part of Russia comprises 10 separate regions. Approximately 36% of this territory belongs to the Russian Federation, but it contains only 5% of the population. (Bradshaw, 2001). These natural resources are not easy to reach or mine, due to the lack of road and rail infrastructure, which is much like Alaska's geography and lack of infrastructure (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004). So, when the opportunity arose to teach Russians about logistics and project management, the University of Alaska Anchorage thought it had an advantage in teaching the principles and skills from a similar viewpoint. The viewpoint from the infrastructure is nearly identical; the learning techniques of the two cultures, American and Russian, are different.

To understand how to teach in the RFE or other developing nations, you must first understand their economic problems. These problems stem from the memory of Soviet era business practices and policies, but most importantly, their management styles. Economic resource specialization was narrowly focused and extreme in implementation in the RFE. Some regions of the country, being defined by the natural resource, had 50% of the workforce working in that one area, such as coal or timber. This part of far eastern Russia supplied nearly 100% of the products or raw materials and food - seafood - needed by western Russia. The logistics management system of Russia was basically the Russian rail system, which linked these rural regions of raw materials; and the transportation costs along this supply chain were free during the Soviet times (Bradshaw, 2001). This Soviet system, which used central planning of all logistics activities, had little regard for economics of pricing, cost of goods, schedules of delivery, inventory management, and, consequently, that helped set in motion the forces for a collapse of major manufacturing industries. In today's free-market system, the Russian Far East industry is learning many hard lessons in logistics, supply chain, and transportation needs and

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planning and budgeting. They have had to consider the business customer and the end consumer in ways that were never thought of for a Soviet lifetime. Management today is thrown into a global logistics network, before they had been properly trained to work in their environment. Russian engineers and logisticians needed to build buildings and parks and roads to cost and on schedule, but the managers of the Soviet era were not trained to understand these nearly alien concepts. (Huchthauson, 2002). Thus, any American university entering the RFE to teach a standard class in economics, logistics, or project management faced a clash of Soviet-style philosophy; but, just how much of a clash and how to measure the learning of students and the impacts of western teaching methods is just emerging.

The post-Soviet era Russians in the RFE are left with an economic void, much like that caused by the first impact of a tsunami, dragging away the Russian realities of their former military and industrial manufacturing complex, leaving their education, training and methods of work on some empty shore, waiting for a huge wave to crash back into them. In one short decade the expected boom by the Russians in the RFE to export all their wealth was halted not just by their lack of infrastructure, but by a crashing wave of not understanding how this new global force of business worked. Business leaders found they lacked understanding of how to be a project manager when working with western oil companies, or how to become a profitable part of their own supply chain producing goods for paying consumers, inside Russia, and more importantly, for outside consumers (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2003).

Another factor in defining how to train or deliver educational content to the Russians in this region, was the high degree of educated adults, due mainly to the military-industrial complex. We found a culture of well-educated people, as a byproduct of the militarized culture of the Cold War (Bradshaw, 2001). Therefore, the workforce in the RFE is one that seems to respect education and we expected would be receptive to the western style of teaching and methods of learning. (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Bradshaw, 2001).

The literature indicates that a transformation is emerging in the RFE in how to learn any western subject, but especially logistics and project management and business in general. However, experience (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Raum, 2002; Robinson, 2001) indicates that western methods of teaching and learning are not accepted throughout the RFE. Several logistics managers express concern about the methods of western style courses in management. One manager stated that the policies of communism were just not implemented the right way in the past, but they would be implemented better next time. Additionally, there is a fear among many of the Russian professionals, that Moscow will teach better western style management classes to the workers in the RFE. This also sets the stage for more thought when going into the RFE to teach the values of western business methods.

Before teaching management in the RFE, one should consider what Bradshaw found regarding what he calls the institutional and philosophical traps toward better business management. One such trap is that corruption is still a part of management in business ventures (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Bradshaw, 2001; Robinson, 2001). Russia's past history of crony capitalism (Bradshaw, 2001; Robinson, 2001) is still alive today, and voiced by many Russian professionals and academics as a way to succeed in business; they are quick to point toward the failures of American businesses caught in ethics scandals in the past decade as evidence western management teaching is missing a key ingredient. That ingredient is teaching how to cheat or bribe officials (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Henrie and Hedgepeth, 2003)

One of the first lessons learned by Americans teaching in RFE was summarized by Voropajev, who indicates that there is a terminology or languge problem in teaching western concepts. For instance, he states, "For the present, there is no unified, generally accepted definition of project" (Voropajev, 1997). Voropajev's insights highlight a thesis of our current teaching methods and teaching research to be examined when teaching project and logistics management in the RFE. As Voropajev points out, before this current teaching and learning research was undertaken, there were terms, concepts, and metaphors such as project management, supply chain, logistics, risk management, inventory management, quality control, safety, and environmental management that do not translate from the American page of the textbook into Russian just by mere translation from English to Russian language (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2003; Henrie and Hedgepeth, 2003). In fact, the assumptions that a western teacher brings to the Russian classroom have to be addressed from basic vulnerabilities of understanding. Instructions on a syllabus are read and understood with a certainty that is missing in many American college students, who seem to regard the syllabus as merely so much paper, not to be read seriously.

Several Russians who helped us understand how to better prepare teaching materials, stated that RFE is in a transitional stage of philosophical and business and management thinking (Henrie and Hedgepeth, 2003; Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2003; Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004) and helped us identify five key issues to know when planning your teaching rubric:

- 1. Changes in the manufacturing production systems.
- 2. Changes in the market forces between supply and demand.
- 3. Changes in the methods and skills of management.
- 4. Changes in the form of property ownership.
- 5. Changes in property development (Rayekaya, 2002).

All of these factors lead to a hypothesis that teaching is not a simple undertaking in the RFE, and should not be attempted until you have some understanding of the basic philosophy of how RFE academics, engineers and business leaders think about their current or past business practices. But there are groups of RFE academics planning how to implement logistics management and project management departments within these traditionally Soviet style places of higher education (Henrie and Hedgepeth, 2003).

PREVIOUS RFE TEACHING AND LEARNING SURVEY

Forty-four Russian participants were questioned following several in-class knowledge and skills assessment surveys conducted with the different groups of Russian students, who were attending the University of Alaska Anchorage (UAA). These students were from different UAA academic departments – business, economics, accounting, engineering management, logistics and supply chain management. The participants were not chosen randomly. These Russian students were asked to volunteer their time. Thirty-five students participated in the development of an educational survey instrument. Usually about 200 Russian students are on campus at UAA during any semester. Russian professionals, who work in the

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Anchorage area, reviewed the survey questions for completeness. The survey questions were then turned over to professional Russian staff members of the American Russian Center at UAA. These were professional Russian translators to translate the questions from English to Russian, with a final assessment examination as a metric of how to use each English word to extract the meaning we were attempting to find from these questions. Overall, this knowledge survey instrument took more than a year to prepare and was tested periodically throughout that year for validity and understanding – by Russians. The result of effort produced the following five questions:

- Within your occupational area, what is your view on Russian Far East (RFE) logistics and project management skills today? Why?
- 2. How do you think that the RFE profession of logistics and project management will change in the next 10 years? Why?
- 3. Within your organization, what do you believe is the greatest difficulty facing today's RFE logistics and project managers? Why?
- 4. What do you think is the most critical training area that logistics and project managers need to perform their job better? Why?
- 5. Describe one or more logistics and project management tools or processes that are very successful for projects within the RFE.

The primary knowledge assessment instrument was a set of these five questions. These participants of the final survey were logistics and project management practitioners and professionals from Russia. They were managers working in the oil, gas, and construction industry in RFE. Several hundred companies in RFE had been contacted by the American Russian Center to identify those RFE workers participating in this learning and training assessment program. How the Russian companies chose each participant is not consistent, and may be a factor to consider in later learning assessment programs. Some Russians were chosen to participate in this training due to their high ranking in the company; others were chosen due to their status in working with Western oil, gas and construction companies.

There were 12 other Russian university professors who worked in the logistics management area, who were given these five questions with a focus on "logistics management" rather than "project management." These students were also chosen by each university to visit Alaska for some of their training in logistics management. How they were chosen is not clear, except that they were eager to embrace new curriculum developments and learning assessment from the west in logistics management. Each of these students also participated in a development of learning objectives, and rubric to measurement and assesses student levels of learning; this learning rubric formed the foundation of two new logistics departments in two different RFE universities.

Results from this initial survey indicate there was not a unanimous (approximately 50% of the students for project management and about 30% for logistics management provided opposing answers) opinion from the participants in answering any of the questions from either the project management or logistics management perspective. More than 50% of project managers and logistics managers stated that neither project or logistics management skills existed in the Russian Far East.

Student evaluations indicated that these participants did not understand the term "project management," nor the term "logistics management" after having had a class for eight contact hours on the subjects. One underlying cause may be the past cultural barrier with management seen as a metric of distance from Moscow, lack of academic support, lack of information about logistics or project management and software products, and the last 10 years of stagnation and economic turmoil in business ventures in RFE (Chikrizov, 2002). This survey identified a linguistic and philosophical divide as a basic barrier to providing any level of training and accountable assessment instruments in English to Russians in the RFE.

This learning assessment survey turned the education of the Russians into not one of providing more training, but going back a step and trying to understand the philosophy of how Russians think about a wide range of topics. This caused a rethinking about the rubric, the learning objectives and how to measure student learning. This meant that any program education or training coming into the RFE from any western company or university would be missing a basic praxis in rubric of curriculum development.

After administering the survey instrument and during the classroom breaks, several Russian practitioners and logistics academics described the terms "project management" and "logistics management" as no more than "common sense" being applied to performing a job or task. The term "project" was simply a hollow metaphor for many in the RFE. The terms "task" or "job" are used more often to describe a project to build something or a logistics event to move materials. One student, a Russian project manager as an architect, was not concerned with any engineering economy or financial aspects of the project, something essential to western project management education courses.

One of the most common definitions given was that a logistics or project manager was a manager of change. We found that almost every director of a firm performs project and logistics management functions. However, these functions seem to be more of a burden on the director, because he or she lacks the time to trace project stages and instantly reacts to deviations in the work schedule, or to take time to understand the flow of products and information needed to manage their supply chains.

From an educational perspective much of this conflict in learning western terms is being driven from the Russian perspective of "theoretical" versus "practical" instruction methods used. It seems that a challenge in Russian business today is the ability to measure and track goods even by lot numbers, expiration dates or location. In most organizations the metrics for measuring logistics or supply chain performance are nearly non-existent. This means that many RFE companies are operating blind, by western standards of teaching, not having a clear set of cost and performance metrics to measure their service performance.

Many Russian students identified their learning style as an "intuitive" or "heuristic" style of management. Many students stated that managers are "just doing their job." But how project managers or logistics managers are promoted indicates a process that did not rely on management skills, or education.

Survey students indicated that a philosophical and cultural change would occur in the next 10 years to better embrace western methods of business and educational lessons. This was attributed to the age of the current workforce in management and decisionmaking positions, which will shift from the old Soviet-style philosophy to that of a younger aged group. Almost all students

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stated that those who are under age 40 should be in the best position to learn western styles of management, and be more successful in meeting the learning objectives of each course. This feeling was even voiced by the academics in the Russian colleges and universities. However, there was another issue buried in their statements: the Russian academics prefer to have Russian teachers teach western educational courses, and not be dependent on western teachers to teach western courses. So, before any American college can successfully present training or education materials in the RFE, a continued understanding of the philosophy of learning, of working, and of personal vision needs to be addressed. This educational story of the new RFE is not yet finished.

The results of this first experience with teaching in the RFE, taught us to focus on train-the-trainers as well as train those Russians desiring western courses. From this initial assessment we developed a list of course content that seems needed when teaching in the RFE:

- 1. Knowledge of international accounting systems
- 2. Knowledge of international logistics management, supply chains, project management, not just from the United States
- 3. Health and occupational safety procedures
- 4. Knowledge of marketing and selling
- 5. Knowledge of speaking and writing English
- 6. Knowledge of computer software for inventory and project management
- 7. Knowledge of negotiations skills
- 8. Knowledge of logistics and project management

However, this list may be incomplete. There is further educational research needed to understand the underlying philosophy of what and how to teach in the RFE. This list is important currently to those students who participated in this experiment in learning. This list is a priority list from these students.

This educational research describes some of the key challenges for the RFE in providing and assessing education and training knowledge and skills.

CONTINUING THE EDUCATION

From the educational challenges presented, one can sense that the RFE is evolving. Many see that evolution as a shaky but focused growth in changes in its old style of educating people for management of supply chains or development of special purpose project (Goyal, 2003; Bradshaw, 2001; Bhat, 1991; Hofstede, 1984) The development of oil and gas, and the prospect of further large scale development, by foreign companies like Exxon Mobil or BP or Chevron and others are causing engineers and managers to look to UAA and other universities to help them in changing many old habits of doing business.

To achieve this evolutionary expansion, the RFE practitioner must understand how and why the Western world places different emphasis on learning new roles in business and in teaching those new roles. The greatest challenge is educating the growing Russian workforce in logistics and project management and systems thinking skills for managing complex projects. This challenge will involve a long-term growth of educating the current college and university generation, as well as retraining the current middle management, and top management of companies.

However, evidence supports that the top management, which was trained under the Soviet planned economy, may be the biggest challenge to educational reform based on western courses and methods of teaching (Bradshaw, 2001; Robinson, 2001). Moving from the planned economy to a free market place economy is a major evolutionary change. There is an element of distrust among many Russians in the Far East that if they openly embrace this new direction something will occur to change things back to the way they were (Hedgepeth and Henrie, 2004; Bradshaw, 2001; Robinson, 2001). Assistance from foreign universities and from the oil and gas companies can provide a bridge to help the RFE through this challenging area.

FOLLOW-ON EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SURVEY PLAN FOR RFE

This earlier work provided the foundation for a more thorough educational assessment and survey. The original five-question survey was based upon a faulty assumption that one could simply translate project management and logistics management curriculum and text from English to Russian. The application of the previous survey instrument provided a signpost that the assumptions from the university were vulnerable. A philosophical understanding of the rubric of the potential curriculum development of any training problem has now resulted in approaching the RFE student base with a new approach. The next educational survey instrument in this research will start with taking these results back to Russia. The authors will visit the major cities and industries of the RFE. These industries are the oil, gas and construction firms. All large RFE companies, who employ more than 50 people, will be contacted through the offices of the American Russian Center. A new set of questions will be created that relate to the current findings. That is, there will be specific questions related to each of the challenges identified previously. This current survey will be part of a rubric of curriculum development for both education and training leading to a certificate or to a degree in project management or logistics management. The rubric development is under way at the University of Alaska Anchorage and at Old Dominion University. The rubric and the exact questions for this next round of surveys will be reported in a future publication.

CONCLUSIONS

While new technologies are coming to RFE, there is a lack of specialists to implement and work with these technologies. Also, very few companies recognize the importance and benefits of new technology. Many companies are still doing business the way it was done 20 years ago. Therefore, management is reluctant to invest in education or training programs. Those specialists who do get the new, western, education and training often leave for better paying jobs in Moscow. This leaves local RFE firms with many unspecialized employees.

Many participants stated that the focus on logistics or project management training and education should be on business people, or the business departments within the RFE educational institutions.
They see business people needing this type of knowledge more than engineers or accountants because of the transition to a free market society, which will be governed by the business people of RFE. They see that the very nature of this transition period, which is under way and could take another five to 10 years, is characterized by changing environment, especially in the legal and political areas. These business people need such education and training courses to be able to bring more order into their decision-making and actions, and help reduce the level of uncertainty.

The current conclusion is that before launching a curriculum of any kind into the RFE, a basic philosophical understanding of the culture of the people and business is needed before translations of course notes, power point slides, or textbooks begins. The results point toward an education and training model or rubric of what can become a model for future logistics and project management training for a developing country.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Just bringing western style training into areas of Russia is not enough. The next step is to conduct education and training surveys in more remote regions of the country. Additionally, experimenting with distance delivery of course materials, translated into the Russian language or dialect of the regions would be necessary to understand if this method is even desirable or technically feasible. There is also the need for follow-up surveys to test the validity of the results found in the previous research and from the results of ongoing teaching at the local business level and in the Russian universities. The rubric for the new curriculums at Russian universities in logistics and project management will need to be reviewed to compare to those of similar size universities within the West. From all of this research, new educational models can be created to assist other developing countries that are resource rich, but poor in global marketing and management requirements.

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Exploring How Accounting Practitioners Actively Engage in the Learning Process

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses various ways that the active involvement of accounting practitioners in the student learning process helped achieve AACSB accreditation for the University of Southern Indiana's (USI) accounting program. As members of the Accounting Circle, an advisory group, accounting practitioners participated in several programs to enhance the learning experiences of accounting students.

The Accountants in the Classroom Program, for example, explored how accounting professionals can positively influence the students' perceptions of a typical accountant and, at the same time, provide attractive, accurate information about the variety of career opportunities available for an accounting graduate. In this program, Circle members visited the managerial accounting classes three times throughout the semester to share their practical experiences and to interact with the students. Other ongoing collaborations with the Circle members included their involvement in internship and co-operative education programs, the Rotary Club Mentoring Program, the University's Honors Program, and a student chapter of Toastmasters International. Circle members were also actively involved in developing and promoting accounting curriculum changes at USI.

INTRODUCTION

In 1997 the undergraduate and graduate business programs of the College of Business at the University of Southern Indiana (USI) were accredited by AACSB International — The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). This accomplishment was the culmination of more than five years of concentrated efforts by various constituencies — students, faculty, administration, and the business community — to ensure that the programs met or exceeded the AACSB's standards.

To continue its pursuit of excellence in accounting, USI's Department of Accounting and Business Law (Accounting Department) immediately made a commitment to apply for separate AACSB accreditation of its undergraduate and graduate accounting programs. Following a five-year period to complete the Pre-Candidacy, Candidacy, and Self-Evaluation processes, USI's accounting programs received AACSB accreditation in 2003. A key factor in achieving AACSB accreditation for the College of Business was the active support and participation of its Board of Advisors, an advisory group constituted of area senior executive leaders that included a number of accounting practitioners. Mirroring that successful model, the Accounting Department quickly formed its own advisory group, the Accounting Circle (Circle), to assist in the accounting accreditation process. In fact, because the early Circle leadership was composed of local accounting practitioners with previous experience on the Board of Advisors, there was continuity with the College of Business's objectives and certainty about the new Circle's role.

The Accounting Circle is now composed of about twenty senior accounting executives from various local and regional businesses and professional services firms. The Circle has been highly active in supporting accreditation efforts and in establishing a number of innovative programs in collaboration with the accounting faculty.

Program Background

The number of students entering the accounting program at USI has declined over the past several years. Colleges and universities nationwide have experienced a similar downward trend in their enrollments in the accounting major. According to a study conducted by the AICPA, the number of students enrolled in accounting programs decreased from 192,000 in 1995-1996 to 148,000 in 1998-1999, a 23 percent decline (Albrecht and Sack, 2000).

Studying the literature, moreover, accounting educators may conclude the odds are stacked against them. Consider this quote from W. Steve Albrecht and Robert J. Sack (2000): "While we have been long-time supporters of accounting education, if we were creating a new business school today, we would not have separate undergraduate or graduate accounting programs. At least, we would not have accounting programs that are structured as they are today" (p. 1). Albrecht and Sack believe accounting education is plagued with serious problems that, if left alone, will lead to the demise of accounting education. In their study of accounting education, they identified the following facts: 1) the number and quality of accounting students is declining rapidly nationwide; 2) practicing accountants and accounting educators would choose a different major if they had it to do over again; and 3) accounting leaders and practicing accountants believe accounting education is outdated, broken, and in need of significant modification (Albrecht and Sack, 2000). With these facts in mind, the USI Accounting Department faculty and the Accounting Circle decided to attack the problem.

Issues Surrounding the Accounting Program

As a starting point, the faculty and Circle members organized a retreat to consider the Albrecht and Sack (2000) monograph. Based on collective time series data, the number of students entering the accounting program at USI was declining. Also, students viewed accounting as less than an interesting or exciting field of study, and they often perceived it as a solitary job crunching numbers. Most important, many students failed to understand the range of career opportunities in accounting. All of these reactions seemed in accordance with the Albrecht and Sack (2000) findings.

Consequently, one of the first initiatives of the Circle was to reemphasize and enhance the existing accounting partnership programs, and the accounting faculty began a curriculum revision they had proposed to the Circle as a result of the Albrecht and Sack (2000) monograph. This paper describes a number of those collaborations and a coinciding external initiative.

ACCOUNTANTS IN THE CLASSROOM PROGRAM

All College of Business students are required to take financial accounting (Accounting 201) and managerial accounting (Accounting 202), and most students are undecided about a major when taking these two courses. Because students are a captive audience early in their academic lives, the faculty and Circle members concluded the students' decisions on an academic major can be favorably influenced by having business representatives from public accounting and private industry visit with students in the classrooms.

The primary objective of the "Accountants in the Classroom" program is to encourage students to consider accounting as a major by bringing them into contact with practicing accountants who are excited about their careers and who understand the opportunities available to accounting graduates. The goal of this contact is an increased enrollment of students in the accounting program. All of the practitioners involved in the program are Certified Public Accountants (CPA) and/or Certified Management Accountants (CMA).

The first phase of this program brings two accounting representatives, one from private industry and one from public accounting, for a joint visit to each financial accounting class to discuss the broad range of opportunities in accounting. During the second phase of the program, the accounting practitioners increase their participation, making several visits to each managerial accounting class. The accounting practitioners form a partnership with the managerial accounting classes and engage in various types of activities throughout the semester.

Financial Accounting

The two accounting practitioners who visit each financial accounting class usually begin their presentation by showing an AICPA videotape (either *Accounting: The One Degree with 360 Degrees of Possibility* or *Takin' Care of Business*) focusing on various career

opportunities in accounting. They then discuss in more detail the broad range of career choices for accounting graduates, specifically recounting their own individual educational and employment histories. Finally, they discuss the relevance of accounting to any career in business. Overall, the practitioners make students aware of the many important and challenging opportunities in the field of accounting and attempt to dispel the "number-crunching" myth.

Managerial Accounting

The practitioner visits to the managerial accounting classes are more involved than the visits to the financial accounting classes, with participants visiting the classroom at least three times throughout the semester. The classroom visits encourage students to explore various opportunities in accounting through interactive learning with practicing accountants; these sessions are intended to increase the students' interest in and knowledge about the field of accounting. To the fullest extent possible, the classroom interaction is designed to be directly related to the topic currently being covered in the class.

Interactive learning can be accomplished through many different forms of classroom learning. Some examples used in this program follow.

- The participants assist the students with a real world case in a group study exercise of three to five students. The participants visit with each of the groups and relate the case to activities at their own workplaces.
- The participants cover the classroom topic for the day using real world examples from their personal experiences. For instance, two practitioners explain job order costing through the use of a construction company client. They involve the students in the discussion by distributing various props to be used in the upcoming discussion. Then, they have the students place these items — representing the materials, labor, and overhead for the job — into some large plastic cups that represent the accounts where these items would be charged. Another set of practitioners discusses the types of decisions required for the daily operation of their businesses, such as whether they should expense or capitalize certain expenditures. The students are able to learn first hand how a decision made by the private accountant can impact the audit by the public accountant.
- The participants assist the students with a case study in a computer lab. In this case, two practitioners work with the students on a budgeting assignment. The students answer a few questions related to the budgeting process, and then they utilize an Excel application to perform some "what if" analyses for the case.
- ► The students are asked beforehand to bring a business article from a newspaper or a business magazine. The students read and report on their business matter. Then the articles are discussed with the visiting accountants, encouraging an exchange of questions and thoughts on the topic.
- The participants assist the students with a comparison of the job order costing versus process costing methods of assigning product costs. The students are divided into groups of three to five students before the exercise and asked to use the Internet to find company-specific information for any two companies that they think use job order costing and any two companies that they think use process costing. Then, during the classroom visits, the Circle participants assist the students with the analyses of these companies, determining whether

they are companies that utilize job order or process costing. The students prepare a one-page report on their particular company, justifying their choice of process or job order costing, and then report to the group for a brief discussion. Specifically, this part of the exercise adds the elements of interpersonal, written, and presentation communication skills.

In addition to the various forms of interactive learning described above, the practicing accountants are encouraged to invite the students to their places of business for an in-depth exploration of the field of accounting. Furthermore, many of the participants serve as resources for other projects the students are undertaking in their various courses. For example, in the business communications course, the students must conduct several interviews and write a report on a career of their choice. Many of the participants assist the students with their projects by scheduling informational interviews with them. The Accountants in the Classroom program has succeeded in forming a true partnership between the accounting practitioners and the students.

ADDITIONAL ACCOUNTING PARTNERSHIPS

Four additional partnerships are also available: the internship and co-operative education programs, the Rotary Club of Evansville Mentoring Program, the University's Honors Program, and Toastmasters International.

Internship and Co-operative Education Programs

USI's Career Services and Placement (Career Services) staff works closely with College of Business students, encouraging and facilitating participation in internships and co-operative education (co-op) programs. Career Services employs a full-time coordinator/ counselor dedicated to College of Business students. In the last five years, approximately 40 accounting majors per semester have experienced an internship or co-op in a public or private accounting environment. These experiences require practitioners to provide a full educational experience. Students are not to be used as "gofers" or as clerical assistants except to learn procedures, i.e. files, familiarity with documents, preparation for appropriate activities, and typical activities for the fully-employed accountant.

The Career Services Coordinator makes on-site visits to ensure both the employers and students are meeting expectations. Students prepare a list of goals in conjunction with their employer and the Career Services Coordinator. The Coordinator monitors their progress in attaining their goals, and the students write a final report on their internship or co-op experience which they submit to an accounting faculty advisor, thus providing another oversight opportunity.

Rotary Club of Evansville Mentoring Program

The Rotary Club of Evansville Mentoring Program pairs selected students with local professionals. This program allows students and mentors to design their activities to meet the students' learning objectives. Common activities include job-shadowing, networking, attending professional or civic meetings, critiquing résumés, providing career advice, participating in the mentor's volunteer activities, and exchanging life experiences. Although the program officially lasts from October through April, many mentors and their students continue in informal mentoring relationships for longer periods of time, particularly if the students pursue careers in the Southern Indiana area.

Honors Program

The Honors Program at USI offers expanded academic opportunities and practical experiences for students who earn and maintain a certain level of academic achievement. Participation in the Honors Program requires students to have an SAT score of 1200 or above or an ACT score of 27 or above. Any student with a 3.25 grade point average (GPA) or above and at least 15 semester hours can apply for the program. To graduate with honors, students must complete 21 hours of honors credit with an A or B grade and complete the remaining undergraduate work with a cumulative GPA of at least 3.25.

Since 2002 the USI Accounting Department has offered an honors component for the managerial accounting course each spring semester, and the Accounting Circle members have been instrumental in providing practical experiences for the honors students. The honors students collaborate with the professor and a Circle member to design an honors component for the course. The honors students must complete all the requirements of the course and fulfill the requirements of the honors component. Most recently, the honors students worked with a local CPA firm to gain some practical experience with financial statement analysis and interpretation.

That semester's honors experiential learning project began with a tour of the firm and an overview of the project. The honors students were each assigned a client of the firm for which they created a package of financial ratios, utilizing one of the firm's software packages. The students were then required to interpret the results of the analysis and to prepare both a management recommendations letter and PowerPoint presentation which they then presented to the firm. The project required the students to work closely with one of the vice presidents of the firm and with other accounting professionals. It also enabled the students to gain valuable experience with financial statement analysis and interpretation and to enhance their communication skills.

Toastmasters International

The Albrecht and Sack (2000) monograph reported that recent accounting graduates entering the workforce were often criticized for a lack of appropriate oral communication skills. Several Circle members were or had been active in the local chapters of Toastmasters International, and they were convinced that their participation had made them not only better speakers but also more confident in business-related social situations. These Circle members were determined to make these same opportunities available to USI's accounting students.

Members of the accounting faculty and the Circle made joint presentations to the Accounting Club and to individual accounting classes to make the students aware of the possibility of forming a student chapter of Toastmasters International. The initial response from the students was very positive, and the students were soon engaged in making formal application to form a Toastmasters chapter on campus. Within a few months, the charter members of the Screaming Eagles Toastmasters International Club were inducted into the organization.

One unique aspect of the on-campus Toastmasters program demonstrates conclusively the commitment of the Circle. Toastmasters International uses a formal dues structure with a required financial commitment that would stretch the budget of most college students. To ensure that every interested student had the opportunity to participate, the Circle members personally agreed to cover the dues of every accounting student who joined Toastmasters. Representatives from the Circle participate in the on-campus Toastmasters Club meetings to interact with the accounting students on a personal level and to express their high regard for this organization.

Thanks to the continuing support of the Circle and a deeply committed faculty advisor, the Screaming Eagles Toastmasters International Club has met every week of the school year for the past five years. Club membership averages 20 students each semester, and several members have become active in external Toastmasters chapters after graduation. One international student even went back to his native Russia and started a chapter there!

THE INDIANA CPA SOCIETY CASE STUDY COMPETITION

Another ongoing activity, the Indiana CPA Society Case Study Competition, has enabled accounting practitioners to engage in the learning process and share their expertise with a team of accounting students. Each year the 32 Indiana colleges and universities with accounting programs are invited to participate in the Indiana CPA Society Case Study Competition. Four different USI students and a faculty advisor have participated in this competition as a case study team every year since it began in 2001. The case study competition is designed to challenge the students with a practical project, requiring them to utilize their knowledge, research abilities, technical skills, communication skills, and judgment in satisfying the requirements of the case.

The case study competition begins with the Indiana CPA Society (INCPAS) e-mailing the case study to the faculty advisor. The team of four undergraduate students must then research the problem, prepare a report, and submit the written case electronically within a 10-day time frame. The written case must address all the requirements outlined in the case study and include a two- to five-page executive summary. Then, a team of four to five judges, who are all practicing accountants, evaluates the case study submissions and selects six finalists for oral presentations. The case study finalists make a 15-20 minute oral presentation of their findings and recommendations, followed by a 10-minute question and answer session. The oral presentations are held at the INCPAS's office in Indianapolis, and the awards are presented at the INCPAS's annual CPA Celebration.

In order to fulfill the requirements of the case, the students contact several accounting professionals to gain valuable information from the practitioners' expertise. They use this information, along with extensive research from a variety of other sources, to satisfy the requirements of the case. For example, the 2004 case required the students to analyze the effects of Section 404 of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act on firm quality, culture, and client relationships. The students had limited knowledge in this area, so they contacted several public accounting firms and corporations to interview partners, chief financial officers, and analysts with expertise in this area. These accounting practitioners provided personal information, supporting documentation, and moral support to the students. In the most recent case study competition (2004), the USI case study team received the 1st place award. The case study competition is possible only because accounting professionals assist with the development of the case study, act as judges for the competition, and provide valuable information to the student teams.

CURRICULUM REVISIONS

The Albrecht and Sack (2000) monograph was particularly critical of the accounting education model, declaring that "most of the education models we use are 'broken' or in desperate need of repair" (p. 43). USI's accounting faculty and the Circle came together in a series of informational meetings and a half-day retreat to examine the current accounting program and to suggest changes for the future. Using Albrecht and Sack's (2000) recommendations as thought-provoking discussion points, the faculty, with the Circle's concurrence, decided to make three major changes to the accounting curriculum.

First, the faculty decided to abandon the traditional "preparer" model and adopt instead the "user" approach in the introductory accounting courses. All College of Business students were required to take the two introductory accounting courses, but more than 80% of them were not majoring in accounting and thus required minimal exposure to a level of detail that included traditional debits, credits, and journal entries. With the "user" approach, these students could focus on how to use the information in financial statements to make better decisions rather than focusing on the mechanics of preparing financial statements. Those students majoring in accounting cycle and the mechanics of making journal entries, thus using up one of the seven hours of business electives in the then existing accounting curriculum.

Second, the faculty removed three courses (nine credit hours) from the mandatory 30-hour accounting curriculum required of all accounting majors. The courses removed included the second intermediate theory course, the advanced accounting course, and an upper level accounting elective. Using these nine hours plus three of the remaining hours of business electives, the accounting faculty then created a choice of three 12-hour "tracks" within the accounting major: (1) finance, (2) information systems, and (3) managerial accounting. This approach was designed to broaden the focus of accounting majors and to prepare them to become full-range financial services professionals, rather than just financial scorekeepers.

Finally and most significantly, the faculty created a Master of Science in Accountancy (MSA) program to give the students a meaningful degree option to consider while accumulating the additional hours necessary to meet the 150-hour requirement to sit for the CPA Exam. This 30-hour degree program was composed of twelve hours of newly-created graduate accounting courses — seminars in financial accounting, income taxes, accounting information systems, and advanced auditing — and eighteen hours from the existing Master of Science in Business Administration (MBA) program — a three-hour seminar in managerial accounting, a three-hour business law course, a three-hour finance course, and nine hours of MBA elective courses.

CONCLUSION

This paper discussed various ways that the active involvement of accounting practitioners in the student learning process helped achieve AACSB accreditation for one university's accounting program. As members of the Accounting Circle, an advisory group, the practitioners participated in several programs to enhance the learning experiences of accounting students. The Accountants in the Classroom Program, for example, explored how accounting professionals can positively influence the students' perceptions of a typical accountant and, at the same time, provide attractive, accurate information about the variety of career opportunities available for an accounting graduate. In this program, Circle members visited the managerial accounting classes three times throughout the semester to share their practical experiences and to interact with the students.

Other ongoing collaborations with the Circle members included their involvement in internship and co-operative education programs, the Rotary Club Mentoring Program, the University's Honors Program, and a student chapter of Toastmasters International. Circle members were also actively involved in developing and promoting accounting curriculum changes at USI.

We believe the active engagement of accounting practitioners in the learning process has provided students with a better understanding of the field of accounting and that students' experiences with the practicing accountants will ultimately result in an increase in accounting majors with realistic expectations for success. Future research will attempt to measure empirically the impact these accounting practitioners have made on the learning process.

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ABSTRACT

This paper will describe the results of interviews with individuals representing thirty different countries. The interviews were conducted during 2000 - 2005. Included in the paper are the interviewee's description of the culture of the country as well as work practices. Then, the conclusion of the paper contrasts a representative sample of the interviews with the work practices in the United States with those of the interviewee's country. Suggestions are given relating how expatriates could be successful when entering into a business relationship with individuals from their representative countries.

METHODOLOGY

Interviews

This information was collected from interviews with 100 students or managers residing in the U.S..

In the international world, people often make assumptions and decisions about each other based on things other than verbal communications. These assumptions are in response to the nonverbal communications that most people use within their own culture to communicate. These nonverbal responses can and often do affect the way an individual communicates with someone from another culture. They are crucial to the business world and must be identified by the perspective business person prior to the entry into the host culture before attempting to transact business.

Individuals representing the following countries were interviewed: Bosnia, Brazil, China, Croatia, Denmark, Egypt, El Salvador, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Guyana, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Kuwait, Mexico, Nigeria, Norway, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Serbia and Montenegro, Scotland, South Africa, South Korea, Spain, Sri Lanka, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Venezuela, Vietnam.

Culture Descriptions (Mainly differences)

The cultural descriptions are written from the standpoint of interviewees from their native homeland. They describe what they see as differences and some similarities that exist between the two countries. Space and time concepts are two cultural differences between Bosnia and the U. S. According to Slobo, AIn Bosnia, we really have a laid back, less hectic, lifestyle than in the States. We don=t always have to rush every where to be on time. Another big difference is space. I think that Serbs like to get a lot closer to one another when we talk. A According to Samovar, Porter, and Stefani, the Bosnian culture can be described as close distance that is on a polychronic time system.

As with Bosnia, Brazil has a slower tempo than one found in many South American cultures. Americans are so used to a fast paced -- get-it-done-now -- mentality that they cannot operate effectively with people who do things more slowly.

Based on the interview, Croats are animated and hand movement during conversations is very commonplace. Time is really important. You do not want to be late at any time. Similar to the U. S., eye contact is important, casual touching is acceptable in social situations, and men are more dominant in Croatia.

Cultural differences between Germany and the U. S. include the open-minded European dress trends, less concern over religious matters, and perhaps a stronger sense of regional pride.

Work Practices

One example of an interviewee's description of work practices in Greece include the following:

The people of Greece usually work from 8 a.m. until 1 p.m. then they break for lunch. After lunch, they take a nap for a couple of hours. In Greece everyone must take a nap in the afternoon. During this part of the day everything closes down including the restaurants. After the nap, they are refreshed and are ready to go back to work until 8 or 9 p.m.

The Greek people feel the American people put too much importance on time and deadlines. In Greece it is important to enjoy life without all of the stress a job can bring. Hence, the Greek philosophy toward work is that nothing is so important that it has to be done right away. In Greece, there are no deadlines so what is not completed one day can be finished the next.

The dress code for business attire is somewhat more relaxed in Greece than in the United States. However, if conducting business in Greece it is appropriate for the United States to wear a business suit; however, be prepared for the Greek to have on a more casual attire such as a skirt for females and loose trousers for males. The women of Greece wear long silk dresses with a chemise or a velvet jacket over their dresses.

In the interview with a Chinese, she highlighted business negotiation skills. Because the Chinese closely research their business partners prior to a meeting, they have an advantage. Secondly, Chinese culture is a high-context one, in which communication takes place largely in nonverbal domains. Verbal messages occupy a small portion of the whole communication. Therefore, one of the reasons it is tough to negotiate in China is the result of ambiguous manners of negotiation, because he/she cannot completely rely on the verbally explicit messages. For instance, even when a Chinese negotiator implies there is no room for compromise, actually he/she is ready to reconcile. In terms of legal aspects of business, Chinese seldom use lawyers. They prefer to use intermediaries. Bribes, which help business run smoothly, are considered proper.

Management differences between Germany and the U. S. do exist. German managers are much more impersonal, they emphasize the need to be credible vs. the need to be liked, and doing

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what it takes to win vs. fair play. (Friday). Similarities of course are the importance of punctuality, eye contact, and good posture.

In Guatemala, work hours are from 8 - 12 and 2 - 6. Workers take a longer lunch break than in the United States. People don't think of "Time as Money."

In Guyana, the business environment and work ethics are based on law and social mores. Business decisions are made collectively and rewards are group based. Accepting favors in the spirit of the law is acceptable, however, if one is doing it for illegal gains, it is not acceptable. Attitudes toward work are more relaxed than in the U. S. Guyana is low on power distance. People discourage using power and invoking feelings of inequity on employees.

Impact of Differences

Cultural diversity has become one of the "hot" management topics of the 21st Century. The changing nature of society is being mirrored in all areas of employment. The most dramatic change is seen by the emerging cultural pluralism found in the workplace. To manage effectively, one must communicate effectively, and to communicate effectively, one must understand the cultural underpinnings and biases of the individuals involved. This does not only include a manager's knowledge of the minority culture, but also the knowledge of the white male subculture and biases--and training and educating the individuals involved about the other cultures and their own biases, etc. Culture directly impacts communication, including nonverbal communication. Eye contact, facial expressions, smiles, and frowns are all elements in nonverbal communication. The national traits in relation to body language need to be understood, otherwise difficulties will inevitably arise. In order to effectively communicate with an individual from another culture, one must be aware of, and understand, the cultural differences and how they may impact nonverbal communications and how they may be interpreted.

The world has become small and global in the business community. The average business person no longer deals only with people from his own culture set, but now is conducting business with hundreds of other people from different cultures. In the attempt to assist the business person, there have been some correlations made between culture in an effort to identify the common nonverbal responses that occur within like cultures.

This paper will discuss nonverbal and paralingual communication in ten Hispanic countries, eleven Asian countries, and seven Arabic countries. The discussion will consider seven areas: facial/eye contact; kinesics; appearance; time; space; environment and language. Hopefully after reading this paper, one will have a better understanding how people interact; and, this understanding will help foster better intercultural relations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In today's global economy, businesses need cross-cultural training for expatriates [Shumsky, 1992].

An interview with Santiago Rodriguez, manager of multicultural programs at Apple Computer. Businesses need to define diversity and to develop an environment for people that allows them to express difference. Character of U.S. immigration has changed: Asian and Hispanic, not European. Diversity is also a function of globalization [Gordon, 1992].

It was projected that, by the year 2000, minority consumers would constitute a majority of population in 1/3 of the US' 50 largest

cities. The top 3 minority groups - African-Americans, Hispanics and Asians - represent a \$300 billion market now, according to Deloitte and Touche and Impact Resources. The size and power of the minority market is not reflected in strategic thinking and planning in most businesses. Efforts to provide products and services to minority segments will fail unless businesses know and understand, respect and correctly address minority needs and

wants.

Eighty five percent of the new entrants into the U.S. workforce will be minorities, women and immigrants. Prior policies attempted to treat everyone the same--but everyone is not alike, and personnel policies and management techniques must change to deal with the diverse workforce [Allen, 1992].

In a interview with Jose S. Suquet, manager of the Equitable's South Florida Agency and District Manager Alfredo Cepero, he stated marketing and managing a salesforce in a multicultural and multiethnic environment often requires special insight and understanding and sensitivity to customs, jargon, and motivation [Lindenberg, 1991].

Ethnic and racial minority populations in the U.S. will grow at a rate seven times faster that the population as a whole. Communicators are being placed in the position of helping management convey its commitment to the new strategies where cultural diversity is valued and used as a competitive advantage [Williams, 1994].

There will be major shifts in the attitudinal, demographic, social and locational topography in the US of the 21st century. Businesses that understand important subcultures within America will be able to target their products to the cultures, lifestyles, age groups and value perspectives that exist.

Success in cross-cultural negotiations requires an understanding of others and using that understanding to realize what each party wants from the negotiations. Nonverbal communication is the key in all negotiations. One must understand each other's style and accept it and respect the cultural beliefs of others and avoid culturally biased personal mannerisms, etc. Factors to take into account: differences in decision-making; status; protocol; social aspects; perceptions of time; personal relationships [Herbig and Kramer, 1992].

A study examines the similarities and differences in work climate perceptions and level of job satisfaction among Anglo-American and Mexican-American employees [Rubaii-Barrett & Beck, 1993].

A survey of gender and race issues in a federal agency indicate no common culture of organizational life. Different groups have different experiences in the organization and are often unable to see or understand the experiences of others which can also be said of international differences [Fine, et al, 1990].

Asian represents 3% of the population in the U.S., totaling 7.3 million people. They have a purchasing power of more than \$225 billion and are the fastest growing, the most-affluent and the besteducated of all the groups in the U.S. according to the U.S. census.

Without having some knowledge of Asian beliefs and traditions, the likelihood for misunderstanding between people from an Asian culture and people born in the U.S. is immense. In an effort to avoid these culture clashes, businesses in a variety of fields are seeking training from intercultural specialists that can help employee interact better with the Asian population. [Forsberg, 1993].

As stated earlier, the three leading US minority segments -Hispanics, Asians, and African-Americans - make up a nearly \$300 billion market. Many banks are redefining financial marketing tactics to better bridge the language and lifestyle barriers that often impede relationships with minority communities.

By the end of this decade, Hispanics are expected to be the largest minority in the U.S. A major training issue is communication. Success will depend largely upon credibility of the manager, how the material is presented, and the manager's understanding of the Hispanic culture. For example, Latinos tend to want paternalistic employers--Hispanics are raised in the tradition of authoritarianism, with its emphasis on knowing one's pace, hard work, land self-abnegation [de Forest, 1992].

By the year 2000, blacks and Hispanics will be the dominant populations in nearly 1/3 of the largest cities in the U.S. and will constitute the majority in at least 9 major cities. 20 million Hispanics spend \$367 million daily on goods and services. If current growth patterns continue, multi-ethnic consumer markets will comprise about 30% of the U.S. population in 11 years. Marketers, promoters, and advertises can design effective ethnic campaigns. Firms can hire ethnic marketers to bridge cultural and communication gaps [Kern-Foxworth, 1991].

One of the cardinal rules in dealing with the Hispanic market is to provide customer service in Spanish. In offices in predominantly Hispanic areas, some 90% of Coral Gables Federal's customer service personnel are Spanish. Many of these offices are likely to have Spanish signs and some Spanish literature.

ASIAN COUNTRIES

For most Asians, it is critically important to develop a personal relationship with a business partner before making an agreement of any significance. Westerners, on the other hand, are compulsive about getting down to business right away, sealing a deal with a written contract, and rushing off to confront the next challenge. Understanding the differences between the individualist cultures of the Western countries and the collectivist cultures of Asia, Eastern Europe and many other parts of the world is one of the secrets to success in today's global economy.

Asian negotiators typically adopt firm bargaining positions and give ground reluctantly. Cultural etiquette can also cause misunderstandings. The following tips can help overcome cultural differences: 1. Start socially, 2. Begin negotiations with a wellprepared overview, 3. Be patient, 4. Maintain harmony, 5. Never underestimate the language barrier, 6. Keep the documentation simple but clear [James, 1992].

As a rule, Asians do not like confrontation. However, a faceoff between two squabbling subordinates, supervised by a boss, can often help to achieve a reconciliation. There are six crucial points to bear in mind. First, an executive must be confident that distinctions can be made between substantive and emotional issues. Second, they key to successful intervention is to make subordinates aware of the negative, self-defeating aspects of their interpersonal styles. Third, the executive should try to help the opponents control their conflict, rather than seek to eliminate it. Fourth, two stages of negotiations should be arranged to establish what the differences are and then to reconcile them. Fifth, it is important to be sensitive to differences in rank. Finally, these reconciliation sessions should be held outside the office in a congenial environment [Bedi, 1993].

When East meets West, cultural differences often get in the way of smooth relations. Cross cultural training that teaches the Westerner to understand the Asian's background better can help prevent misunderstandings. What at first may seem strange and exotic becomes familiar-even comfortable-with education. For example, when we learn why certain people do particular things, we tend to be less apprehensive and more at ease with these people. Learning their cultural languages-that is, their customs, traditions and beliefs-can improve our relationships with them. In today's ethnically diverse business world and global market, learning about individuals who come from different cultural backgrounds is fundamental.

ARABIC COUNTRIES

Decision-making Style, Individualism and Attitudes Toward Risk of Arabic Executives

An extensive review of the literature indicates that there has not been any attempt to empirically link decision-making style to individualism and attitude toward work. The present study focuses primarily on testing instruments that are culturally relevant to Arabic society. Questionnaires were distributed at the Arabic Gulf Management Development Conference. Three scales were used to measure work related attitudes: decision style, individualism and attitude toward risk.

Certain practical and theoretical implications stand out. In the context of decision style, the Arabic preference for consultative practice may indicate that the decision making process takes time and delays change. Western managers and consultants may get frustrated with the ritualistic and consultative practices in which top Arabian executives engage with immediate subordinates and influential members in the organization during the negotiation process. Likewise, traditional [consultative] Arabian executives show dismay when their Western counterparts are not able to make on-site decisions. Multinational firms eager to successfully conclude a business contract in Arabic are advised to send executives who have the power to make decisions. The preference for the pseudo-consultative may have a similar implication to that of the consultative style. It has, however, an important meaning for conducting business--that is, the apparent collision of ideal and practice. Probable consequences are hostility, friction and mistrust among superiors and their subordinates, in addition to disturbance of goal achievement.

In terms of participative preference, several implications can be identified. First, participative managers seem to be hopeful, optimistic and team oriented. This suggests that organizational change and development, utilizing job enrichment and modern design approaches, might appeal to them. Second, in negotiating with Arabic managers, their foreign counterparts should be sensitive to ritual aspects and the Arabics' high need for socialization, but also should show sympathy to Arabic culture and some understanding of the Arabic language. To communicate effectively in Arabic society, one has to fit the thought to the word, rather than the word to the thought. This is because Arabic individuals are infatuated with words. Familiarity with the language, thus, is important not because of its tendency to assertion and exaggeration but for its emotional impact upon users. Furthermore, Arabic negotiators are concession-seeking. Flexibility, therefore, is needed to reach a satisfactory compromise.

Third, in conflict resolution, Arabics tend to appeal to emotions and feelings, and to seek meditation. This point is crucial for understanding the difficulty that Western politicians and businessmen face in dealing with Arabics. Western negotiators pursue a win-lose solution. The Arabics, on the other hand, look for win-win situations where compromise and parity are enhanced. In addition, for Western negotiators, a solution comes only through a critical consideration of issues that are mediated and segmented.

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Issues are to be taken up separately and mediated and segmented. For the Arabics, a solution comes through consideration of all issues taken together and integrated through mutual understanding. This often creates a stalemate or collapse of the negotiation. Another complication is related to the Arabic sensitivity to personal order or threat, in conducting business and political affairs. Arabics have a great sense of pride and self-esteem, and tend to resent orders.

Therefore, the basic assumptions and dispositions of Western and Arabic negotiators create formidable obstacles that inhibit the full exploration and development of meaningful and stable economic and political relations between the United States and Arabic countries.

The results of several exploratory studies identify the salient features of Arabic organizations and management, such as over centralization and emphasis on control. However, the results on the leadership style of Arabic managers are conflicting. The invocation of culture to explain both the authoritarian and consultative styles adopted by Arabic managers is unconvincing. This plurality style suggests that factors, other than culture, may be in operation here. Furthermore, these results can be interpreted to support the fact that management styles in these countries vary with situational factors. More in-depth research using larger samples is needed to verify these explanations.

Like other managers all over the world, Arabic managers perform the same functions, i.e., planning, organizing, commanding and controlling. In allocating their time, these managers, however, appear to favor some functions at the expense of others. They agree in general, that planning is one of their basic functions, but they are found to allocate only a minimum of their time and resources to performing this function. Arabic managers spend more time on controlling and commanding.

In spite of the emphasis laid on control and supervision, methods employed in performing these functions are largely traditional. Managers use personal rather than systematic methods of control. Effective supervision and control by Arabic Managers is impeded by cultural factors. The dilemma faced by Saudi public managers is in trying to enforce regulations concerning attendance which conflict with their subordinates' performance of their social obligations.

In decision making, Arabic managers use mainly traditional methods. Seventy three percent of a sample of Kuwaiti mangers rely entirely on intuition and personal judgement in making their decisions. One of the major obstacles to effective decision making in Arabic organizations is the paucity of pertinent, reliable and timely information.

Interest in how Arabic managers actually perform their responsibilities was not shared by most researchers who published their findings in English. One exception, namely Badaway [1980], confirms that Arabic managers employees are still subjected to various forms of work-related discrimination and must work harder than their male counterparts to prove the worthiness of their labor. Furthermore, Saudi male supervisors generally prefer male subordinates and the idea of working under a female supervisor or manager is still unthinkable.

There are a number of findings that show a high degree of apathy, low concern for productivity and a strong emphasis on job security among the Arabic employees. Some other characteristics of Arabic employees are: aversion to risk-taking, strong loyalty to supervisors and strong friendship ties.

In terms of organizational structure and work methods and procedures in Arabic organizations, they are characterized by over centralization and the lack of job descriptions and work manuals. Despite all of that, in some Arabic countries the researchers found the successful introduction of modern information technology.

In conclusion the researchers suggest that Arabic organizations, especially public agencies, exhibit many of these characteristics of modern bureaucracy in developing nations as well as its dysfunctional qualities. One of the undesired consequences of bureaucratic growth is the excessive emphasis lain on control and compliance with rules and regulations. These rigid bureaucratic systems have also shown strong resistance to the introduction of modern management and organization methods and techniques [Atiyyah, 1992]].

Multicultural Business Meeting and Presentations: Tips and Taboos

When meeting with other cultures, the most important thing to remember is that each culture approaches things differently. Disagreements of the purpose of a business meeting are based on the cultural value systems of the different countries.

In an American meeting, the focus is on action, while the objective of Japanese business meetings is to gather information about a subject to analyze the data for further action. Arabic meetings are designed to build rapport and trust among the participants. Presentations in the US must be prepared. In Japan, information is presented for group discussion for feedback and additional information, but there is no call for action. In the Arabic countries, detailed background information is given, and a forum is provided for discussion. Arabic presenters use eloquent and elaborate speech to appeal to the audience's emotions [Elashmawin, 1991].

Effectiveness of Management Training in Arabic Countries

Beginning in the 1960s, a heightened interest in management training was observed in most Arabic countries. Unlike in Western industrial countries, private companies in Arabic countries have shown less interest in training than have public organizations.

Management training in Arabic institutes is based on models and practices found in similar institutes in Western industrial countries, in particular the US, the UK, and France. There is a consensus among management training specialists and managers in Arabic countries, that the effectiveness of training in general is low. External constraints as well as internal problems are the major reasons for this low effectiveness. These factors include: 1. lack of rigorous needs assessment,

2. deficiencies in program design and evaluation, 3. excessive reliance on conventional techniques, 4. inadequate training materials and 5. the shortage of qualified trainers. These problems cannot be solved unless the financial and manpower resources of the institutes are significantly increased and attitudes toward training become more appreciative and supportive [Atiyyah, 1991].

People, Proxemics, and Possibilities for Technical Writing

When anthropologist Edward Hall described and compared spatial perceptions of Americans with those of the Japanese, English and Arabics, he found significant differences among the four groups. Yet, a random survey of publications from foreign countries containing articles both in English and in the local languages indicates, at first glance, a strong conformity with the 5050 ration of white space to text. For Hall, territoriality is the source of proxemics, the social and personal uses of space. Perceptions of space arises from an individual's basic sense of territoriality. If this is the case, technical writers must review cultural perceptions about space as they work with documents intended for specific national audiences, because there is no single theory of proxemics that can apply to all cultures. Cross-cultural experiences must be, therefore, cultivated when they are exposed in technical writing classes or the workplace [Fisk, 1992].

RESULTS

Understanding "others" value is central to the understanding of nonverbal communication differences. Better understanding of these value differences is currently imperative.

Americans have been able to isolate themselves from other cultures in the past, but no longer do Americans want to nor can do without others. The past immigrant ideal of assimilation led Americans to become arrogant about their values and behavior at the expense of learning who and what they really are and how their culture relates to the other societies of the world. Americans tend to be ignorant of other languages and ways, and worse, too often do not want to learn about them. That ignorance is definitely not bliss.

The Arabic culture is no longer remote from many Americans. Images of Scherazade, Omar Sherif, oil wells, and long garb need to be replaced with the touch of reality. Additionally, the amount and type of contact between Americans and Arabics are growing continuously. Hopefully, better understanding of each other's motivation may help prevent the development of aggravation to the point of violence, or will help alleviate tension and allow Americans to deal with such problem to the satisfaction of all, should problems occur.

The largest distinct cultural group in the U.S. is Hispanic. By the end of this decade, Hispanics are expected to be the largest minority in U.S. industry and commerce. This group includes people from many countries and races, and are therefore not homogeneous. Also, diversity is a function of globalization. Before becoming a global entity, an organization has to confront different cultural issues. NAFTA will have a big impact on U.S. businesses and the expected growth of business with Mexico and South America, etc.

Nonverbal communication similarities and differences of the Hispanic culture group. There are six areas of nonverbal communication which will be considered: facial/eye contact; kinesics; appearance; time; space; environment.

Facial/Eye contact

There is no distinct facial or eye contact in these Hispanic countries: Spain, Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, and Venezuela. While eye contact is very important in Chile, Puerto Rico and Surname.

For example, to look directly at an older person is disrespectful in Spain, but in Surname, you should bow and look intently more into one's eyes when speaking.

In almost all the Asian countries, there is no distinct facial or eye contact, except in some coutries like Cambodia, good eye contact and smiles are considered friendly gestures. Similar to Asians, there is no distinct facial or eye contact among Arabics. Men and women generally do not maintain eye contact.

Kinesics

In most Hispanic countries, men shake hands or embrace to greet their friends and women kiss each other on the cheek. In Surname, bowing is part of greeting, too. Handshakes between males and females are acceptable in Spain. All fingers of the hand should wave with palm facing down to beckon. A half inch between thumb and index finger signals someone to wait a moment in Mexico.

It is important to avoid some improper gestures in a foreign country. For example, the American "OK" sign, is an offensive gesture in Brazil. It is not proper to wave to someone with the left hand or use hand gesture to beckon in Chile. Exaggerated hand gestures, pointing at people, and yawning in public are considered impolite in Ecuador. Your should avoid indicating people's height with the palm down in Ecuador because it is only used for animals. Items should be passed but not tossed to another person in Mexico. Handshakes in Spain tend to be relaxed, not aggressive or outspoken. Also in Spain, you should not look at an older person directly, it is considered disrespectful. During a meal, hands, not elbows are kept above the table all the time and upon finishing, utensils are laind side by side on the plate.

Bowing is the traditional way to greet among Asians except in Malaysia and Philippines where handshake is used. In Malaysia, people shake hands with both hands, then touch the chests with fingertips. However, handshaking is accpted from foreigner in most of the asian countries. Beckoning is done with the palm down with all fingers waving in asian countries. You should take off your shoes when enter someone's house in Cambodia, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore or Thailand. Items are offered and received with both hands to show respect. In formal situations, good posture should be maintained to show respect for the host or the speaker

Do not touch a Cambodian's head, even a child, In Malaysia, objects are generally not passed with the left hand. While sitting, do not point feet toward a Buddah image or any person, it is an insult. Do not shake hands with women unless they extend their hands first. Hugging in public is improper.

People greet differently in Arabian countries. Egyptians shake hands every time they see each other. People bow their heads slightly to greet in Iran, handshakes are customary with men. Handshakes are common between for both men and women in Lebanon. Men kiss each other on the cheek when greeting in Palestine. In Saudi Arabia, there are several forms of greeting, usage depending on the relationship to each other and society. Generally, when a person is accompanied by a woman with a veil, she is not introduced nor is a handshake expected. Objects are passed and received with the right hand or both hands, but NEVER the left hand. Food is eaten with the fingers of the right hand. Bread may be torn with the left, but eaten with the right. It is impolite for the bottom of one's foot to point at another person. Holding hands between friends of the same sex is acceptable in public, however, public displays of affection, among opposite sex, even between married couples, are not acceptable.

Appearance

In Hispanic countries, appearance is important to individuals, people are fashion conscious. They dress nice. Western style

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clothing is acceptable. Proper clothing for each occation is essential. These countries include Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Spain and Venezuela. There are some distinguished characters in each country though. In Brazil, women do not wear much make-up; people dress more conservatively in Cuba; darker colors are worn often in Ecuador; In Spain, men dress conservatively and women try to be stylish.

Both western style and traditional clothes are worn in Asian countries. Western suits and dresses are worn in the business world, they are the most common in Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore and Taiwan. Traditional clothings are worn in some rural areas or during special occasions and celebrations, such as Sampot and Sarong in Cambodia, Kimono or Wafuku in Japan, Hanbok in Korea, and Sarong or Baju Kurung in Malaysia.

In Egypt, Iran, Palestine, Saudi Arabia and other Muslim Arabic countries, women are covered from their hair to their feet, with only hands and face uncovered. Dresses are formal and conservative in public. Vistors are expected to dress conservatively and tight fit clothing is unacceptable. People dress in European style and dress up frequently in Lebanon. In large cities of Egypt, business representatives wear business suits and modest western style is acceptable for women. Men dress in traditional garb in Iran and long sleeves are required.

Time

Included in time consideration is work days and business hours.

For Hispanic countries, Monday-Friday is the working days for Chile, Colombia, and Surname. In Brazil and Ecuador, people work five and half days a week, including half a day on Saturday. Business hours for Brazil are 7:30-12:00 & 2:00-6:00, for Chile are 8:00-12:00 & 2:00-6:00, for Colombia are 7:00-12:00 & 2:00-6:00, for Ecuador are 9:00-12:00 & 2:00-6:00, for Mexico are 10:00-2:00 & 4:00-8:00, all with a 2-hour lunch break during the day. While in Puerto Rico and Spain, business hours are 9 to 5.

For Asian countries, working days are seven days a week in Cambodia, six days in Malaysia, five and a half days in Hong Kong and Singapore, five days in China, Japan, Korea, Philippines and Taiwan. Business hours are 9:00-5:00 in Hong Kong, 9:00-1:00 & 3:00-6:00 in Cambodia, 8:00-5:00 or 9:00-6:00 in Japan, China, Korea, Malaysia, 8:30-4:30 in Singapore. However, individuals usually works longer than the normal hours in Japan, Korea and China.

In Arabic countries, one must know the work day and appreciate the differences. For example, in Egypt and Iran, work days are Saturday to Thursday, In Palestine and Saudi Arabia, work days are Saturday to Wednesday. While in Lebanon and Saudi Arabia, Monday to Friday are the work days. Business hours also vary. It's 8:00-2:00 & 4:30-7:00pm for Egypt, 8:00-12:00 & 2:00-6:00 for Iran, 8:00-12:00 & 3:00-6:00 in Lebanon, 8:00 to 5:00 p.m. to 9:00p.m. with rest in between for Palestine and 9:00-12:00 & 4:00-8:30 for Saudi Arabia.

Another consideration of time may include promptness. There is less emphasize on promptness in Hispanic countries, people are considered more important. It is even fashionable to be late in Ecuador. However, in Asian countries, being late is generally considered to be rude. People are very aware of time, so they follow strict schedules. Similar to Hispanic countries, people are more relaxed about time in Arabic countries. Visiting is one of the most important pastimes, not visiting for a long period is a sign that the relationship is insignificant.

Space

People are polite in crowds and shoving is considered discourteous in Brazil. People in Chile, Mexico, Puerto Rico stand very close when talking, often touching their friends clothing and moving away is considered an insult. In Spain, there is more concern with resources and space. [Source: Brigham Young University, Dolphin, Jones, Nine-Curt, Rankins and Safadi and Valentine].

In Cambodia, do not touch another person's head, even a child. Shaking hands is not common and embarrass women if offered. In China and Korea, touching among strangers or casual acquaintances, especially between different sexes is considered inappropriate [N,S]. In general, people do not line up for things; crowds will push to enter, pushing and shoving is common and generally not considered impolite because personal space is limited [S]. Conformity, even appearance is particularly distinct in Japan. Characteristic of the rule is generally to act similar to, or in harmony with the crowd. In Malaysia, a person's ancestral background is often important to social status and future opportunities.

Of Arabic countries, distance between members of the same sex is closer than in the U.S. and farther apart for members of the opposite sex. Furthermore, out of respect, there should be proper distance between genders in Iran and women are separated from men when visiting and eating in Saudi Arabia. But in Lebanon and Palestine, personal space is more limited, so people may stand closer in conversation. Social classes play a key role in the society in Egypt.

Environment

For the social and business environment, when one looks at Hispanic countries one finds information about social customs such as gifts, conversation topics and dining habits. For example, in Brazil, you should give a gift to the host/hostess when invited to dinner and avoid personal questions, politics and religion in casual conversations. In Chile, flowers and chocolate are common gifts for host family, and it is important to show interest in someone's family. Light casual conversation precedes business discussions there. It is bad manners to eat food on the street except for ice cream. In Colombia, overeating is impolite, a host my offer helpings but this should be politely refused. In Cuba, when inviting a guest to a restaurant, the host is expected to pay for the meal and midday meal is considered the most important meal. In Mexico and Puerto Rico, both hands are kept above the table at all times and guests do not leave directly after the meal, but stay for conversation or business discussions. It is also inappropriate for adults to eat while walking on the street. In Puerto Rico, to be polite, one often declines a gift or invitation several times before accepting. But gifts are freely given and are unwrapped immediately. In Spain, when you are first invited to someone's home, decline at first as it might only be a polite courtesy, accept only if the host insists. It is polite to send or bring flowers and gifts when visiting.

There are a lot in common within Asian countries, such as, people tend to be formal in their introductions and will use full titles of their guests; Small inexpensive gifts are given to the host/hostess. And open criticism and public disagreement are considered very serious, because it is not considered proper to damage another's reputation; The host will try to refill a guest's bowl/plate with more food until politely refused; And they are very careful to allow others escape from potential embarrassment with dignity; Discussion about the government and politics are usually avoid. Yet there are some slight differences. For example, Japanese people feel a deep obligation to return favors and gifts. In Korea, how one is greeted depends on one's age and environment standing relative to the greeter. Japanese, Korean and Chinese eat with chopsticks and spoons, and Malays and Indians eat with hands and spoons. In Philippines, a small portions is left on the plate to indicate the person has enough to eat.

It is very important to remember that alcohol is prohibited and should never be given as a gift in Arabic Muslim countries like Egypt, Iran, and Palestine. Muslim also do not eat pork. Gifts of flowers or candy are appropriate when visiting in Iran and Lebanon. In Lebanon, hospitality is a prized tradition and people feel honored to have guests in their homes. The host always prepares and serve guest something to drink and the guest is expected to accept. A word of polite explanation is in order if it is refused. It is also impolite not to try foods that are offered, but a guest can politely refuse more food when enough has been eaten. The meals can last several hours. However, it is not polite to discuss business during a meal. In Palestine, it is important to show respect to all elderly individuals, no matter what social or educational level. You are not expected to visit without invitation there. Saudi Arabians prefer to establish trust and confidence with an individual prior to proceeding with any business. Personal and family honor are important and can easily be offended by any perceived insult of that honor.

Language

Spanish is the official language in all Hispanic countries with the only exception of Brazil where Portuguese is the official language. Brazilians will be offended if deliberately spoken to in Spanish, therefore you should try to speak some Portuguese in Brazil and. There are four official languages in Spain: Castillian Spanish, the main language, Catalan, Galician, and Basque. English is taught in school and is widely used in Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Spain, and large cities in Mexico. French is also know in Brazil and Spain. Some Indian languages are spoken, too. Such as Quecha in the inland rural areas of Ecuador. There are 100 Indian languages in Mexico. Acommon way to beckon is a "psst-psst" sound. Family names and titles are used to address older persons and professionals to show respect.

Compared to almost the same official language used in the Hispanic countries, there are large varieties in Asian countries. Khmer is the official language for Cambodia. Standard Chinese, based on Mandarin dialect, is the official language in China. Both Chinese and English are official languages in Hong Kong. Japanese is spoken by Japanese and Korean by Koreans. English and Philipino, which is called Tagalog, are the official languages in Philippines. Malay is the most spoken in Malaysia, but people also speak Chinese, Tamil and English. English, Cantoniese, Malaysian, Mandarin are all official languages in Singapore. The official language is Mandarin Chinese for Taiwan, many people also speak Taiwanese. English is the most popular second language for Asian countries if it is not the official language.

A person is addressed by their full name or title of family name, but never just the name in Chinese spoken countries. Similarly, Japanese tend to be formal in their introductions and will use full titles of their guests. Politeness is extremely important in Japan, a direct "no" is seldom given. Japanese also place great worth on non-verbal language or communications. Frankness is considered uncultured in Philippines. Arabic is the official language of Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Palestine and Lebanon. French is another official language of Lebanon. Usual language used in Iran are Persian and Turkish. English and French are used in Business and Education in Egypt.

When greeting strangers, acquaintances, or friends in Arabic countries, it is important to exchange greetings, to inquire about the person's health and family, and in general to make polite small talk before getting down to business. First names are not used unless invited.

[Source: Brigham Young University, Dolphin, Jones, Nine-Curt, Rankins and Safadi and Valentine].

Suggestions for Adapting to Cultures

If the United States businesses want to be successful in negotiations, it is necessary that U. S. negotiators so their homework to have technical competence and non-condescending attitudes throughout the negotiation.

These tips are passed along by Glyn Dowden, who is a director of joint ventures and associated companies for ABB Combustion Engineering Systems. He stressed that first and foremost is the crucial need for training, and the emphasize is on-the-job training of a core of managers/supervisors to add to their existing skills and indoctrinate the Asian workers in quality control and productivity. There are nine tips:

- 1. Accept the fact that, in Asia, things are accomplished at a slower pace. It should take time to set up successful operations in a developing Asian land. ABB spent years positioning itself favorably in the Indonesian marketplace before opening its Surabaya plant. Dowden feels that it is imperative to initially develop personal relationships, especially to gain access to top government people who can clearaway problems, red tape, etc. It is also wise to gain the experience of working with Indonesian at commercial and technical levels before embarking on specific ventures.
- 2. It is often a good policy to first initiate a smaller manufacturing presence in order to gain credibility for favorable consideration of larger bids. ABB/CE set up and ran the P.T. EST plant before it sought and won a contract, with other partners, to manufacture two 400-megawatt utility steam generating units.
- 3. Do not go it alone. In many instances, a joint venture with Indonesian and/or other foreign partners is the way to go, especially if the customer is a government agency. Developing nations are also interested in gaining technological competence and a project has a far better chance of approval if technology transfer-your commitment to help the nation develop-is a part of it. ABB/CE not only brought in machinery from its successful U.S. plants, but it trained Indonesians in using it. Its joint venture partners proved valuable in supplying personnel for the plant and in establishing suppler relationships for locally- purchased products.
- 4. In making an investment in a developing country, ideally pick a product or service that the country urgently needs. With electrification a top Indonesian goal, a plant manufacturing steam generation components for power stations encountered little opposition.

- 5. Industrial labor costs in Indonesia are substantially lower than in the U.S. Conversely however, an employer may get a lesserskilled person or one who needs training to enhance skills. At first, doing the job properly may require a longer time or even employment of two people rather than one. ABB/CE solved this, to a larger extent, with its painstaking training programs, which also helped overcome a developing country's typical dearth of middle management.
- 6. Make a ceremony of a plant's opening. ABB/CE invited government and industrial leaders, the American ambassador, local dignitaries, the press and executives of the joint venture companies and had an impressive, official agenda. A local Muslim religious leader was present to bless the new facility, and the entire work force participated in the opening, its ceremonies and the accompanying feast.
- 7. Everyone knows that "face" is very important in Asia. Confrontation, especially publicly, is not in the culture. Indonesians, a warm and friendly people, can be offended without your realizing it, such as by openly-negative appraisal of performance. It is best to delicately and obliquely broach a problem issue and permit the Indonesians themselves to study and resolve it.
- 8. Often, employment of "go-betweens" or intermediaries can help provide solutions to problems. They can be useful in interpreting Indonesians' indirect language signals that may not be easily discerned by Western businessmen. For example, in a contract discussion, does "yes" simply mean they heard a question, or does it mean " we have a deal" or does it mean they are willing to talk further about it? Sometimes, it takes experienced people to interpret what is really meant.
- 9. U.S. companies that have overseas plants should be interested in new university programs that permit foreign students studying there to work at company facilities here and /or in their home area. The concept-particularly applicable to firms with business interest in Third World countries-entails alternating periods of academic and practical work related to the students' major field of study [Konopacki, 1992].

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Student-Centered Learning and The Knowledge Workforce

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ABSTRACT

Education is essential in building the economic strength of a country. In the knowledge-based economy of the 21^{st} century, the need for good education is even more important. This paper focuses on the need for a paradigm shift in higher education to meet the needs of students in the 21^{st} century. An increasing number of full time employees are returning to school to obtain further education to ensure their survival in the next century. Educational institutions are searching for an appropriate medium to fill the needs of the new nontraditional students returning to school.

This paper examines the changing needs of the business world and the increasing number of nontraditional students returning to school. There appears to be a strong sentiment that the popular textbook and lecture method currently in place in educational institution is no longer sufficient in preparing the new student population. This paper also examines the rationale and shift in paradigm from the textbook and lecture to the student-centered learning format. The new roles of instructor and students are explored in both the paradigms. Finally, this paper offers how student-centered learning can be successfully implemented in the classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Greenspan succinctly points out that "Workers today must be equipped not simply with technical know-how but also with the ability to create, analyze, transform information and interact with others effectively" (Greenspan, 2000.) In the knowledge-based society, education plays an essential role in the economic strength of a country. The constant changes in the business environment of the 21st century demand a new form of workforce. The 21st century workforce must be adept to make decisions rationally and promptly to meet the demands of their customers. In the knowledge-based economy, educators must revisit how to best prepare their students to respond to the persistently competitive globalized economy. The importance of human capital in the health of any economy is ever more evident in the 21st century than in any other period of time.

HUMAN CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC-GROWTH

Bork contends that for intelligent decisions to be made in democratic societies we need an educated population (Bork, 1997.) Stewart elaborates that the development of human capital is not just about having enough people in the organization but rather having people with the right skills and knowledge to help the organization create competitive advantage, grow, and succeed (Stewart, 1999.) The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development concurs that there is a direct relationship between the quality of a country's higher education system and the health of its economy (Lenn, 2000.) In the early 1960s Schultz established education as a form of human capital and Becker built on Schultz's work to develop a broad theory of human capital (Langelett, 2002.) Schultz studied the effects of education on economic growth in the United States and found that from 1929 to 1957 the additional schooling of the labor force accounted for about one-fifth of the rise in national income (Schultz, 1961.) Denison showed that the increase in schooling of the average worker between 1929 and 1982

explained about 25 percent growth in the per capita income of the United States during the same period (Denision, 1985.)

According to Miller, economists advocate that education helps nations with comparatively scarce resources develop complimentary resources and substitutes that result in efficient utilization of existing resources (Miller, 1967.) Miller contends that people with higher educational levels tend to migrate towards more productive sectors of the economy. As a result, both gross domestic product and individual incomes rise and the economy of the country improve (Miller, 1967.) Becker asserts that all countries that devote substantial amounts of resources to their nationwide education simultaneously experience growth in their gross domestic product (Becker, 1985.) Becker et al. point out that many growing Asian economies possess scarce natural resources and yet were able to sustain growth because of well-educated and dedicated labor forces (Becker, Murphy, & Tamura, 1990.) Barro offers his study of nearly 100 countries from 1960 which found investment in education during the 1960s was an important variable in explaining subsequent growth in per capita income (Barro, 1999.) Bishop points out the declining standardized test scores from 1967 to 1980 had adversely influenced the productivity of workers entering the work force between the 1970s and 1980s (Bishop, 1989.)

Majority of the jobs in the 21st century will require employees to have a broad range and depth of skills. To meet the challenges of the 21st century, U.S. workers must have the training, education, and skills necessary to navigate the next millennium. To be competitive in the global market, American firms need to create and foster an environment where there is continuous learning, training, and knowledge-sharing throughout the company.

EDUCATION IN THE KNOWLEDGE-BASED ECONOMY

In a knowledge-based economy, a great product alone is insufficient to gain sustainable growth for any organization. Adam et al. contend that knowledge acquisition and new skills in training the workforce are necessary to prepare them in meeting challenges of the knowledge-based society (Adam, Awerbuch, Slonim, Wegner & Yesha, 1997.) American businesses increasingly need more skilled workers. According to the U.S. Department of Labor, 75% of today's workers are employed in occupations that require education and training below the associate's degree level (US Department of Labor, 1998.) In 2001, Wirt et al. report that 69 percent of employed adults were required by their employers to continue their education where 75 percent of them received financial support from their employers (Wirt et al., 2003.) In 2002, Choy reports that 30 to 37 percent of the nontraditional undergraduates indicated that obtaining additional education was an important factor required for their jobs (Choy, 2002.)

The increasing need for an educated workforce is a reflection of the changes in the workplace. There are new forms of workplace organization and management that are replacing the traditional workplace to enhance flexibility and improve customer satisfaction. Due to the shift in organization and management, jobs are changing to better fit the new organizational system. According to Phillips & Phillips, capital equipment and technology alone no longer differentiates organizations, it is the workforce and the processes by which that workforce is established, leveraged, and maintained that gives them the competitive advantage (Phillips and Phillips, 2002.) The knowledge economy anchors on two critical commodities as its driving force: people and knowledge. Phillips and Phillips posit "Our economy has moved from focusing on exporting natural resources and the use of machines to mining our own minds" (Phillips and Phillips, 2002.)

Michaels et al. found changing relationships between the workforce and organizations in the 21st century. In the past, organizations offer fewer jobs, put more emphasis on machines, capital, and location, and people are basically indebted to organizations for a place of employment. People were general loyal to their place of employment and their jobs are deemed secured. Furthermore, people accept the standard package offered by their employers. In the knowledge-based economy, firms are searching for talented people to give them the competitive advantage. The standard employment package is no longer sufficient to attract the best employees. The findings of Michaels et al. are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1			
The Old Reality	The New Reality		
People need organizations.	Organizations need people		
Machines, capital,	Talented people are the		
and geography are the	competitive advantages.		
competitive advantage.			
Jobs are scarce.	Talented people are in demand.		
Employees are loyal and	People are mobile and their		
jobs are secure.	commitment is short term.		
People accept the standard	People demand much more.		
package they are offered.			

Michaels et al. The War for Talent, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA 2001.

According to Industry Week in 1997, in a world-class manufacturing plant, work teams may handle decision-making and other responsibilities such as daily job assignments, material management, and production scheduling, (Industry Week, 1997.) Table 2 shows the shifts in organization and management.

Table 2			
Jobs are Changing Due to Shifts in			
Organization and Management			
Element	New System		
	Hiororchical	Flat and Flexible	
Workplace	Rigid	Networks of multi/	
Organization	Function/Specialized	cross-functional teams	
	Narrow	Broad	
Job Design	Do one job	Do many jobs	
Job Design	Repetitive/simplified/ standardized	Multiple responsibilities	
Employee Skills	Specialized	Multi/cross- skilled	
Workforce Management	Command/control systems	Self-management	
Communications	Top down Need to know	Widely diffused Big picture	
Decision-making responsibility	Chain of command	Decentralized	
Direction	Standardized/fixed operating procedures	Procedures under constant change	
Worker Autonomy	Low	High	
Employee knowledge of organization	Narrow	Broad	

U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Technology Policy, Briefing for Secretary Ronald H. Brown for the Conference on the American Workplace, 1993.

SHIFT IN HIGHER EDUCATION PARADIGM

The changes in the compositions of student population in the United States and around the world dictate a change in teaching and learning models to help develop a pool of suitable employment candidates. Researchers found that there is a projected increase in the number of non-traditional students who are different from their traditional counterparts in age, educational background, foundation skills, ethnicity, and gender (Wirt et al., 2003.) Major factors that contribute to the changing student demographics include globalization, advancement in technology, increase competition, workplace requirement, and societal changes. The efficacy of the traditional lecture and textbook method had come into close scrutiny specifically for its applicability in preparing the workforce of the 21st century. In a rapidly changing global workplace, the traditional lecture and textbook may be inept to prepare students to meet the challenges facing them. Furthermore, the sovereignty and boundaries of countries no longer protect domestic jobs as the world increasingly employs geocentric hiring policy where the best candidate is chosen.

There is an increasing acknowledgement of a shift in instructional philosophy where the instructor is no longer the sole source of knowledge but, instead, should serve as a facilitator supporting students' learning (Macdonald, 2001.) According to Baloian et al. the traditional classroom environment where the instructor controls the class content appears to be inadequate in preparing the workforce for lifelong learning (Baloian, Pino & Hoppe, 2000.) Hammond et al. assert that traditional classroom environment offers learners little control over the learning content and process to meet their individual needs (Hammond, McKendree, Reader, Trapp & Scott, 1995.) Beaudoin maintains that historically placid classroom environment requires new rules of engagement in order to meet the challenges of the convergence of competition, cost, technology and new consumer demands (Beaudoin, 2003.) Beaudoin reiterates that the lecture and textbook method is primarily a source of information, rather than an actual learning media (Beaudoin, 2003.) Sullivan asserts that current visions of preparing students for the 21st century advocate enabling and empowering students in the present and for the future (Sullivan, 2002.)

Numerous researchers provided evidence in how new educational models and technologies are changing the learning environment from a classroom-based, teacher-centered model to a student-focused, technology-based model (Burke, 1994; Phelps, 1994; & Sanchez, 1994.) Zhang and Zhou concur that there is an increase in the use of networked computers and advancements in telecommunication technology, learning methods and infrastructures are becoming more portable and flexible in order to enable anywhere, just-in-time and self-centered learning (Zhang & Zhou, 2003.) Ingram et al. propose that in the real world what fits wells is the action learning approach which starts from the question or challenge at work (Ingram, Sandelands, & Teare, 2002.) A well-known authority on artificial intelligence, Schank, proposes that what should be done to enhance the learning process in the knowledge-based society is to teach questions rather than answers. According to Schank, a major goal of educators is to teach students to think critically about new problems and not to memorize answers because in most real world situations, there are no right answers. Schank further emphasizes that educators need to remove the stigma of failure and to encourage students to learn from experience and mistakes (Schank, 1994.) Ingram et al. posit that in the real world, managers are confronted with disorganized, conflicting messages with no obvious "right" answers (Ingram et al., 2002.)

STUDENT-CENTERED LEARNING

Thornburg defined student-centered learning as a discipline that involves the interaction of a team of students who experience creative learning to be used in the real world (Thornburg, 1995). Thornburg pointed out that students are the focal point of student-centered learning while the role of teachers changes to that of one who can assist and guide students in their search for knowledge. Cass & Csete described a different term "learner controlled instruction" where the learner has some control in the type of instruction that is given. According to Cass and Csete, in the learner controlled instruction format, the learner can decide how and what they want to learn and function in the real world (Cass & Csete, 1995.) The teacher's role to control the instruction includes the procedures, time restraints, and evaluation. Furthermore, Harmon and Hirumi assert that in student-centered learning, students become active knowledge workers rather than passive knowledge recipients (Harmon, and Hirumi, 1996.) In the student-centered learning environment, the teachers serve as facilitators and guides to help their students construct their own learning.

The new emerging technology serves as the backbone for student-centered learning. Researchers claim that availability of technologies such as networking and rapid accessibility to information allows students to become actively involve in their search for knowledge instead of passively receiving information from the teacher (Harmon and Hirumi, 1996.) Cook and Cook reported teachers acknowledging the importance of technology in a student-centered learning environment. They pointed out that technology enables teachers and students to jointly construct knowledge with their students (Cook & Cook, 1998.)

STUDENT-CENTERED LEARNING APPLIED

Student-centered learning appears to be a viable alternative to the textbook and lecture method that can more appropriately help students prepared for their future in the 21st century. Literature of student-centered learning covers one school of thoughts that emphasizes on the active role of students in their education. This part of the paper focuses on how student-centered learning was applied in an MBA course at Northwest Missouri State University. Materials in textbooks change frequently and are easily outdated. The focal point of the selected course, Problems in Business, was to cover relevant current issues in the business world. Using the student-centered learning format, the students become active participants to their own search for knowledge.

To create an appropriate atmosphere to implement the studentcentered learning format, the instructor created a flexible course syllabus that included the standard guideline of the course purpose, objective, and assessment policy. The instructor selected a list of major topics that students were required to focus on. The major topics were deemed relevant and applicable to all industries and they include: globalization, technological innovation, increase competition, employee retention, and corporate responsibility and ethics. The instructional methods used in the course were open discussions, critical thinking, extensive research, and a final comprehensive exam. The parameters for assessment in this course included: five research-based article critiques, a 30-page research project, a presentation of their research, and a comprehensive final exam that covers each student's selected industry and three randomly selected industries from the class. The students were empowered to choose an industry that they were either interested in pursuing or were involved in during the time of the course offering. The instructor facilitated open discussions and encouraged active student participations to help students gain useful knowledge of their industries. The students were made aware that they are interdependent on each other to successfully complete the course. The students had to take a comprehensive final exam on all the industries selected by the students in the course. The final exam was designed to reflect the workplace environment where employees in teams are interdependent on each other for the success of their teams.

The course was taught in two semesters with 14 and 12 students in fall of 2001 and summer of 2002 respectively. There were a total of 11 and nine industries selected by the students in fall 2001 and summer 2002 respectively. In both semesters, students appeared to be receptive to the student-centered learning format. Based on the end of semester evaluation, majority of the students felt positively about the course. The evaluation consisted of eleven questions and uses a four-point scale: "SA = Strongly Agree," "A = Agree," "D = Disagree," and "SD = Strongly Disagree." Tables 3 and 4 show

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the distributions of fall 2001 and summer 2002 end of semester evaluations.

Table 3 Fall 2001 End of Semester Evaluation					
	Item Analysis	SA	Α	D	SD
I	Objectives have been made clear	53.85%	38.46%	7.69%	0.00%
2	Informed on how they would be evaluated	69.23%	30.77%	0.00%	0.00%
3	Was prepared for class	76.92%	23.08%	0.00%	0.00%
4	Was available for consultation	84.62%	15.38%	0.00%	0.00%
5	Used examples to clarify	69.23%	23.08%	7.69%	0.00%
6	Return exams, assignments on time	84.62%	15.38%	0.00%	0.00%
7	Made helpful comments	76.92%	23.08%	0.00%	0.00%
8	Open to questions during class	84.62%	7.69%	7.69%	0.00%
9	Provided feedback	61.54%	38.46%	0.00%	0.00%
10	Communicated a high degree of knowledge	69.23%	23.08%	7.69%	0.00%
II	Satisfied with instruction	61.54%	30.77%	0.00%	7.69%

Table 4 Summer 2002 End of Semester Evaluation

	Item Analysis	SA	Α	D	SD
I	Objectives have been made clear	80.00%	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%
2	Informed on how they would be evaluated	80.00%	0.00%	20.00%	0.00%
3	Was prepared for class	80.00%	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%
4	Was available for consultation	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
5	Used examples to clarify	60.00%	40.00%	0.00%	0.00%
6	Return exams, assignments on time	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
7	Made helpful comments	80.00%	0.00%	20.00%	0.00%
8	Open to questions during class	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
9	Provided feedback	80.00%	0.00%	20.00%	0.00%
10	Communicated a high degree of knowledge	80.00%	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%
11	Satisfied with instruction	60.00%	40.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Tables 3 and 4 indicate that majority of the students was satisfied with the student-centered learning format. As shown in the first two questions of the survey, majority of the students agreed with the objective of the course and felt informed on how they will be assessed. Furthermore, majority of the students were satisfied with the instruction of this course as indicated by the last question in the survey. To better understand what factors might have contributed to student satisfaction and what factors might be improved to increase student satisfaction, the end of the semester student comments were review for more insights. Table 5 shows the feedback from students in both semesters to the question, "What are the major strengths of this person as an instructor?" Their responses are provided verbatim in the following table.

Table 5 What are the major strengths of this person as an instructor?

Knowledge of subject matter
Caring of the students, is open to suggestions.
Experience, knowledge
Well prepared. Drew everyone into the discussion.
Very open and receptive to discussion and ideas.
Very receptive to different views. She gets conversation going – thinking – world knowledge (first hand experience.)
Incorporating outside ideas and sources into the class. Framework – provides a different view in cultural and societal ideas.
Knows a lot of information on many subjects.
Extremely intelligent and well-versed on cultural, issues in the business world.
Her experiences and the manner in which she relates them to the class.
Her energy she brings to the classroom. Ability to keep a threaded discussion going in class. The relaxed atmosphere.
Diverse knowledge. Having an international background. Great personality and true concern for students.

Based on the feedback provided by students on Table 5, it appeared that student satisfaction was due in part to their perceptions of the diverse knowledge, classroom openness, flexibility, and outside material incorporated into the course. The factors mentioned by students can all be credited to the studentcentered learning where the students were active participants in researching material pertaining to the major issues in the course. The fact that students chose their own industry created a vast and diverse pool of knowledge for the course. Furthermore, the final assessment provided students with an incentive to gain insights to all the industries selected help them learn from each other and thus allows for more discussion, critical thinking, and exchanging of information.

Table 6 shows the feedback from students to the question, "How could this instructor improve and become a better instructor? Their responses are provided verbatim in the following table.

Table 6 How could this instructor improve and become a better instructor?

	More structure
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I wouldn't suggest anything at this time.

No suggestions.

I don't think she was given time before she knew she has this class to give more structure.

No complaints.

More of a structure.

Based on the feedback provided by students in Table 6, more structure in the classroom setting could improve the delivery of this course. The implementation of the student-centered learning format is not as popular as the textbook and lecture format, it is expected that some students felt more structure might be useful. Although the feedback from the students might be biased towards the textbook and lecture format, it is nevertheless useful to the instructor for future offering using the student-centered learning format.

Table 7 shows the feedback from students to the question, "What did you particularly like about this course?" Their responses are provided verbatim in the following table.

Table 7 What did you particularly like about this course?

Open discussions
I liked the openness and the freedom. It made me feel comfortable.
Open conversation.
Enjoyable class, very informative.
Open discussions and opinions.
Very communicative – discussion based covered different topics/ industries.
Open forum
Like the open discussion.
Format – laid back/class atmosphere was great. Subject material we covered was interesting.
The discussions we had and the small class size.
No textbook! The option to truly discuss the issues and the ability to help direct the class into areas of discussion. My opinion counted

Based on the feedback provided by students in Table 7, it appears that the factor students find most attractive in the delivery of the course is the open discussions they experienced in the course. Based on the feedback from the students, it appears that the students enjoyed the flexibility to research and share information with each other. The number of industries selected by the students also helped in generating different areas of interest. The interdependence that students have on each other is also instrumental in creating an open discussion environment where the students take the initiative to ask questions and provide insights about the different industries in each class. Table 8 shows the feedback from students to the question, "What weaknesses do you find in the course as it is set up and what do you propose for eliminating these weaknesses?" Their responses are provided verbatim in the following table.

Table 8
What weaknesses
do you find in this course as it is set up?

Research paper was too long

The only thing I can see is if the final doesn't go well to provide a book to go from.

More structure

None

No complaints

More material, not only class discussion, real case study.

Not much structure – seemed to go oft on tangents and discuss different issues. It's nice to keep interesting not made difficult to study or review what I learned. I think providing more structure and guidelines could be helpful.

None.

Based on the feedback provided by students in Table 8, it appears that more structure for the course was reiterated as the major weakness of the course.

CONCLUSION

The 21st century marketplace is highly competitive and changes frequently. In order to better prepare our students to meet the challenges of the knowledge-based society, we need to afford them the tools of finding information that would help them grow and construct knowledge. The lecture and textbook method does not appear to be the most effective way to prepare the students of the 21st century as textbook material are quickly outdated by the rapid changes in the business world. Using student-centered learning, instructors can transform the classroom setting into an environment that better reflect the "real" world. Students take on an active role for their education and can customize their own education to their needs in the student-centered learning environment. Instructors, on the other hand, serve as facilitators to guide and assist students in their search for relevant information to construct their knowledge. Student-centered learning empowers students to take charge of their education and be actively responsible in preparing their own future. In an increasingly globalized knowledge economy where consumers are demanding and have more choices than ever before, there is no room for delay. Efficient employees who are diligently productive will be revered and those who are not as productive will be left behind.

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Teaching the Lessons of Downsizing: The Broken Bond Technique

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ABSTRACT

The impact of downsizing and the changing psychological contract on employee and employer assumptions of loyalty, trust, motivation, and commitment receives fragmentary coverage in most mainstream management textbooks. This article advocates the importance of dealing with these subjects in the management curriculum, and presents a new experiential technique, The Broken Bond Exercise, as a method of engaging undergraduate students at both the emotional and cognitive levels. Research opportunities arising from this technique are suggested and a comparison is made with a methodology that is effective for experienced managers.

Fifteen years ago organizations in North America and much of Western Europe were experiencing the birth pangs of what was called a new employment contract (De Meuse & Tornow, 1990; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Thomas Kuhn's (1970) conceptual framework was rescued from obscurity and the words "paradigm shift" became part of the downsizing vocabulary. People were increasingly viewed as costs to be reduced as opposed to assets to be developed, waves of layoffs swept over many corporations, and some researchers began to focus on the impact of this organizationally induced trauma on those who remained - the survivors (Cameron, Freeman & Mishra, 1991; Brockner, Wiesenfeld, Reed, Grover & Martin, 1993).

The purpose of this article is to both offer a perspective for the relevance of this often overlooked topic to today's management curriculum, and to share an experiential exercise that helps undergraduate students experience the sense of violation that underlies this phenomenon. In order to provide a context, it is useful to understand my background. During the mid-eighties, I was the CEO of a large subsidiary of a computer company. I managed the downsizing of this organization from 2,500 to less than 100 employees. I then returned to school and completed my doctoral work. My dissertation focused on the effects of downsizing on survivors, and as much as I tried to adhere to the positivist tradition of dispassionate objectivity, its preparation served as a cathartic process for my own anger and grief. I subsequently wrote a book (Noer, 1993) a user-friendly version of my dissertation, which found a receptive market among those individuals and organizations who were struggling to put the pieces together after experiencing the reality of this new employment contract. The book and my own passion for the subject lead to a successful consulting career, which I left four years ago when I re-entered the halls of academe. I found myself facing the considerable challenge of attempting to facilitate awareness and understanding of the implications of the shifting employment contract both to undergraduate organizational behavior students, and to a certain extent, to my own colleagues.

WHY TEACH IT AT ALL

The impact of the changing psychological contract on basic employee and employer assumptions of loyalty, trust, motivation, and commitment does not occupy a large spot on the radar screens of business majors and it receives slight and fragmentary coverage in most main-stream organizational behavior, management, and human resource textbooks. For those colleagues who may, therefore, wonder why such an effort is necessary at all, I offer my top three reasons.

The Necessity of Promoting an Awareness of the Hazards of an Organizational Dependency Relationship

In many ways things have not changed; involuntary downsizing continues and research also continues to point out the negative effects on survivor morale and productivity (Probst, 2003; De Meuse, Bergmann, Vanderheiden & Roraff, 2004). Employees continue to trust that, if they do a good job and fit into the culture, their employer will take care of them, and survivors continue to operate under increased levels of stress and struggle to gain a sense of control (Devine, Reay, Stainton, & Collins-Nakai, 2003). Metaphorically speaking, employees are still placing all their social and emotional eggs in the organizational basket. Since there is a significant probably that the basket will be dropped and the eggs damaged, a large number of employees suffer from what has been called organizational co-dependence: a condition caused by making one's self-esteem contingent on remaining in an organizational system (Noer, 1993). Even with generational differences, the students who pass through our classrooms and into the workplace are susceptible to forming unhealthy, dependency relationships with their employers.

The Need to make Students Aware of Schizophrenic Organizational Communications Strategies

Organizations continue to send mixed messages. On the one hand, they offer compensation, status, and recognition programs that are based on tenure and fitting in as opposed to customer service and productivity. On the other, they operate under the concept of employment at will, and do not hesitate to terminate employees when economic conditions, mergers, or profit margins dictate. Twenty years after the wake-up call of the eighties, employers still condition employees into a dependency relationship and drop them when times are tough. The result is a significant erosion of trust and a need to develop more relevant and authentic communication strategies (Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman & Bordia 2004).

If Not in Our Classrooms, Where

Undergraduate management classrooms may be the only places students have the opportunity to engage around these issues. As new entrants to the professional labor market, they can learn to be more reflective and aware of the unwritten psychological connection between person and job. An awareness that projected layoff cost savings can be misleading because survivor symptoms impact the bottom line (De Meuse, et al., 2004) will make them more deliberative decision makers as they move into management roles. They can be more overt in regard to bonding with their employers around the work itself and not abstract concepts of longterm, reciprocal loyalty, and fitting in. This will both help their organizations, and provide an antidote to unhealthy dependency (Noer, 1997).

LEARNING FROM WHAT DIDN'T WORK

An early wake-up call was that my dynamite, nearly foolproof exercise, one that I had used with managers, executives, and executive MBA's, bombed with undergraduates! I include a brief description, both because it can be a very useful tool for those colleagues working with MBA's and managers, and it demonstrates that what works with experienced managers may not fit the emotional and social environment of undergraduates

This exercise involves telling a story, the metaphor of the surviving children (Noer, 1993). I ask participants to visualize a caring, loving family having breakfast together. There is a father, a mother, and four children. One parent announces to the children that, although all family members are important, she is on a fixed income and with increasing prices, simply can't afford to feed clothe and house all the children. She tells them it is nothing personal, just a rational response to economic conditions and necessary to create a lean, mean, competitive family. She then points to a boy on one side of the table and a girl on the other and announces that they must leave the family. The second scene in this visualization takes place the next morning when the two surviving children notice that there is no sign of the two who have departed. Their chairs and cutlery have been removed. Neither parent talks about them. The tone is very business like. The father tells them that, since they are lucky to have remained in the family, they will have to work harder to cover the chores and duties of their departed sister and brother. The scene ends with the mother imploring them to eat their corn flakes because food is expensive and a vision of the two children woodenly shoveling food in their mouths.

The next step involves forming three sub-groups. One represents the children who have stayed with the family, the second the children who have left, and the third - I usually put the senior managers in this group - the parents. I ask them to reflect on the feelings of their respective group. Most groups discover a mutuality of survivor feelings: all three groups share anger, guilt, and anxiety. The next question is the validity of the metaphor to their organization. This, nearly always, stimulates a discussion whether or not the family model fits, the clarity of the real psychological contract, and whether the feelings attributed to the metaphorical family exist within their organization. The final question is what the group can do to deal with these survivor symptoms.

I use this exercise as an un-freezing process and I try to limit it to about an hour. In most cases, I have to pry participants out of their small groups in order to adhere to this time frame. Much of the power of the exercise is that it smokes out repressed emotions and legitimizes and facilitates their externalization. This is a necessary first step to moving forward.

The first time I used it with an undergraduate organizational behavior class, the three small groups completed their tasks in less than five minutes, and even though I pushed, the large group discussion lasted less than ten minutes. The next time I tried, the results were no better. An experiential exercise that engaged and stimulated working managers was dispatched by undergraduates with the rapidity of swatting a fly! When I asked why they had stopped talking after three minutes the response was, "We're done." These were smart, at least, SAT-smart, students and I was a good facilitator, clearly something wasn't working. Here is my diagnosis:

They Lacked an Organizational Self-Definition

Unlike their parents, several of whom had experienced the trauma of downsizing, the context of the students' self-definition was not organizational. As college seniors, there were a number of factors unfolding in their lives, but none involved the organizational relationship that leads to co-dependence.

They had an Objective, Convergent, Instrumental Orientation

All of the organizational behavior students were business majors, and in my institution, the business curriculum has a distinctly quantitative bias. Most were good at analytical thinking and quantitative problem solving, but suffered a deficit in process skills. This led to an instrumental, convergent, problem solving orientation; all problems were a means to a well defined end, and there was one clear solution. They approached the exercise cognitively. Unlike managers, they didn't connect emotionally.

THE BROKEN BOND EXERCISE

What was needed was a way of engaging students at the emotional level. While at the Center for Creative Leadership, I had experimented with bonding groups together and then breaking those bonds through an external intervention as a way of demonstrating the sense of violation experienced by layoff survivors. I have now used this "Broken Bond" exercise with eight undergraduate classes and find it very effective. Much of its power is that, unlike the metaphor of the surviving children, it responds to needs that are more central to undergraduate students: affiliation and peer relationships. The exercise involves four steps: (a) Bonding by creating group roles norms and identity, (b) Forcing group downsizing, (c) Initially processing the results, and (d) Integrating the learnings.

Step One: Accelerated Group Development

The first stage entails an accelerated process of group development. Using Tuckman's model (1965), this involves moving the group into the norming stage. The first day of class the students divide into small groups. It is made clear that these groups function as primary reference groups throughout the class. Groups sit together, do exercises together, can earn bonus points on exams if the group average is higher than the average of individual scores, and complete a group project. During the first five classes, the groups create a symbol, participate in a short team building exercise, take one group exam, and participate in an outdoor "ropes" activity as a group. Classes at my university are four credit hours, an hour and forty minutes per class, so the groups have spent about eight and a half hours together after five classes. This does not include the outdoor event which lasts four hours and takes place on a Saturday. Others using this process will have to take into account their own schedule and make adjustments. I have found that after five classes and the outdoor event, student groups have a well-defined identity and group norms have evolved.

Step Two: Forced Downsizing

The second stage is designed to simulate the trauma of forced downsizing both for those who leave and those who stay. It takes place during the sixth class. The instructor tells the class the following:

In order to derive the maximum benefit from the small group activities planned for the rest of the semester, it will be necessary to form a new group. This group will be formed by each of the current groups downsizing and giving up one member. This will be a permanent decision and the person will not return to your group. I will meet individually with each group to explain the process of dismissing a member.

This simulates the process of "real world" downsizing by making the decision non-negotiable, announced by top management, and delegating the implementation to middle management. The instructor then meets individually and privately with each of the groups. There are three sets of instruction. If there are more than three groups, duplicate scenarios are divided among the groups.

Scenario one: the boss decides unilaterally.

Prior to the exercise the instructor has decided who will play the role of boss. I choose a person who has taken a leadership role in previous sessions and has the poise and self-confidence to play the role. The following instructions are given to the entire group:

Agnes will be choosing the person who must leave your group. She will do this without consulting the other group members. Agnes, you need to consider what is best for the group. Please leave the room and decide who must leave. Once you have decided, come and get me, and I will accompany you when you announce your decision to the group. You have fifteen minutes to make your decision.

Although the exercise better simulates real world organizations and is more powerful when a student assumes the unilateral decision maker role, caution is necessary. If, in the instructor's opinion there is not a student with sufficient self-esteem and leadership qualities, the exercise should be modified and the decision made by the instructor.

Scenario two: the boss decides with input.

The instructions in this scenario are again given to the entire group:

Fred will be making the final decision. Fred, you may consult with any or all group members, however, the decision will be yours to make. Consensus is not necessary. The only rule is that no one can volunteer, you must make a choice. You have fifteen minutes to make your decision.

Scenario three: the group decides

Here are the instructions for the group approaching the downsizing decision with this option: You must make a group decision. You can use any process that makes sense to you. The only rule is no one

can volunteer, the group must choose. You have fifteen minutes to make your decision.

Step Three: Initial Processing

The next stage involves an initial processing of the results. The first task is attending those who have been downsized. The new group should be assembled in a separate room or a private area. It is helpful if the instructor can find a colleague to process this group. This gives her time to work concurrently with the remainder of the class. Skilled facilitation and empathy are very important at this point. I ask each person to write answers to three questions: (a) What happened, how did the group make their choice, (b) Why do you think you were picked, and (c) How do you feel now? This not only helps structure the discussion, but also provides information for future research.

The next task involves meeting with the groups who downsized. I ask each group to respond to the following questions: (a) What process did your group use, (b) How did it work, and (c) What are the feelings of group members now?

I then bring the new group into the room, explain that the process was set up to simulate the effects of downsizing, but that the new group will be permanent for the rest of the semester. As homework, I ask each class member to think more deeply and write a brief, reflective paper about what happened and how he or she feels. I don't discuss the paper in class. It both serves as a cathartic emotional release for the student, and gives me feedback concerning the emotional impact of the exercise.

Step Four: Integrating the Learnings

The final step takes place during the next class period. There are many options open to the instructor. I usually facilitate discussions around the following dimensions:

- 1. The differences in feelings between those who left and those who stayed. Research would predict that both would feel somewhat violated (Allen, Freeman, Russell, Reizenstein & Rentz, 2001; Devine, et al., 2003). This has generally held true with my students.
- 2. Differences between the survivor groups who used different processes for decision-making. With the exception of one group, the experience of my classes has supported the research that survivor symptoms are, to some extent, reduced by the amount of employee participation (Amundson, Borgen, Jordan & Eriebach, 2004).
- 3. The implicit bond or psychological contract between group members before the exercise and the current bond.
- 4. The implications of this exercise to "real world" organizations.

I conclude the exercise with a short lecture on the shifting employment contract and the positive and negative implications in regard to loyalty, commitment, and motivation. I emphasize the necessity of seeking short-term satisfaction in the work itself as opposed to expecting to be taken care of by the corporation (Noer, 1997).

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The purpose of this article has been to share a technique that I have found to be very effective in promoting emotional awareness and framing classroom discussion of, what I feel, is a very important and often, overlooked aspect of organizational behavior. I will conclude with summary comments in regard to the technique's flexibility, research opportunities, and the importance of skilled facilitation.

Flexibility. Although I have used the Broken Bond Exercise a number of times, each experience is unique. The technique is flexible enough to accommodate diverse teaching styles, class size, and student composition. Although I have focused my comments on undergraduate management students, the exercise is also appropriate for MBA and executive education applications.

Research opportunities. My primary orientation has been teaching, and although I have gathered some data, I have not pursued research opportunities. For those interested, however, a deeper and more structured investigation of the three methods of downsizing represents an opportunity to build on previous research.

The importance of facilitation skills. Bonding individuals to a group and subsequently severing those bonds is a powerful simulation of the dynamics of what takes place in real world downsizing. The price for this powerful learning is the possibility of damaging student self-esteem or peer relationships. Although this has not been apparent in my student groups, it is important that the instructor be diligent in focusing on both the needs of the group made up of those who were downsized, and the person who made the unilateral downsizing decision. The currency of the realm is feelings and emotions. Skillful and empathetic facilitation is necessary. Instructors unsure of their facilitation skills would be well served to pair up with an experienced facilitator when attempting this technique for the first time.

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The Integration of Law and Ethics

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INTRODUCTION

The business school curriculum faces a crisis. "There has never been a more crucial time to emphasize law in a business curriculum."1 Corporate scandals have highlighted the need for greater understanding and application of law as well as ethics on the part of business school graduates. During the last three decades, most business schools have reduced, marginalized or eliminated business law and business law faculty as other disciplines grew in stature and popularity.² Ethics in the curriculum has suffered an even greater loss. Today, approximately two out of three schools accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) do not require a stand alone ethics course.³ As curriculum committees have attempted restructuring requirements, not only have law and ethics been marginalized, the two subjects have been treated as trade-offs. Immediately after the outbreak of the scandals at Enron, WorldCom and Adelphia, business schools received some much deserved criticism. However, as will be pointed out later, the AACSB has failed to adjust accrediting standards.

In this paper, a different approach to delivering law and ethics will be explained as well as demonstrating a more in depth understanding of the application of the subject matter by current business school students. "We sometimes assume that a person's values are formed during childhood and do not change after that. In fact, a great deal of psychological research, as well as one's own personal experiences, demonstrate that as people mature, their values change in very deep and profound ways."⁴ The experiences that will be explained, based on student assessments, find that students do change their views and thus their understanding and attitudes as explained in this paper and the companion article entitled "The Psychological Foundation for an Integrated Course in Law and Ethics" by Dr. Richard J. McGowan.

The College of Business Administration of Butler University is accredited by the AACSB. However, Butler is in the minority of AACSB accredited schools requiring a stand alone ethics course. As explained, only one-third of the AACSB schools require an ethics course; this percentage has remained constant since 1988.⁵ Butler has gone one step farther in that we teach such an ethics course fully integrated with the legal environment of business course. This takes place in the sophomore year and we find the students even better prepared for their upper level work than when these two courses were taught as the standard three credit stand alone courses. In this paper, the integration pedagogy aspects will be covered as well as the legal concepts used to deliver the course. The students' understanding of the contents from both disciplines will be demonstrated by citations from student prepared comments presented in November 2004 to the Tri-State Academy of Legal Studies in Business. Dr. McGowan and this writer team teach the subject course. This course has been taught in multiple sections as a pilot over four semesters by these two full-time faculty members as well as by another full-time faculty member who has been assisted by adjunct faculty. The course has now been approved by the University as a required course of all undergraduate business students replacing the two stand alone courses which were previously required.

Pre-law students from other colleges of the University have elected to take this course based on its reputation among the student body. These pre-law students tend to be quite successful otherwise, but who are willing to put forth added effort simply because they are serious students eager to learn.

Each class begins with an open discussion of current events and things that have happened in the students' lives having relevance to the course. The students become quite engaged during this dialogue and the relevance to law and ethics are openly and freely discussed. One of the central themes of the course is that there is a right and wrong. Many times someone in the news will have simply gotten by on a legal technicality and the discussion focuses on the fact that this does not make that person's conduct right. Usually, the discussion that follows turns to one of the central themes of the course which is that in the long run, the public's perception of what is ethical drives our laws. Even though the course meets four days per week for 75 minutes, faculty still get pressed for time insofar as course content is concerned. The students would rather have to do additional study outside of class than for this discussion and dialogue period to be limited. Colleagues who hear about this from the students marvel at how this can happen. Also, students from prior semesters who are not in class at our class times, have asked to sit in on these beginning of class dialogues. Such requests have to be refused because of the negative impact this would have on the dynamics of the current class.

The semester begins with three common law cases all of which deal with common law precedent that shocked the conscience of the court from an ethical point of view. The first such case deals with the common law based on rugged individualism whereby persons are only responsible for what was done and not for what was not done. This first case, Soldano v. O'Daniels,⁶ was heard by the California Court of Appeals who found no specific case on point and ruled in favor of the plaintiff; that court overturned the trial courts granting of summary judgment for the defendant with instructions that a party could be found negligent if his/her inaction resulted in impeding a good samaritan and remanded the case back to the trial court. In this case, a patron of one facility was

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 Prentice, Robert, "An Ethics Lesson for Business Schools," <u>The New York</u> <u>Times</u> (August 20, 2002); Section A; column 2; Editorial Desk; Pg 19

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 Ibid

³ Derocher, R. J., "Knowing right from Wrong" Insight Online (January/ February, 2004); Willen, L., "Kellogg Denies Guilt as Business Schools evade alumni lapses:, Bloomberg (March 8, 2004)

⁴ Velasquex, Manuel G., <u>Business Ethics, Concepts and Cases</u>, Pg 27; Fifth Edition; Prentice Hall; 2002

⁵ Stewart C., "A Question of Ethics: How to Teach Them?"; The New York Times (March 21, 2004)

^{6 141,} Cal. App. 3d 443, 190 Cal. Rptr. 310, 1983, Cal. App. LEXIS 1539 (1983)

being threatened with death by a second patron. A third patron (termed the good samaritan in the case) went across the street to another bar seeking a call to the police. The bartender refused to make the call or to let the good samaritan use the telephone. The threat was carried out and the heir of the murder victim sued the bartender and his employer. The trial court found for the latter and this shocked the conscience of the Appeals Court.

The second case, Edwards v. Clinton Valley Center,7 was before the Michigan Court of Appeals whose conscience was similarly shocked but that court could not overturn existing common law due to there being a Michigan Supreme Court case on point granting sovereign immunity to state operated facilities such as Clinton Valley. The judge in dicta expressed displeasure and challenged the Supreme Court of Michigan to overturn prior common law or for the legislature to deal with the issue statutorily. This result allows for the explanation of the operation of stare decisis but also introduces how non-constitutional issues are dealt with through the legislative process. In this case, a former mental patient of Clinton Valley stated that she was going to kill someone. The Pontiac Michigan police took her to Clinton Valley, a state run hospital and she was refused admission. The former patient threatened a second time with the same result and thereafter the threat was carried out. The victim's spouse sued the hospital who denied liability under sovereign immunity.

The third case, Flagiello v. Pennsylvania Hospital,⁸ was a Pennsylvania Supreme Court case which overruled existing common law which years before had been established by the same court. Again, the conscience of the court was shaken and the court overturned prior precedent. The judge used in excess of 20 rationales and cited numerous cases from other jurisdictions in delivering the majority opinion. In this case, the victim, hospitalized for an unrelated illness, had been injured in the hospital by the alleged negligence of the hospital employees. The hospital, which was operated by a charity, simply moved for summary judgment based on charitable immunity without answering the negligence charge. Naturally, the trial court had granted summary judgment. This is the concluding case in this series which introduced common law, how it gets changed, and how underlying ethical concepts were the driving force in this process.

After a period of time of approximately two weeks when ethics principles are introduced by the ethics professor, the course returns to the legal evolution of the law governing the responsibility of the bystander. The law textbook⁹ has a strong section which takes the student from the old English rule, based on rugged individualism to modern day responsibilities. The concept is introduced by Union Pacific Railway Co v. Coppier,¹⁰ a 1903 Kansas case, which found no responsibility of the bystanders who stood by and watched a man die. The man had been injured in a train accident through no fault of the railroad but no emergency assistance had been tendered. The next case in the sequence is an Iowa 1921 case in which an employer did next to nothing when his hired hand in a farm field fainted from sunstroke and remained unconscious. The employer hauled him to a nearby wagon and left him still exposed to the sun. The Iowa court recognized a special relationship of the employer to the employee and held that when "a servant suffers serious injury, or is suddenly stricken down in a manner indicating the immediate and emergent need of aid to save him from death or serious harm, the master, if present is duty bound to take such measures as may be practicable to relieve him, even though such master be not chargeable with fault in bringing about the emergency."¹¹

These cases lead to a discussion of special relationships and what that means in today's society. This discussion is a joint discussion of the ethics faculty member, the law faculty member and the students. This discussion brings students to find special relationships from their own lives which represent both ethical concepts of care as well as legal duties that could result. This has turned into a creative thinking exercise in each of the classes that have been taught. In every class, several students will have worked as a lifeguard, camp counselor or other related special relationship situations. This process establishes an anchor point for the instructors to refer back while progressing to other law and ethics topics.

The pedagogy of the delivery of the course then returns to the slow evolution of the legal responsibility as society has progressed farther away from the rugged individualism concept. The Soldano case is revisited since the court found an exception to this basic concept in ruling that one can be culpable when impeding the efforts of a good samaritan. We next take up the Tarasoff case¹² where, in the words of the court, "a therapist does in fact determine, or under applicable professional standards reasonably should have determined, that a patient poses a serious danger of violence to others, he bears a duty to exercise reasonable care to protect the foreseeable victim of that danger." In addition to Soldano, the Clinton Valley case is also revisited since the mental hospital turned away a former patient who was threatening to kill someone. That court was bound by stare decisis to honor sovereign immunity even though the judge disagreed with the decision the court had to reach.

As the author of the textbook points out, "the bystander rule, that hardy oak, is alive and well. Various initials have been carved into its bark – the exceptions we have seen and a variety of others – but the trunk is strong and the leaves green." ¹³ Contemporaneous examples throughout the course are used to keep this discussion going from time to time during the semester as various incidents occur. If one of the instructors fails to find rich examples to continue this process, the other does. Current events always seem to "fall in our lap". An example of how this process works is illustrated next.

Unfortunately, an Indianapolis police officer was gunned down and killed in the summer of 2004 as was a Butler University police officer in September of 2004. As the facts continued to unfold, it was found that both policemen were killed by former mental patients and in turn the mental patients were killed in ensuing gun battles. However, family members in both cases had tried to get each of these patients institutionalized for further treatment but were turned down primarily because the system did not have the capacity to deal with them.

Radio, television, and newspaper media continued their investigation and reporting on how many such cases come to the emergency rooms of hospitals each day and continue to be denied even an examination let alone admission to the hospital. This allows for further discussion of how the legal system has to deal with such cases from a utilitarian point of view. In dealing with ethics, students are continually reminded of the concepts of rights, justice, utility and care. Examples such as this are used to illustrate

^{7 138} Mich. App. 312, 360 N.W. 2nd 606 (1984)

^{8 417} PA, 486, 208 A. 2nd 193 (1965)

⁹ Beatty and Samuelson, <u>Legal Environment</u>; Pg 80; Second Edition; Thomson, Southwestern, West; 2005

^{10 66} Kan. 649, 72 P. 281 (1903)

¹¹ Carey v. Davis, 19- Iowa 720, 180 N.E. 889 (1921)

¹² Tarasoff v. Regents of the University of California, 17 Cal. 3^{ed} 425, 551 P. 2^{ed}, 334, 131 Cal. Rptr. 14, S. Ct. Cal. (1976)

¹³ Beatty and Samuelson, <u>Legal Environment</u>; Pg 81; Second Edition; Thomson, Southwestern, West; 2005

how the doctrine of utility often "trumps" the rights of others but that the process is reversed when the situation gets severe enough that justice is not served. These strong tie-ins are just a few examples of how we are able to effectively integrate law and ethics and keep the continued interest of the students in the process.

This approach is carried throughout the course and the bystander example was used to simply illustrate the methodology. This approach is used in delivering each of the following sections of the law portions of this course:

- Alternate dispute resolution
- ► The court system
- The litigation process
- Administrative law
- Constitutional law
- Tort law
- Criminal law
- International law
- Agency, employment and labor law
- Environmental law

The current news, as well as events in students' lives, serves as rich illustrations throughout this integrated course. The comment about this course by the students continues to be referred to as "my favorite course."

One student made a presentation before the Tri-State Academy of Legal Studies in Business, November 5, 2004.¹⁴ Excerpts from that presentation that are particularly relevant are:

"Ethics and the Legal Environment embodied the very core of what it means to go to a liberal arts college, as well as force students to step up to the challenge of integrating topics and developing a further understanding of the issues in the 'real word from various viewpoints'..."

"The class discussions did not shy away from sensitive issues such as affirmative action to environmental issues such as Super Fund (CERCLA). The class discussed issues from both a standpoint regarding laws to an ethical standpoint with regard to rights, justice, utility and care."

The class' progress in discussion topics and level of thinking was congruent to "Kohlberg's theory of moral development. Taking just a law class, most discussions would not exceed the moral development level concerning law and order in the conventional level. However, by integrating ethics into the discussion regarding law, by the end of the semester our class of cohesive students had graduated to discussions that performed at the post conventional, social contract level. Students discussed issues in ethics and law from a standpoint of effects on rights and values, to the effects on society and culture. Due to the integration of subject matter, the intensity of class discussions, and the development of the class as an entity to a higher stage of moral development, the subjects taught in Legal Environment and Ethics are a tool in which I continue to apply to current studies. I often am sitting in class when I realize just how much subjects carry over into other course work and the value of an integrated class becomes even more apparent..."

"I am currently taking a business law course and I continually find myself missing the course structure of the Legal Environment and Ethics. I find it more difficult to learn and retain information without the multiple faceted discussions that became second nature in Legal Environment and Ethics. My current law class seems cut and dry, and the need for further evaluation and study does not exist because it is mostly memorizing fact. I wish I had the opportunity to take more integrated classes. I realize now that even though it was not an easy experience, the benefit of the knowledge and thinking skills I acquired in Legal Environment and Ethics is indispensable. The overall benefit of integrating subject matter allows students to develop analytical and beneficial thinking skills. The need for more integrated classes is irrefutable as the classes truly epitomize the core reasons and benefits for acquiring a liberal arts education."

In the spring semester 2005, two very strong junior year students raised a complaint regarding not being advised to take the pilot course instead of the two stand alone courses. Their complaint was that each felt they were not as well prepared as classmates who had the integrated course. One of these students was tapped into Beta Gamma Sigma and the other is strong enough that he may be eligible in his senior year. Both students took this as a challenge and worked very hard in the junior business law class involved, but both claimed nevertheless, that the faculty advisor who recommended not taking the pilot course had "wronged" them.

In a recent article by Diane L. Swanson,¹⁵ she pointed out that "the nation's business schools' deans have done little to ensure that the next generation of corporate managers will be more mindful of their legal and ethical responsibilities to society. In response to this dangerous myopia, hundreds of professors launched a collective effort to try to persuade the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the agency that sanctions business degree programs, to require at least one ethics course as a condition of accreditation."

Swanson goes on to document the campaign efforts of over 200 professors to get the AACSB to require an ethics course as a part of the accreditation standards. Swanson states "In the final analysis, AACSB officials shut campaign voices out of their annual conference and voted for accrediting standards that do not include the requirement of a stand alone ethics course. As a result, member deans could return to their home turfs and carry on with business as usual."¹⁶

In conclusion, the faculty of the College of Business Administration not only recognizes the value of an ethics course, but has found a methodology to deliver the subject in an extremely effective way. It is hoped that this will serve as a challenge to the academy as a whole to not only deliver an ethics course but to also teach business law that is delivered in a meaningful way to future business leaders using a methodology which will lead to their retention and application.

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¹⁴ Meg McKenzie, presentation before the Tri-State Academy of Legal Studies in Business, November 5, 2004

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ABSTRACT

As the matrix organizational structure continues to be used in a variety of workplace environments, students can benefit from the experience of using the matrix in classroom assignments and projects. This structure encourages teamwork and familiarizes students with group dynamics through the utilization of participant skill strengths, leadership, and peer evaluation. The assignment of an office layout project in an information systems course recently provided the opportunity to employ matrix structure for work teams. Student perceptions of the matrix organization for work teams in respect to productivity and participation were positive, but suggestions for improvement were also provided.

INTRODUCTION

The matrix organizational method in business has been widely applied since a strong interest developed in the 1970s and 1980s (Sy & D'Annunzio, 2005). Indeed, literature documents the development and beginning uses of the matrix structure (Kolodny, 1979) to the much greater integration in firms worldwide (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1993). "By its simplest definition, the matrix is a gridlike organizational structure that allows a company to address multiple business dimensions using multiple command structures" (Sy & D'Annunzio, 2005). This organizational type encourages the use of self-directed work teams, which utilize team member strengths, to independently undertake projects and tasks. Matrix work teams often have one or more leaders that emerge in the team, while a higher-ranking overall supervisor provides necessary supplementary guidance. This method attempts to promote performance through complementary worker strengths and through worker participation.

While being enacted in various corporate work situations, the matrix method of team organization may be introduced to students when classroom simulations are designed to resemble "real-world" workplace projects. In a matrix setup for a project, students are responsible for a variety of human resource tasks as well as undergoing group dynamics in the effort to achieve a successful project outcome. One such project in an information systems course detailed the outcome of the matrix system through the engagement of students to design a productive office environment.

This particular assignment in an information systems class was the design of an office layout. Particular emphasis in the assignment is given to work flow, communications, and technology issues. In order to provide as much reality as possible, an actual office location on campus was chosen for the students to redesign. "Exposing students to workplace conditions and expectations shapes their knowledge of and attitudes toward their future careers ... (Quam, Smet, & Ivey, 1998). Students work on this project in groups of four or five.

One of two methods is traditionally used to form teams for classroom projects: the instructor assigns members or the students form their own groups. After several class sessions devoted to organizational structure and leadership, the instructor decided to conduct an experiment using the matrix structure to designate the work teams for this project. The primary objective was to give the students experience in identifying requisite project skills, assigning members to the team, and evaluating student performance.

PROCEDURES

The instructor reviewed the components of the matrix organizational design, emphasizing that the process would be conducted in as realistic manner as possible. The team members reported to the instructor (their normal supervisor) and their team leaders (their matrix supervisor). The first step in the assignment was the formation of the work teams.

Team Leader Selection

The students participated in a brain storming exercise to select the attributes necessary for the team leaders in this project. As the students made suggestions, those qualities were entered into an electronic document and shown on the classroom screen. This file was made available on the campus network, and the instructor advised the students to examine it and be prepared to formulate a final version at the next class meeting. The final version (see Appendix A) included expertise in such areas as time management, delegation, organization, and time management.

All of the class members rated themselves on each item of the checklist. These completed forms were posted on the server, and the students emailed the instructor with their votes for their top five. This is, of course, a departure from the method used in business to choose team leaders; however, it seemed to be the best method to ensure impartiality and promote loyalty to the leader.

Team Member Selection

After instruction on the fundamental concepts of office layout, the students formulated a set of questions they wished to ask the occupants of the designated offices. As stated earlier, much attention was given to assuring efficient workflow and communications. Since all the students were information systems majors, the use of technology in the office was also crucial. Again, a class session was used to identify the skills needed for each group to accomplish the task. The areas chosen for the final checklist included such skills as creativity, expertise in Visio (the software used to illustrate the layout), and responsibility. A document was developed (see Appendix B), and those not chosen as team leaders self-reported their level of expertise in the selected areas. From these forms, the team leaders met and divided the students into the five teams, attempting to ensure that each team was comprised of members with various skills and characteristics.

Process

The team leaders were given a great deal of autonomy during the project. They were to function as the true managers during this process. For example, they could "fire" any team member for just cause; and, if this occurred, that member was required to complete the project alone. The leaders were responsible for coordinating the entire process, including delegating tasks to the members and therefore utilizing the strengths for which they had been chosen. The team members were aware that they would be evaluating their respective leaders at the end of the project. The leaders would, in turn, evaluate each team member.

In another attempt to add realism, the students were still responsible to the instructor for other class assignments simultaneously with the office layout project. As has recently been affirmed regarding work teams on the job, various types of functional conflict can emerge while simultaneously answering to more than one supervisor in the workplace hierarchy (Xin & Pelled, 2003). Through this classroom experience, students experienced the simulated workplace setting of reporting and evaluation via organizational hierarchy and multitasking. In addition, the self-delegated office layout project teams had the opportunity to experience possible improvement of worker participation and productivity cited by sources from corporate experiences (Seung-Bum & Guy, 2004; Glassop, 2002).

FINDINGS

The students completed three quantitative evaluations at the end of the project. The team leaders rated their members on performance in their respective identified skill areas. Likewise, the members evaluated the leaders on their leadership performance. The team leaders also self-reported perceptions of their leadership success on the project.

In addition to the three previously described quantitative evaluations, one qualitative measure was employed. All students wrote comments on their opinions of using the matrix method in this project; these comments are subsequently transcribed in Appendix C.

Quantitative Measures

The three quantitative measures all used a 0 to 10 scale with 10 being the most positive.

Performance of Team Members

The team leaders were asked the question, "To what extent did the team members exhibit the attributes for which they were chosen?" Each team member received a separate rating, and the leaders were asked to defend the score given. These evaluations produced an average score of 8.97.

Performance of Team Leaders

Team members used the same form constructed for the original selection of the leaders to indicate the success of those leaders. An average score of 9.54 resulted. The leaders gave themselves a somewhat lower score of 8.25 when evaluating their own performance.

Qualitative Results

Overall, the students indicated positive experiences while using the matrix organization in this project. Affirmative remarks were given by 86.7 percent of the respondents. Of that number, 40 percent, while mostly complimentary, did give suggestions for improving the process. Only 13.3 percent had nothing positive to say about the procedures.

The positive comments centered mainly around the following: the balance and variety of skills in each team, the advantages over other methods, the ability of members to focus on their areas of strengths, the opportunity to work with people they didn't previously know well, and the impartiality in the selection of team members.

Those with only negative impressions cited the time required to complete the preliminary screening for leaders and members, the tendency for leaders to use favoritism in selecting members, and the likelihood of low self-assessment by students who didn't want to devote the time necessary to be a team leader.

Suggestions for improvements included forming the teams earlier in the semester, solving the difficulty in accurately assessing abilities, and providing coverage in all skill areas by including a sufficient number of team members. One student accurately pointed out that in the business world team leaders would have been appointed rather than elected. Selected student comments can be found in Appendix C.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Using the matrix organizational structure can be successful in the classroom. The overall ratings from team leaders and members support the concept for student work teams.

If this method is chosen, the following recommendations are offered:

- Care should be taken in the selection of the type of project. For example, specific required skills should be readily identifiable. The students commented that they would have included other areas of expertise if they had been more experienced in office layout.
- 2. The project should cover an appropriate period. The approximate three weeks devoted to this study did not provide sufficient opportunities for demonstrating and/or evaluating proficiency in the self-reported areas of strongest skill.
- Perhaps teams should be composed of more than the four members in this type of study. The absence of expertise of all requisite skill areas in every group proved to be a problem.
- 4. As would be the case in business, the instructor might consider appointing the team leaders rather than having them elected by the members of the class. Though the process used seemed to result in the selection of students with strong leadership

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qualities, the margin of error could be greatly increased if the students were less than candid about their abilities. For example, students could intentionally rank themselves low to avoid the responsibility of being a leader.

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APPENDIX A

In the form below, on a scale of 0 – 10, rank your expertise in the indicated leadership attributes, with 0 being none and 10 being terrific.
Name:

Information Systems 462 Team Leader Selection				
Attribute	Score	Comments		
Creativity				
Delegation Skills				
Ability to be Open Minded				
Availability				
Organization				
Communication Skills				
Social Skills				
Respect from Team Members				
Responsibility				
Time Management Skills				

APPENDIX B

In the form below, on a scale of 0 – 10, rank your expertise in the indicated leadership attributes, with 0 being none and 10 being terrific.
Name:

Information Systems 461 Team Member Selection Questionnaire				
Attribute	Score	Comments		
Knowledge of Workflow Concepts				
Space Perception				
Wiring Problems/Networking				
Decorating Skills				
Presentation Skills				
Creating Presentation				
Making the Presentation				
Visio Skills				
Creativity				
Excel				
Willingness to Take Responsibility/Delegation				
Team Communication				

APPENDIX C

COMMENTS FROM PARTICIPANTS

Team Leaders

I enjoyed working with the matrix method. I feel that the selection questionnaires helped in selecting well-rounded teams. I saw the quantities that were described throughout the project. I feel that the matrix method would be a good method to use in future projects as long as students provide information that is accurate and come through during the project with proper utilization of the skills they promoted in the questionnaire.

I think the matrix method works very well. However, for a project this size, I think the teams were too big. There were times when I struggled to find something for everyone to do.

I thought that using the matrix method was pretty effective. It allowed all team leaders to have a balanced group as far as skills were concerned. The only suggestion I have for improvement is that the teams could have been chosen sooner.

The matrix system worked fine for this project. I don't think that it worked exactly the way wee wanted it to, though. I believe that it was hard to find somebody for every need that we thought we would need. And on some attributes not one person scored themselves high on them. So it was slightly hard to pick.

I would rather have the teams chosen for me. It's like being picked for a sports team as a kid - you don't want to be the last one. You can make do with what you are given, but assessing abilities is tough with limited information. If people don't want to be picked as team leaders, they will assess themselves poorly.

Team Members

The matrix form was an excellent choice. I think all the groups got an even chance to do well considering the division of different skills in different areas.

This method of selecting allows you to see how really well you can work with others. If we had the choice to select team members, we probably would choose people we know or either the people we know that will do most of the work.

In my opinion, the matrix method did not work that well. It was too hard and too time consuming to get everyone to evaluate themselves, and if they were not interested in being a team leader they evaluated themselves poorly.

I believe that this system worked very well for my group. The leader delegated according to everyone's skills.

It enabled each group to have a qualified and willing team leader. Also there was, at least in our group, a good mix of team members. The matrix method is very useful when forming teams because of the diversity it provides. By using team members that are skilled in different areas, a group has a variety of individuals who can work efficiently on a project and provide unique ideas.

I have been on several teams in different classes, and I think that this works the best. I feel like I was finally on a team that could work well together.

I feel that the way the teams were picked was not fair because only the team members picked who was in their group. The class as a whole should have more input on the way the teams were selected. The way the leaders were picked was an excellent idea because the class voted on who they thought would be good leaders.

Honestly, I don't like the way the groups were chosen. I think that the professor should have picked the different groups so that favoritism would not have been shown towards people in the class that team leader liked. I do agree with the way the team leaders were chosen.
The Psychological Foundation for an Integrated Course in Law and Ethics

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ABSTRACT

Centuries ago, Thomas Aquinas noted that "human reason must proceed from the precepts of the natural law as from certain common and indispensable principles to other more particular dispositions" (ST I-II, 91, 3) He said that "because of the uncertainty of human judgment, especially in contingent and particular matters, it happens that different decisions are made about different human acts so that laws are often divergent and even contradictory." (91, 4)

To the casual reader, Thomas might be endorsing a position akin to ethical relativism but Thomas finds little to endorse about that position: "the truth is the same for everyone but it is not equally known by everyone." (94, 4) Further, he noted somewhat optimistically that "reason may cause laws to be changed because it seems to be the nature of human reason to progress by stages from the less perfect to the more perfect." (97, 1) In his remarks, Thomas anticipates the psychological research of Lawrence Kohlberg into moral development, the research of William Perry into intellectual development, and the students in the integrated ethics-law class at Butler University (and, I dare say, students in college ethics/law classes across America). A brief foray into the research and the course will demonstrate as much.

THE STRUCTURE OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Research by Lawrence Kohlberg shows that people 'progress by stages from the less perfect to the more perfect' level of moral development. However, he also found that people do not necessarily move to the 'more perfect' stages of moral development. He noted that people stop developing. That is, when the skills of a particular stage of moral development are challenged and shown to be wanting, people, including students, often disengage from the hard work of growth. These people avoid the work of maintaining integrity, or an intact sense of identity, while accommodating the challenges to their identity.

While there is a temptation to flee from challenges to the sense of self, not everybody does. Flight is frequently impossible for the captive audience known as students, whose professors often challenge them—and with good reason. Research by Kohlberg shows that moral dilemma, real or imagined, can induce moral growth. (27-8, 146-7) Cognitive dissonance, called cognitive conflict by Kohlberg, can produce upward development. He says, "Presumably, then, movement to the next stage involves internal cognitive reorganization rather than the mere addition of more difficult content from outside" the student. (146). In other words, the move from one stage of development to another is not a function of gathering more information—even if students constantly refer to learning as a matter of 'knowing more facts.' If Kohlberg is correct, the step up to a higher stage of thought is a matter of re-orienting the structure of thought.

Kohlberg's work charts those structures, noting the safe harbors that shelter people from moral development. Of particular interest to those teaching ethics, including business ethics, are the safe harbors of stages 3 and 4, but especially the "society maintaining orientation" of stage 4. Even if it is true that the person in stages 3 and 4 has more capacity to resolve moral issues than the person in the self-interested stages of youth, namely, stages 1 and 2, it is also true that the capabilities of the stage 3 or 4 thinker can improve.

In stage 3, the "interpersonal concordance orientation," "Good behavior is that which pleases or helps others and is approved by them." (Kohlberg, 18) In this stage, people follow peer pressure and adapt their behavior to their social group's norms. Appeals to social conformity mark this stage and the behavior pattern of these people is obvious to any parent of a middle school or high school student.

In stage 4, the "society maintaining orientation," the person is less self-interested and more abstract. In this stage, "there is an orientation toward authority, fixed rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority, and maintaining the given social order for its own sake." (18) The authority of laws and of social order, including the authority of the nation, is firmly rooted in the stage 4 thinker. However, the cultural relativity of stage 4—right and wrong is relative to the external environment—is less adequate for solving moral dilemmas than the structure of thought found in stages 5 and 6.

Concern for process marks these latter stages. "There is a clear effort to define moral values and principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups or people holding these principles and apart from the individual's own identification with these groups." (18) There is "an emphasis on the 'legal point of view,' but with an emphasis on the possibility of changing law in terms of rational considerations of social utility (rather than freezing it in terms of Stage 4 'law and order')."(18-19) The person in these stages engages the work of ethics, for as Kohlberg notes, "a clear effort" is made to find moral principles. That work has a chance to produce autonomous, principled conduct, based as it is in critical, cognitive analysis.

THE STRUCTURE OF INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Perry's research, which involved students from Harvard and Radcliff, is analogous to the research of Kohlberg. For instance, Perry observed that when students face cognitive dissonance— Kohlberg's cognitive conflict—they often avoid adjusting their orientation to the world and altering their identity. Such a student demonstrates "the wish to retain earlier satisfactions or securities...the reluctance to admit one has been in error...and most importantly, the wish to maintain a self one has felt oneself to be." (Perry, 52) In a professor's jargon, students do not get out of their comfort zone. Perry suggests that they resist learning.

Perry even observes common techniques of resistance, or negative defense mechanisms: escape (177), wherein a person detaches himself or herself from the conflict, at least in part; temporizing (178), wherein a person does not engage the problem and hopes it goes away; and retreat (182), when a person regresses to a lower stage of thought instead growing toward the unknown. Perry notes that retreat is often accompanied by anger and hatred of other positions and of the people who manifest them (177) Other researchers (Hart and Chmiel; Haan) offer similar observations.

Advance, observes Perry, "involves risk, subjective and objective"(178) and forces a "reiterated choice between courage and despair." (32) Perry remarks that movements from one position to another "express the work of considerable psychic energy." (49) Perry, similar to Kohlberg, suggests that the higher stages of thought demand more work of the person.

Perry found that when students arrive at college, they are typically in what he refers to as the stage of dualism. In this stage, the student looks to the professor as the authority and 'holder of Truth.' In this stage, learning is essentially passive and the structure of thought holds that there is one right answer to any question. As such, students often refer to knowledge in terms of true and false. However, whereas students typically arrive in college with a dualistic structure of thought, expecting professors to supply answers, students reach toward multiplicity.

In the stage of multiplicity, students are highly subjective and irresponsible. In this stage, students often assert that there is no right answer and believe that "no judgments among opinions can be made." (Perry, Glossary) Perry says that students threatened by advance sometimes retreat to "the irresponsible in Multiplicity ('Anyone has a right to his opinion')," as though opinions cannot be judged. And yet, students see that their professors are judging their views and opinions all the time.

The language of students in this stage is frequently angry. (99) Students say things like, "What's true for one person might not be true for another," "Who's to say?" or "what is reasonable is always debatable, and who is to determine what is reasonable and what is a poor reason." These expressions, manifestations of multiplicity, keep the student in the isolated, risk-free world of ethical subjectivism, the position that ethics are relative to the individual. If a student were to move Perry's stage of relativity, which corresponds to Kohlberg's stages 3 and 4, then the student would think ethics are relative or dependent on the culture or society; they embrace cultural relativism. In this stage, a student might say, "I think ethics is in fact group morality." And what better manifestation of 'group morality' might there be than a legal system?

Students in Ethics Courses

For the last several years, on the first day of class, I have asked students to respond to the following questions:

Can ethics be taught? If so, how? If not, why not? What is the relation of ethics to business?

Student responses (see appendix) show why the research of Perry and of Kohlberg undergirds the integrated course in law and ethics. Students remark that "ethics are beliefs that are a individual as DNA," "[ethics] varies from person to person, nation to nation," "there is no set definition for correct behavior," "each individual has a unique lifestyle," and "we all have our own unique morals and outlooks on ethical behavior and what is right and wrong." In other words, student remarks show a structure of thought that is similar to ethical subjectivism, the view that the rightness and wrongness of ethical judgment depends on the individual. This structure of thought is characteristic of the lower stages in both Kohlberg's and Perry's work.

But students also say that "ethics helps the societal members to understand what behavior is appropriate and which actions are unacceptable," ethics are "duties that are imposed on them [people] as a member of society," and that ethics is not "always the morality of one person, but those of society and various groups." These responses exhibit the position known as cultural relativism, wherein the rightness or wrongness of an ethical judgment depends on the culture, group, or society. This structure of thought is consistent with Kohlberg's and Perry's middle stages.

In other words, students exhibit the sorts of patterns that corroborate the psychological research of William Perry and Lawrence Kohlberg. If that is so, then advance to higher stage reasoning has yet to occur for students. The course takes advantage of the possible advance by placing the legal aspects of business, relevant to the stage 4 thinker, adjacent the ethical considerations for judgment, relevant to the stage 5 thinker.

As such, the course attempts to get past the problems outlined by Thomas centuries ago, namely, the reconciliation between contingent legal codes and universal moral truth. The course attempts to place "an emphasis on the possibility of changing law in terms of rational considerations of social utility (rather than freezing it in terms of Stage 4 'law and order')."

Integrating law and ethics puts two structures for resolving ethical dilemma side-by-side and invites students to master the higher thinking skills. Whether the course is successful or not is for our students to say.

APPENDIX STUDENT RESPONSES FROM THE INTEGRATED LAW AND ETHICS CLASS

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- "....then the structure of my ethics will change as the definition of my moral standards expands."
- "all that is considered to be ethical varies from person to person, nation to nation, business to business."
- 3. 'feel' x 4 in paragraph 1 "once taught ethical values, it is up to the individual to decide their own actions."
- 4. "An individual's morals may be viewed either as the standard of conduct that they have set for themselves or as obligations and duties that are imposed on them as a member of society."
- 5. "people are not taught ethics, but rather, people are taught how to do ethics" "it is considered wrong and immoral to take another human being's life."

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- 6. "the reason ethics cannot be properly taught is because everyone perceives the world a little differently." "it can be seen that what is viewed as ethical..." "there is no set definition as to correct behavior."
- 7. "the study of morality...Not always the morality of one person, but those of society and various groups"
- sees ethics but abstractly ethics= moral content (not structure of thought)
- 9. ethics "cannot be taught" moral guidelines "that were imposed on them."
- 10. ethics is "knowledge that can be acquired"
- 11. "Many teachers/professors like to impose new ideas on different topics"
- 12. although "moral knowledge cannot be taught, it can be instilled"
- 13. "ethics are an innate characteristic of a person"
- 14. "depending on what one thinks is moral will establish their ethical beliefs" a professor "is powerless to sway their beliefs"
- 15. "right tools" "to develop and figure out what we hold to be ethical" "we all have our own unique morals and outlooks on ethical behavior and what is right and wrong"
- 16. "every person's ethical make-up is determined by what they are taught when they were young"
- 17. "if basic ethical principles are not taught early in life, it will be exceedingly difficult to train them later" as we age, we do "even more complex ethical learning"
- 18. "ducks the question; cites childhood "The years that are most important for placing ethics upon a person"
- 19. "normal everyday behaviors that are learned and mimicked..."
- 20. My parents "made me understand what was right not only to them but also what was right in our society"
- 21. "ethics helps the societal members to understand what behavior is appropriate and which actions are unacceptable" "these institutions are forced to follow the ethical guidelines, as defined in society"
- 22. "a moral is a belief or principle that one believes in strongly enough that they follow it" "a set of beliefs set up by someone for themselves, someone else, or a group of people to follow and live by"
- 23. stresses childhood and outside influences on the person

- 24. "ethics is a cognitive and psychological process..."
- 25. sees the problem but not the process of resolving the problem of how to teach

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- "the principle that all people are different and will react to situations differently based on what they believe" "as you get older nd can make judgment for yourself, you re the one who gives yourself moral standards"
- 2. "...the difference between individuals and groups on moral issues." "...moral standards are something that can be held by a group or individual."
- 3. "Moral standards can come from family, friends, church, and many other outside factors."
- 4. "Moral standards are the way one holds certain views that are important to her. These standards can sometimes be different than other people's...there are a ton of moral standards."
- 5. "...differnt individuals hold different morals." "Moral standards come from individuals. They can vary from person to person based on their personal morals and upbringing."
- 6. "Moral standards are continuously being reexamined..."
- 7. "Moral standards are the bsis of our decision making skills. They are taught and learned by repetitive reactions to situations."
- "The principle that states that the ethics of each person is different because they were raised individually and under unique conditions." "Moral standards are the basic feeling of right and wrong."
- "Moral standards are the basic moral norms for a group or society of people." "As people grow and seek individual knowledge, these standards might change."
- 10. "People create their own individual moral standards..." "ethics created by certain atmospheres and surroundings."
- 11. "Each person views morals/ethics in their own way...The views of 'right' vs. 'wrong' differ according to a person's beliefs." "each person has his or her own moral standards."
- 12. "These standards give a sense of wrong and right. They aren't necessarily the only way to live, and following one set of moral standards isn't necessarily beter than another."
- 13. "Moral standards are the values and beliefs a group, person, etc. develops...the environment also has a strong impact on these so-called standards."
- 14. "An individual's moral standards are his or her set of guidelines for behavior." "As the child grows up, life experiences also play a part in determining the person's morals."

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- 15. "moral standards are passed down from generation to generation and are taught through books, examples, and word of mouth."
- 16. "Each individual has a certain experience that develops their personal thoughts on different situations." "the moral norms are developed from the lifestyle one is faced with and therefore standards created from that society's experiences."
- 17. "Moral standards are personal and societal limitations or codes for behavior and actions, naming what is accepted or unaccepted, or right or wrong. They are shaped with the influence of laws and government, great thinkers and their philosophies, religions and faiths, and families—as well as individuals that arrive at their own code of 'moral standards.'
- 18. moral standards "are embedded inside everyone"
- 19. "Moral standards are developed on an individual basis and no two people necessarily have the exact same standards."
- 20. "Moral standards are the personal codes of conduct that we live by. They can be molded by others such as teachers and parents, yet they truly originate from the experiences that one goes through in life." "a moral standard...you feel..."
- 21. "Each person has their own moral standards."
- 22. "Moral standards are the basis of individual ethics which lead to a consensus for ethics followed by groups." "...the ethics decide if these are 'good' or 'bad'...it relates back to how people feel when making decisions."
- 23. an individual develops "the ability to look at situations and decide based on facts and previous experiences what those standards should be."
- 24. "Unfortunately, there are no absolutes in ethics. Every problem has two sides." "For every individual, the experience of moral standards is different...What one person believes to be moral, another person may see completely differently."
- 25. "Moral standards are general rules that are meant to guide accepted behavior. They come from many, many years of particular society's culture and way of life. Every society has different moral standards."

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- 1. "There is not a black or white zone to morals, therefore, ethics (which is the study of morals) cannot be black or white."
- 2. "a law is based on the moral standards that are shared by the majority of voters." "ethics can be interpreted many different ways by many different people."
- 3. "Each person follows their own gut instincts in order ot make decisions and there is no black and white answer."
- 4. as far as ethics is concerned, "for me, I want it all to be a bout me and no one else." "people have different views and that is why ethics canot be taught."

- "right and wrong are not simply a matter of black and white but of several shades of gray...what is right for some may be wrong for others."
- 6. "each person must look within himself or herself to determine their own ethical values." "there is no black or white regarding the topic of ethics."
- "Humans are unable to agree on ethical decisions." It is "impossible to teach adults ethics.
- 8. "Ethics lie within each individual..." "ethics cannot be taught."
- 9. "There are widely accepted standards of conduct" "ethics cannot always, or possibly ever, be taught." We "build an ethical code that is unique to each individual."
- 10. keys in on education and awareness
- "universally shared morals or basic ethical principles"
 "Through decision making tools and scenarios it is possible to foster an understanding of ethics."
- 12. "Will your ethics be viewed as correct or unethical by others?"
- ethics allows us to "conduct ourselves in a manner that is socially acceptable."
- 14. ethics is "the moral code a person/group is recommended to abide by in order to conduct themselves amongst the group's standards" "ethics vary from individual to individual."
- 15. "ethics is a knowing what one ought to do" moral standards are "what is accepted as right or wrong or good and bad."
- 16. personal responsibility for ethics cited
- 17. "learning ethics is a life-long process."
- 18. "we can see that what one individual sees as ethical may be completely different for someone else; these standards vary from society to society." "Ethics can't be taught."
- 19. "what is right to one person could be totally wrong to another."
- 20. "The ability to teach ethics is non-existent because individuals develop different opinions."
- 21. "what is ethical varies with time and culture."
- 22. 'Ethical' means "most people in the society believe that it is a good or correct idea or behavior."
- 23. "Ethics cannot be taught. It is an instinct we have." "we must... expand our belief system until it is as individual as we are."
- 24. "Ethics, or one's personal set of beliefs/values, are very unique to every individual."

25. "ethics aid in governing a body of people."

RESOURCES

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- Daniel Hart and Susan Chmiel, "Influence of Defense Mechanisms on Moral
- Judgment Development: A Longitudinal Study," <u>Developmental</u> <u>Psychology</u> 28, 4 (1992): 722-29
- Lawrence Kohlberg, <u>The Philosophy of Moral Development</u> (San Francisco: Harper and Row, 1981)
- Richard J. McGowan, "The Prescient Pedagogy of Plato," <u>Proceedings</u> of <u>The Institute</u> for <u>Liberal Studies</u>--<u>Science and</u> <u>Culture</u> (KSU, 1998).
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