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Contents

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The Value of Significant Learning Strategies in Undergraduate Education

Charles M. Coco
Assistant Professor
Brimmer College of Business and Information Science
Tuskegee University
Tuskegee, Alabama

ABSTRACT

Learning taxonomies can assist faculty in developing course structures that promote enhanced student learning in the cognitive and affective domains. Significant Learning is one approach to course design that allows for development in six key areas: Foundational Knowledge, Application, Integration, Human Dimension, Caring, and Learning How to Learn. These six dimensions can be explored in a non-hierarchical manner, which enables faculty to choose a particular area of concentration without a strict progression of learning. This paper will highlight the value of developing Significant Learning strategies in undergraduate education.

INTRODUCTION

How can faculty improve student motivation and learning? One solution to this question may be found in the new taxonomy of *Significant Learning* (Fink, 2003). College instructors often become frustrated with the lack of student engagement within the classroom. According to Fink (2003), "When I talk to faculty, many say their biggest concern is low student attendance in class. Many see daily class attendance running around 50 percent by mid-semester in their lower division courses. But they report other problems as well" (p. 4). The other problems that faculty routinely experience include having students who lack motivation and energy to complete assignments, while being increasingly grade sensitive rather than learning the course material.

Effective educational strategies for course design should include opportunities for improving both cognitive and emotional aspects of learning (Fink, 2007). Instructors are facing mounting changes within higher education that are impacting delivery methods for course material. For instance, today's students are increasingly culturally diverse, technologically savvy, and multi-task oriented. Fink (2003) stated:

> In the United States, increasing numbers of older students, minority students, and first-generation students continue to seek higher education. In addition, traditional kinds of students are coming into higher education with greater familiarity with computers and often with part-time jobs. Some of these students will be looking for traditional kinds of educational experiences; others will stay at home and seek their education in a new form of delivery from a provider who can be located anywhere in the world....a much higher level of competition than in the past will characterize higher education in the future and the whole enterprise will become much more learning-centered. (p. 13)

Another important concern for instructors is the need to improve long-term learning in their students. According to Fink (2003), "If we include lots of content but students end up neither caring about the subject nor learning how to keep on learning, what are the chances that students will either retain what they have learned or make the effort to keep on learning" (p. 57)? Consequently, Fink advocated the need for significant learning by stating:

> If students learn how to apply the content, can see how it connects with other knowledge, understand the human implications of what they have learned, and come to care about the subject and about learning how to keep on learning, it seems much likelier that they will both retain what they have learned and continue to enlarge their knowledge after the course is over. Hence, if we take a long-term view of student learning, attending to significant kinds of learning seems like the right choice to make. (p. 57)

In an effort to increase knowledge in ways to improve student learning outcomes, this study presented research into the construct of significant learning. The six dimensions of Fink's integrated course design were examined and incorporated into four undergraduate business courses. An attempt was made to expand the traditional learning process by integrating more emotional and interpersonal components into the goals and methods. The courses were analyzed by administering student surveys at the end of the semester.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

The traditional approach to student learning provided a hierarchical view of attaining foundational knowledge and course content (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). Approaches to the learning process have expanded to include emotional and non-hierarchical components that considered the importance of lifelong learning (Robinson, 2009). According to Fink (2003), significant learning occurs only when students are enthusiastic and the class displays high energy levels. The result is a significant and lasting change in student learning.

Emotional Intelligence and the Human Dimension

Fink (2003) noted the importance of *emotional intelligence* in developing personal and social competence, while comparing similarities to the human dimension of significant learning. One of the earliest contributors to the study of emotional intelligence was E. L. Thorndike (1920) who developed an innovative way to describe intelligence. He viewed a major component of human intelligence as *social intelligence* which means the ability to function in interpersonal situations. The study of intelligence in the emotional realm continued to develop over time (Bar-On, 2004; Stein & Book, 2000).

Fink's Taxonomy

Fink's (2003) taxonomy of significant learning includes the following six categories which are used for integrated course design:

1. *Foundational knowledge contains the principles, concepts, and basic course information.* This knowledge provides the base for understanding other forms of learning.
2. *Application* involves applying knowledge by developing skills and engaging in critical, creative, and practical thought processes.
3. *Integration* consists of understanding the connections between ideas, people, and different aspects of interdisciplinary learning and life.
4. *Human dimension* contains learning that occurs when students gain new insights about themselves and others.
5. *Caring* involves the change and development of new feelings, interests, or values toward something that students now regard as more important.
6. *Learning how to learn* transpires when students embrace the process of learning and become increasingly effective in future learning efforts.

Prior Research

Fink's taxonomy of significant learning has shown positive results in the classroom (Fallahi, 2008; Fink, 2007; Levine et al., 2008; Miners &

Table 1
BUSINESS MANAGEMENT COURSES
SIGNIFICANT LEARNING GOALS AND ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

	COURSE OBJECTIVES	ASSESSMENT
	Foundational Knowledge	
1.	Understand key terms, concepts, and course content.	Quizzes and Course Topic Presentations
2.	Understand the significant role of developing people skills within the organization.	Minute Paper and Discussion
	Application and Integration	
3.	Use insight gained into better people practices for developing social and emotional awareness.	Class Assignments and Discussion
4.	Compare and contrast differences between competing theoretical frameworks.	Small Group Discussions and Debates
5.	Demonstrate competence in written and oral communications related to better understanding oneself and others within an organizational context.	Writing Assignments, Discussion, and Group Presentations
	Human Dimension	
6.	Develop deeper learning outcomes of human significance and relationship building.	Human and Social Capital Exercises
	Caring Dimension	
7.	Demonstrate empathy and respect toward one another.	Reflection Exercises and Discussion
	Learning How to Learn	
8.	Learn how to think analytically and intuitively, while becoming self-motivated toward future development.	Case Studies and Research Assignments

Table 2
SURVEY ITEMS AND COURSE MEANS
STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF SIGNIFICANT LEARNING

SURVEY ITEMS: COURSE MEANS	HRM	MGT	OB-1	OB-2
Foundational Knowledge (New)	4.45	4.84	4.58	4.86
Foundational Knowledge (Basic Concepts)	4.55	4.52	4.50	4.79
Application (Opportunities)	4.91	4.52	4.64	4.79
Application (Critical Thinking)	4.64	4.56	4.61	4.75
Integration (Other Courses)	4.55	4.44	4.39	4.71
Human Dimension (Self)	4.36	4.36	4.53	4.71
Human Dimension (Others)	4.27	4.20	4.47	4.61
Caring (Passion for Learning)	4.27	4.08	4.11	4.50
Caring (Personal Sensitivity)	4.18	4.00	4.39	4.54
Learning How to Learn (Lifelong Learning)	4.81	4.72	4.47	4.79

Grand Mean = 4.50 (N = 11); Cronbach's Alpha = .750 (HRM)
Grand Mean = 4.42 (N = 25); Cronbach's Alpha = .759 (MGT)
Grand Mean = 4.47 (N = 36); Cronbach's Alpha = .850 (OB-1)
Grand Mean = 4.70 (N = 28); Cronbach's Alpha = .709 (OB-2)

Nantz, 2009). For instance, one course redesign effort using means and *t* test comparisons validated Fink's taxonomy of significant learning as superior to the traditional lecture method in four of the six assessment areas (i.e., Foundational Knowledge, Application, Integration, and Human Dimension). Another example of course redesign using significant learning approaches led to establishing new learning goals, while dramatically improving student motivation and morale.

DISCUSSION

Significant learning goals were incorporated into four business management courses during the spring semester of 2011 (see Table 1). These courses included mainly junior or senior-level students majoring in business disciplines (e.g., accounting, finance, business administration, etc.). Two of the courses (Course 1 and Course 3) were taught in the morning, while the other two courses (Course 2 and Course 4) were taught in the afternoon (see Table 2). In addition, Course 3 and Course 4 covered the same topic, but were taught in different sections.

A survey was created to assess student perceptions related to significant learning. The survey included a five-point scale as follows: 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 2 = Disagree and 1 = Strongly Disagree. The survey included ten questions that were developed to measure student perceptions of learning within the following areas: learning new knowledge; learning the knowledge of basic concepts; learning through application exercises; learning through critical thinking assignments; learning through interdisciplinary content; learning more about oneself; learning more about others; learning to care about course content; learning to be sensitive to personal feelings and values; and learning how to learn. The results of the administered surveys were categorized by course means for each of the ten questions (see Table 2).

It was interesting to observe the differences in student perceptions based on course topic, course time, and course size. For example, the contrast between student perception means for the earliest class period (Course 1) and the latest class period (Course 4) was noteworthy. That is, 8 out of 10 significant learning dimensions were perceived to be greater in the last course taught as compared to the first.

Another interesting observation came from comparing the survey results of Course 3 with Course 4. Since these two, similarly sized, courses covered the same business topic and were administered to two different sections spanning morning and afternoon, the results gave additional insight into student learning perceptions. For instance, the afternoon course rated higher on all ten significant learning dimensions as compared to the morning course.

Finally, it was encouraging to examine that, across all four courses, students perceived significant learning had occurred during the semester. The dimensions of application and learning how to learn especially appeared to indicate greater perceptions of student learning based on the survey results. The results seemed to reflect the instructor's use of case studies, essay questions, and written assignments given to expand opportunities for both applied and lifelong learning.

SUMMARY

In general, student perceptions were positive regarding the significant learning survey items. All four courses rated relatively higher on the application and learning how to learn items. However, all four courses rated relatively lower on the caring items and especially in Course 2. Course 4 rated highest on 8 out of 10 survey items. The findings indicated that significant learning strategies, such as methods aimed at improving student application of course content, provided perceived benefits in the classroom. Although situational factors, such as class size and period, were considered in the study; future research is needed to explore potential determinants and relationships among the variables.

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An Empirical Investigation of Clicker Technology in Financial Accounting Principles

Leisa L. Marshall
Professor of Accounting
Department of Accounting & Finance
Valdosta State University
Valdosta, Georgia

Anthony W. Varnon
Professor of Accounting
Department of Accounting
Southeast Missouri State University
Cape Girardeau, Missouri

ABSTRACT

The effects of clicker-use and active learning classroom activities on student performance in financial accounting principles were examined. A repeated measure design was used to compare performance on four exams between a clicker group and a non-clicker group, after controlling for GPA and age. A matched-pairs t-test was used to compare the effects of clickers and structured, peer-instruction (PI). In addition, students' perceptions of clicker-use were evaluated against the literature.

The results indicate that the integration of clickers with structured PI, significantly affects students' performance. However, the use of clickers, in and of themselves, did not produce significantly higher performance results for students. Despite the limited performance effects, most of the students believe they learn more and perform better because of the clicker technology. They believe they are more actively engaged, are more motivated, and are more likely to attend class because of the clickers.

INTRODUCTION

Clicker technology is similar to the famous television show, "*Who Wants to be a Millionaire?,"* where the audience responds with a remote control-type device to multiple-choice questions that appear on a screen at the front of the room. Although individual responses are anonymous and known only to the professor and the student, the "group" responses are tallied and displayed in a histogram on the screen, after the audience (students) completes the "voting." The histogram provides immediate feedback to the instructor, the class as a whole and to individual students. Students can quickly relate their response to the rest of the class and to their individual performance. The histogram also provides a mechanism for the instructor to follow-up with more detailed discussion and for students in the class to discuss their responses with each other (peer instruction). As in "*Who Wants to be a Millionaire?,"* the response time is limited and is indicated by a countdown timer, visible to all in the classroom.

Clickers allow for anonymous student responses, in class, without the embarrassment of being "put on the spot." In the pure, traditional classroom, the teacher lectures and students sit while passively absorbing the professor's lecture. In a little less-than-pure, traditional classroom, the professor asks questions and one student, at a time, is allowed to respond. Some students may know an answer, or think they know an answer, but not respond. Clickers allow all students to participate, simultaneously. Most traditional classes have the eager beaver, the student that knows all the answers and responds very quickly (eager-beaver effect). Other students typically wait for the eager beaver to respond, without engaging their brain at all. Clickers mitigate, if not remove, the eager beaver effect.

The primary purpose for using the clicker technology in this study was to maintain the "feel" of a small classroom (faculty-student interaction) while teaching in a larger classroom. The clicker system allows the professor and the students to communicate with each other via the histogram display. The professor is able to replace visual inspection of students' faces for understanding with class responses to the clicker questions. This feedback allows the professor to immediately assess students' conceptual understanding and problem-solving capabilities and adjust the lecture accordingly.

Many in the literature suggest that clickers are an active learning technique. Some have stated that clickers provide the mechanism for each student to engage their thought processes; allowing all students to move from the passive listener and to participate in the learning process. Thus, many clicker researchers imply, if not directly state, that the use of clickers increases performance. However, it is questionable that simply depressing a button on a remote control-type device translates into active learning.

True enough, students move beyond passive listening by pushing a button on their remote device. Whether the "button pushing" on the remote device translates into "being engaged" is not visible or theoretically justified. In addition, the conflicting empirical clicker research evidence on actual performance (evaluated below) brings into question whether the clicker technology, in and of itself, is active learning. The current research seeks to determine whether or not the clicker technology is, in its' own right, an active learning technique.

Despite whether or not the use of clickers is deemed to be an active learning technique, the use of clickers provides a mechanism for "all" students to participate. As revealed in the literature section, students perceive that clickers increase their attention, motivation, course performance, and retention of material. In general, students' perceptions across studies appear to be fairly consistent—students like using clickers.

One purpose of this study is to ascertain whether students in financial accounting principles produce the same satisfaction levels with the clicker technology as reported in the literature. A second purpose of this study seeks to resolve the issue regarding the effect of clicker use on "actual" (versus perceived) student performance. As revealed in the literature review section, studies regarding the use of clickers in the classroom produce conflicting results; either increased performance or no effect. Carnaghan and Webb (2007) produced limited evidence that the implementation of active learning techniques simultaneously to the integration of clickers creates the increases in students' performance. A review of the literature bears out this suggestion and provides the foundation for this study.

A final purpose of this study is to evaluate the effect on performance of the combined use of peer instruction (PI) and clickers. This study was designed to isolate the effects of clickers alone and clickers with PI. A non-clicker group was compared to a clicker group with an element of both groups' final grades consisting of class participation. Clicker technology was integrated during the entire semester in the clicker group with PI integrated after midterm.

The next section provides a literature review of clicker research and the ensuing hypotheses. The subsequent section contains the methodology and is followed by the results and discussion section. Finally, the limitations of the study, conclusions, and future research appear in the final section.

LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Clicker technology researchers provide various theoretical rationales to support the use of clickers and their effects on students' performance. Many provide the Dufresne et al. (1996) social constructivism theory as the rationale behind increased student performance with the clicker technology (Nichol and Boyle 2003). Dufresne' et al. (1996) social constructivism relies heavily on PI. PI begins with posing a question to the students in class; where initially, students respond without conferring with classmates. The histogram of responses is revealed to the class; after which students are encouraged to discuss, in small groups, the question and responses. After the groups' discussions, students are allowed to respond to the question a second time.

Edmonds and Edmonds (2008) provide the "theoretical arguments made by accounting educators" ... "that active learning promotes student performance" (p 422). Edmonds and Edmonds (2008) also rely on a subset of Bonwell and Eison's (1991) characteristics that describe "active learning." More specifically, Edmonds and Edmonds (2008, p 423) put forth that the use of clicker technology involves five of Bonwell and Eison's (1991) seven characteristics:

1. students are involved in more than passive listening;
2. students are engaged in activities;
3. there is less emphasis placed on information transmission and greater emphasis placed on developing skills;
4. students can receive immediate feedback from their instructor; and
5. student motivation is increased.

Students' Perceptions

Evidence of student satisfaction with the use of clickers in the classroom abounds in the literature. Overall, students view the use of clickers in the classroom positively in terms of encouraging and/or enhancing active engagement, motivation, attention-span, interest level, and preparedness.

Motivation/Participation/Attention

Abrahamson's (1999) Harvard and University of Massachusetts students produce very high scores (both at 90%) for the use of clickers as a motivator. More than 75 percent of Williams and Boyle's (2008) sample report that clickers serve as a motivator. Kay and Knaack (2009) report a satisfaction level of 63% of the students.

More than 80 percent of the Harvard and University of Massachusetts students believe they are more engaged in the classroom as a result of using clickers (Abrahamson 1999). Slain et al. (2004) reported similar results for three separate courses, as does Barnes (2008) and Kaleta and Joosten (2007).

Students' perception results vary between higher scores of 80-96 percent agreeing that the class is more enjoyable (Preszler et al. 2007, Slain et al. 2004) and only 60-70 percent agreeing (Abrahamson 1999). Along this same line, Caldwell (2007) found that 88 percent prefer the use of clickers over non-use.

The majority of students agree that they pay more attention in class because of the use of clickers (Abrahamson 1999, Kaleta & Joosten 2007). Latessa and Mouw (2005) report significantly higher percentages of their students (99%) believe they pay more attention because of the use of clickers. Boyle et al. (2002), Dufresnes et al. (1996), Miller et al. (2003) and Crossgrove and Curran (2008) report scores above 4.0 on a 5-point Likert scale for this same variable.

Help to understand or retain material

Reay et al. (2008) student surveys produced positive results in that students enjoy using the clickers and believe that clickers help them learn. Several studies report that at least 80 percent of the students agree or strongly agree that the clickers help them to understand and/or learn the material (Abrahamson 1999, Cue 1998, Latessa & Mouw 2005, Pradham et al. 2005).

H1-1: Financial accounting principles students have overall positive perceptions of clicker-use in the classroom with respect to being actively engaged, paying attention, retaining the course material, motivation levels, performance, attendance, and interest in the course.

Performance

A constant in the clicker and performance literature is the absence of findings that students experience negative effects on performance from the use of clickers. On the contrary, students believe the use of clickers positively affects their performance (Edmonds and Edmonds 2008, Crossgrove and Curran 2008). Despite these positive student perceptions, the empirical evidence of clicker use on student performance is mixed. Researchers report of no effects for the class as a whole (Crossgrove and Curran 2008, Nelson and Hauck 2008, Miller et al. 2003), increased

performance for the class as a whole (Pradham et al. 2005, Shackow et al. 2004, van Dijk et al. 2001, Poulis et al. 1998), increased effects on a subgroup of students (Caldwell 2007, Edmonds and Edmonds 2008), or increased performance based on select groups of assessments (Crossgrove and Curran 2008, Slain et al. 2004) result from the use of clickers.

The mixed results in the clicker performance literature require a critical analysis of this literature. It is not established that the use of clickers truly qualifies as an active learning technique, or at least a technique that leads to positive effects on performance.

Positive performance effect

The literature on positive performance effects exist across disciplines and various pedagogies. However, each study contains confounding events that might contribute to increased performance. The major confounding events can be classified into two major types: (1) comparisons of traditional lecture classes to classes with active learning activities (beyond the clicker itself) and (2) limited designs and or measurements.

Poulis et al. (1998) were among the first to present performance findings in the clicker research. They report a significantly higher pass rate for the clicker group than the non-clicker group where the non-clicker group received traditional lectures with very little in-class interaction. Although Poulis et al. (1998) state, "... results demonstrate ... APF [clickers] ... increasing the mean pass rate ..." (p. 441), they acknowledge the possibility of the potential increased pass rate effect due to increased student and faculty interactions, as well as additional professor explanations after clicker questions and responses. Others that report of increased performance describe the additional professor explanations provided during the clicker sessions (Blood and Neel 2008, Donovan 2008, Pradham et al. 2005, Schakow et al 2004, Sharma et al. 2005). Barnes (2008) El-Rady (2006) added group discussions and/or PI during the clicker sessions. Slain et al. (2004) requested that student volunteers explain clicker question responses to the class; using this as a method to generate class discussion.

Schackow et al. (2004) provide evidence to the "additional activities" associated with clickers by comparing performance of one set of students exposed to three instructional methods. They compared a pure lecture with no interaction method, an interactive with structured multiple-choice questions but without clickers method, and a clicker method. The second two methods allowed for extensive professor-student interaction. The students performed significantly better when taught with the clickers than they did when the instruction was purely lecture. However, the clicker method did not produce significantly better results when compared to the interactive instructional method.

Preszler et al. (2007) also provide support that the additional activities produce significant results for the more active groups. Preszler et al. (2007) found significantly higher examination scores when clickers were used more often (Preszler 2007). They credit to the use of clickers as opposed to the increased student-faculty interaction created from the additional use of the technology (Preszler et al. 2007).

Several studies with positive performance effects reveal limitations in their design or measurements. Students in the clicker group were held accountable for "homework" in Edmonds and Edmonds (2008). Reay et al. (2008) also introduced a particular question sequence in the terms when the clickers were introduced into their traditional lectures. Although the non-clicker group had "access" to the sequenced questions, there is no mention of whether the students actually were exposed to these during class. Instead, Reay et al. (2008) clearly state that the class was "taught in a traditional manner" (p. 174).

Schackow et al. (2004) averaged weekly quiz grades for each of their three different instructional methods (pure lecture, interactive, and clickers) as the measures of performance. The interactive and clicker lectures contained multiple-choice questions presented in the form of presentation software slides, with the clicker group using the clicker system and the interactive group verbally discussing the responses. Although the same presentation software slides were utilized in the pure lectures, the pure lectures did not contain the multiple-choice questions. These same

multiple-choice questions presented during the session were used as the measurement of performance in all instructional methods. Slain et al. (2004) report significant results for three different courses but the same measurements are not significant across courses.

No Effect

Six of the seven studies that revealed limited or no effects from the use of clickers contained specialized samples and/or limited exposure to the clickers. Carnaghan and Webb (2007) found limited effects of the clickers with accounting honors' students. van Dijk et al. (2001) compared a one-hour lecture of a pure-lecture (control) group to an clickers-group and an clickers-PI group; differences between the groups did not emerge. Their sample contained students majoring in the field of engineering; albeit, the course studied was a basic beta sciences' course required of all engineering students. Paschal's (2002) group was also engineering majors. Crossgrove and Curran (2008) had a sample of biology majors; Bunce et al. (2006) studied nursing students; and Miller et al. (2003) group contained practicing, health care professional from a one-hour continuing education course.

Nelson and Hauck's (2008) study of business students in a basic MIS course did not find significant differences between performance of clicker-students and non-clicker students; they do not mention their performance measurement instrument but note that each comparison group had different faculty members and exam content. Although van Dijk et al. (2001) administered a mechanic's knowledge pre-test to ascertain the similarities between their control and treatment groups, variables to control for individual performance of the subjects were not utilized. The lack of control variables is a common theme among the studies that did not find significant effects (Crossgrove and Curran 2008, Nelson and Hauck (2008).

Control Variables

Edmonds and Edmonds (2008, p 429) report an average of 3.12 percentage points higher for the clickers-students over the non-clickers students, after controlling for age, gender, cumulative GPA, and ACT score. Carnaghan and Webb (2007) found "limited GRS [clicker] learning effect" in a management accounting course and suggest the effect of increased performance reported in other studies do not remove the coupling effect of clickers and change from traditional lecture to an active learning environment. Carnaghan and Webb (2007) provide evidence of the decoupling effects.

H1-2: Accounting principles students that use clickers outperform accounting principles students' that do not use clickers, after controlling for students basic aptitude (SAT), motivation (CGPA), gender, and age.

H1-3: Accounting principles students that use clickers with peer instruction (PI) perform better than using clickers alone.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Pedagogy

The sample consists of students enrolled in financial accounting principles courses at an AACSB-accredited, mid-sized, southeastern United States university. Both groups met for 15 weeks; the control group met during the spring of 2009 and the experimental group met during the spring of 2010. All sections were taught by the same instructor, who had over 20 years experience teaching financial accounting principles. All sections met in the mornings. The same textbook (*Financial Accounting, 6*th ed, Weygandt, Kimmel, and Kieso), syllabus, and point allocation for participation (5%) and examinations (95%) were used for both groups.

Both groups received the same lectures, homework assignments, and exams. Class notes were created during class, saved to a file after class and made available, via the web, to the students after each class period. Homework assignments were identical and appeared on the syllabus; specific homework assignments were made daily. Although homework was not collected from either group, it served as the basis for participation points. For both groups, homework solutions were presented and discussed in class. All class questions were addressed; however, a notably

greater amount of questions were asked in the control group than in the experimental group. Participation points were accumulated during class for both groups.

The use of the clicker technology for participation and explanations of the clicker technology on the syllabus for the experimental group were the major differences between the control and experimental groups. The control group's participation points were primarily assigned to individual students that volunteered solutions or discussion during class. The professor made marks on a seating chart during class as individual students contributed to the class. Students were informed at the beginning of the semester that their final participation grade was based on their number of responses relative to the number of responses to others in the class. They were reminded periodically during the semester of this policy.

The clicker group received participation points, initially, by simply responding to clicker questions in class; both correct and incorrect responses received full credit. Subsequent to the first exam and up to the second exam, students earned points by correctly responding to clicker questions on their own. During the second half of the class (coverage of the third and fourth exams), peer-instruction was integrated into the class. On average, each class session contained four clicker questions. The sequence of responding to a single clicker question was to first reply to the question as an individual; after the histogram of individual responses was revealed, students discussed the question in student groups of three. After the student discussions, the question was revealed again, for a second opportunity to respond correctly. Students earned one-half a point for each correct response.

The same exams were administered to both the control and clicker groups at about the same point in the semester. Exams were primarily a multiple-choice format with the multiple choice questions' responses re-ordered to create multiple versions for individual examinations, for each group. Carlson and Ostrosky (1992) reveal that ordering of multiple-choice questions impacts student performance; however, performance is not affected when the responses are re-ordered.

Data Collection and Methods

Student perception responses were collected from the clicker group with the clicker technology. Nine questions were posed to the class on the first day after midterm, prior to the integration of peer instruction. Two final perception questions were administered on the last day of class (see Table 1).

Students were asked to respond to the midterm perception statements on a 5-point, Likert-type scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree; although, some of the responses were reverse-ordered to enhance the validity of the responses. As a second method to enhance the validity of the responses, some of the statements appeared in the negative form. The two statements posed on the last day of class contained only positive and negative responses; the middle (neutral) response was eliminated.

Performance was measured by scores earned on each of the four semester exams. Cumulative grade point average (CGPA) and age as of the beginning of the semester were retrieved from the students' official records. SAT scores were retrieved where available. Some students with SAT scores only had the Verbal and Math portions, without the writing portion. As such, total SAT scores consist of the math and verbal portions only. Students with ACT scores instead of SAT scores were retrieved and converted to the math and verbal-SAT equivalent. Raw scores (not curved) earned on each exam were recorded for analysis purposes.

Given the over-abundant reports in the literature of students' perceptions to the use and benefits of clickers in the classroom, simple visual comparisons of clicker use by the clicker group will be made to the literature. The percentages of students' responses from this study will appear in the results section. Univariate ANACOVAs were used to test for (1) differences in each version for each exam within each group, (2) differences in each version of each exam between the groups, and (3) differences in each exam between the two groups. A repeated measures design, with raw scores earned on each of the first four exams as the multiple-dependent variable and control independent variables, is used to test the effect

Table 1
Results of Perception Questions (Percentages)

#	Question	n	SD&D[1]	N	A&SA
5	I am more actively engaged in the class because of the use of clickers.	70	3	17	80
1	I pay more attention in class because of the clicker questions	70	13	19	69
4	I like seeing how the rest of the class responded to clicker questions.	69	6	26	68
9	The use of clickers makes the class more interesting.	70	13	34	53
2	I believe I remember more of the class material as a result of using the clickers in class.	70	11	37	51
7	I come to class more prepared because of the use of the clickers.	70	31	43	26
	Questions in the negative form:				
3	I am less motivated because of the clicker questions.	70	76	20	4
8	The use of the clickers has no impact on my class performance.	69	59	26	14
6	The use of clickers does not impact my decision to attend class.	70	50	23	27
The following two questions were asked on the last day of class					
	I believe the use of clickers in class has helped to increase my knowledge of accounting.	52	18	n/a[2]	83
	I believe discussing the questions with my classmates was beneficial in learning accounting (peer instruction).	52	26	n/a	75

1SD&D=Strongly Disagree and Disagree; N=Neither; A&SA=Agree and Strongly Agree

2N/A = response not an available as an option.

of clickers as a method to increase performance. The model appears as:

$$\text{Exam Score} = \alpha_{0} + \beta_{1}\text{Group}_{i} + \beta_{2}\text{CGPA}_{i} + \beta_{3}\text{SAT}_{i} + \beta_{4}\text{Age}_{i} + \beta_{5}\text{Gender}_{i} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

where:

Exam Score: four (4) scores for each student, representing scores earned on each of four (4) semester exams;
Group: 1 = non-clicker, 2 = clicker;
CGPA: Cumulative GPA at beginning of term;
SAT: Math + Verbal portion or ACT-equivalent of SAT-Math and Verbal
Gender: 1=Female, 2=Male
Age: At the beginning of the term.

NOTE: SAT was dropped from the model because of a significant correlation to Age; Age was maintained to preserve the sample size as SAT/ACT scores were not available for all of the students. Also, Gender was dropped from the model as it revealed a lack of significance in the ANACOVA tests.

Paired t-tests, for each group, were used to test the effects of peer-instruction. The average scores earned on the first two exams are compared to the average scores earned on the second two exams (after peer-instruction integrated into the clicker group), for each group separately. If differences in the pre- and post-test measures are a function of the difficulty level of the material, then differences or lack thereof should appear for both the clicker and non-clicker groups. A significant difference should result in the clicker group, but not the control group, if peer-instruction impacts student performance. If peer-instruction positively impacts performance, the post-test averages should be greater than the pre-test averages.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Students included in the study include those that at least completed the first exam. The combined sections totaled 159, 132, 111, and 105 students for Exam #1, #2, #3, and #4, respectively. Scores from these students were used to test for differences between versions within an exam and to test for differences between clicker use on each of the four exams (see Table 2). Thirty-one in the control group and 60 students in the clicker group completed all four exams on exam day. Scores of these 91 students were used to test the effects of clickers alone (H2) and clickers combined with peer instruction (H3).

The basic demographics between the clicker and non-clicker groups are comparable with average ages of 21 and 22 for the control and clicker groups, respectively. The average cumulative GPA was 2.62 for both groups. The control group had slightly more females (62%) than the clicker group (58%). The distribution of freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors was relatively the same.

Perceptions (H1)

Overall, the perception responses of the clicker group parallel the results reported in the literature (see Table 1). Although the overall results indicate that positive effects accrue during class, this does not necessarily extend to outside of class activities (preparation). Students believe that the use of clickers helps to maintain their attention, as well as engage and motivate them. By the end of the semester, a larger percentage of students believed that clickers helped to increase their knowledge of accounting over their beliefs about performance at midterm. This change in perception could be the result of integrating peer-instruction with the clickers after midterm. Corroborating support exists with the positive perceptions to the peer-instruction question posed on the last day of class, with 83 percent of the students agreeing that clickers helped them learn accounting.

Performance (H2 and H3)

A preliminary view of the groups' average exam results reveals that the non-clicker group outperformed the clicker group on each exam except the fourth exam (see Table 2). However, these results do not account for individual performance or the control. The clicker groups' exam average after the integration of peer instruction (Exam #3) increased; they maintained this increase for the remaining exam. This same pattern does not exist for the non-clicker group. The univariate ANACOVAs for each exam between the clicker and non-clicker group indicate that they are not significantly different. Cumulative GPA was a significant variable for each exam and age is significant for three of the four exams.

The repeated measure results for the two groups as a whole, indicate a lack of significant difference between the clicker and control groups (p=0.45) (see Table 3). Consistent with the univariate results and the literature, CGPA and Age are both significant variables. The results suggest that the use of clickers, in and of themselves, does not produce the intended outcomes of active learning techniques in the classroom. Thus, the second hypothesis is not supported.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics –Exam Results

	Exam #1			Exam #2			Exam #3			Exam #4		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Non-clicker	51	67.51	14.94	47	61.21	17.83	35	75.17	22.52	35	65.60	20.35
Clicker	108	65.31	17.01	85	59.74	14.87	76	68.00	19.91	70	68.49	14.61
Total[1]	159	66.02	16.35	132	60.27	15.94	111	70.26	20.94	105	67.52	16.70
ANACOVA p-values		0.35			0.40			0.09			0.60	

[1] The results for the reduced sample of students that took all four exams on exam day (n=91) reveal similar results.

TABLE 3
Repeated Measures: Exams = a + Group + CGPA + Age + e
n: Control group = 31; Clicker group= 60

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Group	387	1	387	0.910	0.450
CGPA	18,510	1	18510	43.47	0.000
Age	2,724	1	2724	6.40	0.020
Error	38,327	88			

The paired t-tests, for the two groups separately (see Table 4), were used to test the effect of peer-instruction. Significant results emerge for the clicker group (p=0.046) but not for the control group (p=0.170). Although the non-clicker group scored approximately two percentage points higher on the second set of exams relative to the first set of exams, the difference was not significant. There was not a change in the course for the control group between the first two exams and the second two exams; as such, a difference was not expected.

However, peer instruction was integrated into the clicker group after the second exam. It was expected that if peer instruction assisted in students' learning, then a significant difference would emerge. As expected, the clicker group scored significantly higher (71.14) after the integration of peer instruction than they did before the use of peer instruction (68.34). These results support the third hypothesis.

LIMITATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH, AND CONCLUSIONS

As with any study, this study does have limitations. One limitation, although minimizing the effect of different teachers, is that both groups of students were taught by the same professor. This professor had taught both large and small sections of financial accounting principles. A second limitation is that the two groups were from the same institution. Although minimizing the effects of university-specific variables of different institutions, the one-university limitation prevents generalizability to other institutions.

Future clicker researchers in accounting education should focus on the type of questions, frequency of clicker questions, percentage of points allocated to clicker responses, and measurements of performance. Donovan's (2008) results leads one to believe that the value of the clicker technology rests with the idea of posing a question (to stimulate thinking) as opposed to the use of the technology itself. Credibility to this supposition could be confirmed by expanding the number of questions per class-session from six questions to a substantially larger number of questions.

In conclusion, the perceived benefits expressed by students regarding the use of clickers in financial accounting principles are overwhelming. Students believe that the use of clickers increases their performance, attendance, and motivation. Capitalizing on these positive attitudes to increase learning should be at the forefront of clicker use in the classroom. These positive beliefs might also be the motivation for implementing the use of clickers in the classroom.

TABLE 4
Paired t-tests: Pre- and Post-tests

		Pre-tests		Post-tests		t-tests	
	n	Average	Std. Dev.	Average	Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value
No-clicker	31	69.75	12.44	72.34	16.49	1.41	0.170
Clicker	60	68.34	13.09	71.14	14.36	2.04	0.046

The benefit of the clickers in the classroom rests more with the "other" activities triggered with their use. One of the other activities is the professor's ability to provide immediate feedback based on the histogram results. Responses to a clicker question that produce a high percentage of incorrect responses, triggers the professor to provide further explanation. In addition, the use of the clicker system, together with peer instruction, facilitates focused discussions between the students.

Integrating formal questions via PowerPoint slides possibly creates students' cognitive engagement more than the professor simply posing questions out loud in class. The formalized appearance on a slide might trigger the student to re-focus on the lecture, where the verbally spoken question might not.

Do not expect that the superficial use of clickers will increase performance. The use of clickers to simply administer in-class quizzes or exams is not likely to increase performance. The benefit of clickers in the classroom accrues with the integration of active learning activities such as peer-instruction.

Overall, the evidence in this study suggests that the use of clickers alone do not increase performance. However, the combination of clickers and peer instruction increases performance. This evidence confirms Carnaghan and Webb (2009) evidence that the additional activities associated with clickers produces higher performance.

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Service Learning Positively Impacts Student Involvement, Retention, and Recruitment

Dr. Thomas Lucy-Bouler
Associate Professor
Information Systems and Decision Sciences
Auburn University Montgomery
Montgomery, Alabama

Tink Lucy-Bouler
Executive Director/Program Manager
Nonprofit Leadership Alliance Program
Student Life
Auburn University Montgomery
Montgomery, Alabama

ABSTRACT

Universities struggle with how to get students more involved and active in the university and community. Providing projects that just collect cans or raise money for a cause, while admirable, are not teaching the students how to be active, how to conduct projects, and give them connections to the community. This paper will describe service learning projects that actually are planned, managed and executed by the students. As students get involved in these projects a sense of community on campus develops which helps with retention, recruitment and future involvement in other projects.

INTRODUCTION

Service learning is a form of experiential learning in which classroom instruction is reinforced by community service (Hunter and Brisbin, 2000). The usual model is where students are used as labor at an organization to learn an aspect of the curriculum from the experience. The student experience should be focused on furthering the skills of the student in the area of study. According to research, these students can be considered free labor and are viewed as being the recipient of the benefits of the service learning. These include improved critical thinking skills, integrating theory and practice, improving communication skills, and creating sustained civic engagement (Battistoni, 1997; Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, and Geshwind, 2000; Hunter and Brisbin, 2000; Jacoby, 1996). Also the learning benefits have been discussed include the benefit to society of creating more informed citizen, as well as other benefits (Astin and Sax, 1998; Eyler and Giles, 1999; Kenny, 2002). Although this research shows how students earn more typical business skills, it does not show how they gain experience in the field of study. Also, other advantages to the university are not discussed, such as campus involvement, retention, and sense of community.

In an environment of on line classes becoming increasingly popular the traditional college experience must be difficult if not impossible to reproduce on line. Service learning is an experience uniquely suited for students on a college campus. Students are provided with an opportunity be make a difference in the community they are a part of, if only for a short period of time.

This paper will describe service learning in two programs, a nonprofit leadership certificate program with associated student organization, and a class within an information systems major. The increase in the campus and community involvement will be discussed as well as the retention of provisionary students who get involved.

NONPROFIT LEADERSHIP ORGANIZATION INVOLVEMENT

Service learning increases student's interest in campus involvement, community engagement and service. At Auburn University Montgomery over 100 students from Greek organizations, student government (SGA and CAB), athletic, academic specific clubs, faith based groups, high school key clubs join together with the campus chapter of the Nonprofit Leadership Alliance to make a meaningful difference in our community. The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance program at Auburn University Montgomery holds three annual signature service learning projects. These projects transcend the typical interest of students who focus on their areas of study and development. This is a well-developed, highly inclusive mold for campus and community engagement.

Easter Egg Hunt

The original service learning program at Auburn University Montgomery was an Easter egg hunt for forty five children from the United Way's Success by Six Program and the Addulliam House, a home for children whose parents are incarcerated. The tenth consecutive year for the program, 2011, grew to include the Chisolm Community Center, United Way's Success by Six, Nelli Burge Community Center, Sunshine Center (an abused women's shelter) and children from the Addulliam House. The program provides the only Easter over one hundred and fifty children and their families will enjoy. Children not only hunt for eggs, they receive a traditional wicker basket filled with candy, toys, and a beautiful bunny supplied by Chrisha Creations, a company located in Rhode Island. The YMCA of Montgomery brings and manages inflatable play areas. The AUM athletic department brings high energy outdoor games and then instructs and plays with the children. The school's cheerleaders teach the children to cheer and many athletes from basketball, soccer, tennis, and baseball sign t-shirts for the children. Students from all areas of interest and location turn out to make it a special day for the children. We have assembled a large community of businesses who look forward to the event each year. Carrabba's Italian Grill caters the event for four hundred people. Chappy's Deli provides four hundred cookies, Applebee's provides juice, tea, and other items, McDonald's supplies happy meal toys, Jim 'N Nick's brings out Bar-BQ, King's Catering supplies four hundred hot dogs and hamburgers, Marble Slab Creamery brings ice cream, Panera Bread Company supplies breakfast for hungry volunteers, Quiznos Sub and Fire House Sub bring sandwiches, and many other local businesses make sure there is enough food to feed all the children, parents, siblings, and volunteers. This massive amount of community involvement is recruited and coordinated by the Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students. After many years, students have developed an extensive database of community supporters. The students take donation letters to local business and year after year their support continues to grow. This project reflects the entire community from college students, leading agencies with the children in need, to the local businesses who provide the financial resources for the Easter Egg Hunt to be a huge success year after year.

Christmas Program

The eighth annual Christmas program for low income children was held in December 2010. The Kellogg's foundation funded the first Christmas program through a $3000.00 grant. This program reflects the greatest metamorphoses in service learning programs at Auburn Montgomery. The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students lead volunteers from many diverse organizations on campus to provide over one hundred and twenty five children and their families a holiday celebration. The Theater department on campus performs a special Christmas play specifically for the children. The children create arts and crafts and Auburn Montgomery students pay them in Santa dollars. A Santa dollar is tender for the exchange of Christmas gifts for the children's earnings. Each child will earn three different brightly colored Santa dollars and can exchange them for three gifts in Santa's workshop. Auburn Montgomery students praise the hard work of each child. The children also dance and sing Christmas songs. They have their picture taken with Santa Claus and enjoy a wonderful Christmas dinner provided by area churches and local businesses. Many partnerships are vital for this program to be a success year after year. Over

one hundred and thirty student volunteers from across campus come together for common a goal to provide Christmas to children who otherwise would have little to no Christmas celebration. Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students over the past four years wrote and received grants from the Junior League of Montgomery to provide presents for the children. Faculty, staff, AH student's parents donate presents for the program. This year the Rotary club will assist in funding the gifts. The same local businesses that provide Easter dinner also provide Christmas dinner year after year. The difference is local churches are networked and organized for a traditional Christmas dinner with one church making all the turkeys, another baking the hams, one cooking only vegetables, and the Jewish temple provides all the deserts. This is a timed event with the children arriving at different times, moving through the event at a predetermined time. The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students develop detailed plans and structure the event so all the children have as much time as they want and need to enjoy the day.

Adopt-a-thon Program

The third signature service learning program is a Humane Society and Rescue organization adopt-a-thon known as Find-A-Friend at AUM. The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance program at Auburn Montgomery partners with humane societies and rescue organizations across the state of Alabama to provide homes for homeless pets that would be euthanized. This year will be the eighth annual Find-A-Friend at AUM. Auburn Montgomery students have assisted shelters in finding hundreds of loving homes for pets. Many partners are necessary for this event to be successful. On average twenty to twenty five shelters attend bringing two to three hundred homeless dogs, puppies, cats, and kittens. There is no cost to the shelters and Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students try to get as many items on the shelters wish list donated. Students write and take donations letter to local business requesting donations of pet items, cleaning supplies, and office materials. Find-A-Friend differs from the previous two programs because of the vital and extensive marketing required for the event to be a success. Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students design interesting and thought provoking flyers to inform and encourage the community to attend and adopt. The students canvas the community going to as many business, churches, and special interest organizations as possible. Students utilize current technology such as My Space and Face Book to inform the community. Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students register the event on all community calendars, students appear on both afternoon T.V. talk shows the week of the event, they have a story in the local newspaper both print and online, and a local radio station advertises the event during the week before the event and broadcast lives the day of the event. The night before the event many Nonprofit Leadership Alliance students go to popular areas in town and hand out flyers, and talk to people asking if they could text, e-mail, or phone five friends to inform them of the event. The students have developed release forms and waivers for the volunteers, registration forms for the shelters, and vendor forms for pet related businesses who participate in the event. As a result of eight years of planning and dedicated effort by the students over five hundred homeless dogs, puppies, cats, and kittens found loving homes. Awareness in our community regarding the overpopulation crisis has increased.

Impact of Programs on Students

All the programs are student planned and resources are acquired and developed by the students. However, there is a need for a consistent person to maintain financial resources. Trust is at the center of the relationships with the humane shelters and organizations that the care for the children. Therefore, the role of the campus executive director is critical for credibility, consistence, and future grow of the programs.

Through the development of these much needed service learning projects campus volunteerism and involvement has significantly increased. Students from all areas of interest eagerly watch and inquire about volunteering at the annual events. They have a great time at the events and have more fun than the children they are serving. During formal event evaluations student remark the best aspect of their university experience were the service learning programs. Students raise money, resources, awareness, and know that

through their effort they make a difference in the lives of the neediest in our community.

Some of the student volunteers are from several sections of a class called Study Skills. This class is designed to assist provisional students which have been identified as being at risk of not finishing college. Some of these students volunteer and become an active part of the certificate program. Out of 23 students from those classes who have been actively seeking certification, 19 or 82% graduated, 4 or 17% are working on their degree, and 8 or 34% are perusing graduate degrees. Only 2 students are not actively pursuing a degree, but both still attend every event and have intentions to finish one day.

INFORMATION SYSTEMS SERVICE LEARNING

Instead of having contrived projects for a Web Application Development course, projects are found in the nonprofit sector of the community for the students to work on as the project of the course. Three nonprofits in the past have benefited from the students designing or redesigning the website for the organization. Each one of the projects is described.

Montgomery Humane Society

The Montgomery Humane society was the first project done in the course back in fall of 2007. The website for the shelter was not current and updating the site had become cumbersome. A class consisting of 22 students was broken up into 4 teams who came up with 4 different designs for the website. The administrators of the shelter picked one design but wanted to incorporate aspects of nearly all designs into the website. The students were then split into teams to tackle each aspect of the project including coding, graphics, content and a design template. Coding was done in ASP.NET. The students worked on the project during class time twice a week.

The outcome was a completed website for the Humane Society. It incorporated all the specifications that the organization wanted and was implement by one of the students as an independent study the next semester. Parts of the design are still evident on the website which has been redesigned by the current company maintaining the website. The site included links to various other organizations including petfinder.com where all shelters and rescue organizations can post their animals up for adoption. The design included a random selection of an animal from the humane society's listings on petfinder.com to be featured on each page of the site in a sidebar.

Alabama Animal Alliance

The next project was taken on by one student as an independent study. The nonprofit was the Alabama Animal Alliance, a low cost spay and neutering clinic. The clinic was brand new and needed a website for promotion. During the course of a summer, the student worked with the administrators of the clinic and provided a website that met the needs of the clinic. Again, ASP.NET was used to develop the website. As part of the class, the student also implemented the website for the clinic. The website for the clinic still has the same design the student did 4 years ago. The student still volunteers time at the clinic even though his major was information systems.

100X Mission

The project for fall 2009 was a website for a nonprofit that funds orphanages around the world. The company, 100X Missions wanted a website that could serve as information and funding source. The company has orphanages in Malawi, India, Mexico, and Moldova. The website developed was never implemented due to some technical difficulties in the classroom that delayed the students working on the project in class. The 18 students in the class were split into 5 design teams. The designs were presented to the administration of 100 X. The administrators chose a combination of several designs. Students worked on the project during class time twice a week. Critical to the success was a website easily updatable with new information, pictures, and a system to take donations. A content management system was tried, but the learning curve proved too steep for students to learn. Other content management systems were tried but also failed. The only part of the project that was implementable was the design, not the management side of the content. One student later did an in-

dependent study to develop the complete website, but it has not been implemented as of yet by the nonprofit. The independent study student's website is too complex for simple management. Although the system was never finished the students still learned project management and team skills. They also became more aware of the plight of orphans and many have volunteered during 100 X Mission events.

Online Service Learning

For fall 2010, the web development class was taught online. Service learning was still implemented by working on multiple websites instead of just one. Each of the student teams was fully responsible to code a complete website. Three of the teams worked on the same site, where the other two teams worked on two completely different sites. Teams consisted of 4 to 5 students. Each team had access via e-mail directly to the administrators of the organizations to ask questions. This was different from the in class projects where the administrators came to the classroom 3 times during the whole semester. One website was implemented from the 5 projects, with the other 4 were either incomplete or not exactly what the administrators wanted.

The challenges to working online included getting the teams together. Even though the class was online, the students still felt they had to meet in person at least once to work on the project. Responsibilities were delegated, but it still seemed that students were not as engaged in the project since they did not meet in class twice a week. Motivation seemed to be lacking except for the one or two persons in each team that were motivated to get the job done. An analysis of the projects also revealed the specifications that were given the students were not very clear from the administrators of the organizations.

Impact of Projects

In each of these cases, the students indicated on evaluations for the classes that they learned more doing a website for an actual client than what they expected to learn in the class. During all projects, one person became a leader of each of the teams, being the manager of the others to get work done on time. This was an interesting finding from the first time a project was used in the web application class. One of those leaders, who actually became a class leader, bringing all the teams together on the project, stayed on as an independent study the next term to implement the Humane Society website.

Many of the students from the web application class also volunteered to judge in a technology competition that is held in the spring semester. The students felt a commitment to serve as volunteers after the work they did in the fall in the web application class. Many of those students still serve as judges for the yearly technology competition even after graduation. They feel a connection with the academic department that wouldn't have been there had they not felt like they were working as part of the university to satisfy the needs of the nonprofits on the website projects. The technology fair has also helped with recruitment since many students who have been in the competition later come to the university as students and get involved in the technology fair.

CONCLUSION

Students who are engaged in some type of service learning feel more connected to the university. This connection helps in retention, recruitment and commitment to community service. Student's volunteer on several projects annual year after year. Many students volunteered through their high school at the projects and they choose to attend Auburn Montgomery because they felt connected to the university. A high school student who volunteered at Find-A-Friend as a high school freshman chose Auburn Montgomery as her college. She came to freshman orientation wearing the t-shirt she was given for volunteering that day as a high school freshman. At each project over 100 students volunteer to make a difference. All students are phoned to be thanked for their volunteerism immediately and reminded of the next project. Evaluations are conducted after each project and students provide meaningful reflection on their efforts. The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance has extremely dedicated and active alumni that still volunteer at projects and donate monies to the program. The projects have been recognized at the national office for their high quality. In 2008 the program won the Excellence in Student Recruitment award. This past year the

program won the Program Excellence award for the best program in the nation. Through community service projects that actually make a difference in either a child's life or in the operation of nonprofit, students are able to see they can make a difference.

The information system class projects provide the students with real projects instead of textbook assignments. Students are able to develop websites that are functional. The students come out of the class with not only experience at website development but also project management and team development work. These projects help out nonprofits organizations and give the students an opportunity to do community service that makes a difference.

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Problem-Based Learning, Scaffolding, and Coaching: Improving Student Outcomes through Structured Group Time

Lynn M. Murray
Assistant Professor of Marketing
Department of Management and Marketing
Pittsburg State University
Pittsburg, Kansas

ABSTRACT

Live-client projects are increasingly used in marketing coursework. However, students, instructors, and clients are often disappointed by the results. This paper reports an approach drawn from the problem-based learning, scaffolding, and team formation and coaching literatures that uses favor of a series of workshops designed to guide students in developing marketing plans for their non-profit client. The workshops produced marketing plans that were more actionable than those developed in an experiential learning environment without scaffolding or those completed outside of class. An example of the scaffolding technique is provided.

Experiential learning exercises are becoming increasingly prevalent in colleges of business (Gaidis & Andrews, 1990), particularly the use of team-based live cases – Harvard Business School, the developer of the case study method used by many business professors, recently announced a shift toward live cases in which small teams of students develop a new product or business (Middleton & Light, 2011). Although experiential learning [a process in which learning occurs through experience (Kolb, 1984)] can take many forms in marketing coursework, such as case studies, computer simulations, and projects (Gaidis & Andrews, 1990), a live case team project is particularly well to learning by doing. The use of a live client provides students with the opportunity to integrate and apply the knowledge they acquire – a critical higher-order thinking skill business programs strive to instill in their students. Students also benefit from working with clients who have their own ideas and whose problems have real consequences. At the same time, a course provides students with a sheltered environment in which they are encouraged to experiment and take risks.

In spite of these potential benefits, however, results often disappoint faculty, students, and clients. While there may be many reasons for this disappointment, such as student motivation, project appropriateness, and student ability, much of the issue may rest with how faculty members integrate the project into the course. Certainly, this is the case with the instructor of the course described here. Frustrated by the quality of the projects, the instructor instituted milestones in order both to provide feedback on parts of the written report and to keep teams moving forward and began to devote significant amounts of class time to the project. Despite these remedies, she remained frustrated with how poorly students used the significant amounts of time allotted for the project: projects were still poorly conceived and papers poorly written. She found students often repeated discussions or held extensive off-topic discussions, making little progress with much of the project deliverables being completed at the last minute by only one or two members of the team. She particularly noted the difficulty students had in applying the concepts and theories learned. This report details a method that explicitly develops students' ability to apply concepts and theories in marketing. These skills are developed through a project-based learning method that promotes the integration and application of marketing theory through scaffolding

and coaching. First, a description of the course and previous efforts are discussed.

COURSE DESCRIPTION

Overview

The course described here is the senior-level capstone marketing course at a Midwestern state university enrolling more than 7000 students. Prerequisites include Basic Marketing and Consumer Behavior; while Marketing Research is a co-requisite, it is strongly recommended as a pre-requisite. Typically students will also have completed at least one of two required marketing electives before enrolling in this course. One section of this course is available every semester with a typical enrollment of 20-25 students.

Structure

Because students come to this class with a basic understanding of key marketing concepts, the centerpiece of the course is the preparation and presentation of a marketing plan developed for a live client – typically a local non-profit organization. A significant amount of class time (at least half of class meetings) is allocated to project work. To accommodate this, students take the responsibility for content acquisition outside of class through assigned readings and on-line quizzes. To keep students engaged throughout the semester and to ensure that their individual study parallels the timing of the workshops, due dates for quizzes are scheduled throughout the semester. Certain topics, such as positioning and the product lifecycle, receive additional coverage during class. Other class periods are reserved for discussion of assorted marketing readings and other activities.

Teams of four or five students are formed at the beginning of the project. As much as possible, teams are diversified in terms of experience, gender, race, and country-of-origin (although the university has a significant international student population, domestic non-white students comprise less than 10% of the student population).

Team deliverables are a written marketing plan and a client pitch during which the team presents the plan to a judging group. Students earn a quality grade for the written marketing plan and earn participation points for the pitch. The judging group consists of the client and at least two other experienced professionals; the judges determine which team's pitch best meets both the client needs and the marketing goals. The individuals on the winning team are named on a permanent plaque located outside of departmental offices.

Past Processes and Results

In the past, a student's grade for the project was determined by the quality of the marketing plan, the meeting of various milestones, and team evaluations. The milestones, intended to keep students on track in writing the plan and to allow the instructor to provide feedback as students were developing and writing the plan, included an informal contract regarding team expectations of member; an environmental scanning analysis; an action plan; and a draft of the complete marketing plan. Additionally, the instructor provided feedback and support during class time as students were working on the project, and the instructor met formally with each team at each milestone.

Despite the significant amount of class time devoted to and feedback provided for projects, results disappointed. Papers were poorly written. Students focused on completing the milestones and the final paper by simply following templates from the course textbook. This resulted in teams proposing routine or trivial ideas; in proposing some intriguing ideas that were never fully thought through; or in striving to fit the client's problems into a pre-defined format or framework. Additionally, an inordinate amount of effort was devoted to describing the current situation rather than focusing on what to do in the future. During pitches, good ideas not fully developed were overshadowed by mediocre ideas that were easily communicated.

These poor outcomes could be traced to the teams' poor use of group time. Teams made little progress during the significant amounts of classroom time devoted to working on the project, often making arrangements to meet outside of class. This resulted in students waiting until the last minute to finalize ideas and complete the various milestones.

Teams also kept poor records, spending valuable time in trying to remember what they had accomplished during their last meetings, often repeating activities they had completed in previous sessions. It also discouraged individual member responsibility – actions were agreed upon but never formalized or tracked. This led to students frustrations with free-riders – team members who benefited from the other team members efforts without providing comparable effort to the team (O'Bannon & Pearce, 1999). While some students may have simply coasted on others work, free-riding may have occurred because one or two dominant members of the team made decisions without much input from the rest of the group. The appearance of free-riding may have occurred because of a recency effect, in which earlier work is discounted in favor of the most recent work – solid record-keeping may have prevented to this appearance of free-riding.

Altogether, results fell critically short of expectations, due to the inability of most student teams in structuring how to effectively use their time together. A recent meta-analysis of critical thinking instructional found evidence that explicitly teaching how to critically think in a discipline was more effective than when it is not (Abrami et al., 2008). Thus, a method was needed that would explicitly walk students through the marketing planning process; this method should 1) force teams to think through and discuss each step of the process; 2) focus teams on client activities rather than client situational description; 3) encourage better distribution of and appreciation of work; and 4) keep better and more accessible records. To achieve these goals, a problem-based learning approach was adopted, complete with scaffolding and combined with insight from the coaching literature. The next section discusses the theoretical underpinnings of problem-based learning, scaffolding, and coaching.

PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

Problem-based learning is an instructional approach designed to improve students' meta-cognition. The premise of problem-based learning is that students, faced with intriguing problems, will be driven by their natural curiosity to tap into cognitive processes – they will access prior knowledge, create a problem space, search for new information, and reconstruct existing and new information to both fit and shape new mental models (Evensen & Hmelo, 2000).

Three key benefits for students arise from a problem-based learning pedagogy. First, students learn the subject matter through increasingly self-directed study, building their knowledge of the subject matter while learning how to refresh existing knowledge and create new knowledge bases – they learn HOW to learn. Second, having applied the knowledge causes that knowledge to become part of long-term memory, not something memorized simply for an exam. Finally, students engaged in problem-based learning exercises become critical thinkers, exploring and discussing alternatives before deciding on the fittest solution to the problem.

Problem-based learning has five pedagogical goals: the development of flexible knowledge; the development of problem-solving skills; the development of self-directed learning (critical in life-long learning); the development of collaboration skills; the enhancement of the internal motivation of students. First, problem-based learning aims to help students develop flexible knowledge that is easily accessed and readily applied across contexts. It involves integrating knowledge from other domains (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

The second and third goals – the development of problem-solving skills and self-directed, lifelong learning – are related to metacognition. Metacognition, thinking about thinking or knowing about knowing (Metcalfe & Shimamura, 1994), can be defined as the mental models the brain holds of itself (1994). These mental models are adapted through the simultaneous processes of monitoring, the scanning of the environment, and control, acting on the environment (Nelson & Narens, 1994). Problem-solving involves applying appropriate metacognitive and reason strategies (Hmelo-Silver, 2004, p. 240), including understanding one's own knowledge base and the gaps in that base. This metacognitive skill is critical in life-long self-directed learning.

The fourth goal deals with collaboration, the ability to work in and with a team. Good collaboration skills involve establishing common ground, negotiating disagreements, and arriving at agreement on actions and conclusions. These

tasks require that all group members engage in the open exchange of ideas.

Finally, problem-based learning aims to enhance students' intrinsic motivation. This is accomplished by ensuring that the problem is suitably challenging and interesting to students with wide ranging abilities. Intrinsic motivation may also increase due to the sense of control in the outcome and the learning process students may possess.

Problem-based Learning Process

In problem-based learning students encounter ill-defined problems, problems that are complex, fraught with ambiguity, and ideally have multiple solutions (Stepien & Gallagher, 1993). In solving these problems for which students may have little experience, students and faculty have significantly different roles to play than they play in traditional classes.

The Instructor's Role

The role of the instructor in problem-based learning changes from conveying knowledge, typically through lecture, to facilitating students' acquisition of knowledge. This is done primarily through scaffolding and coaching.

Scaffolding is a pedagogical method in which an instructor provides graduated levels of assistance. This allows a novice to solve a problem or complete a task that he/she ordinarily wouldn't able to solve or complete (Puntambekar & Hubscher, 2005). Scaffolding is a dynamic process: the levels of support provided vary as the novice becomes more expert at the task (van Geert & Steenbeek, 2005).

One of the problems often faced in student projects is students moving through a task quickly just to complete the task without an attendant focus on quality (called pencil-whipping by some). With a scaffold, instructors can force students to engage in problem-solving using disciplinary frameworks and strategies. Scaffolding allows the instructor to model processes and behavior; highlight critical features of the task-at-hand; and guide how student think about the process (Puntambekar & Hubscher, 2005). Students then internalize the cognitive processes, a critical step in knowledge and professional development.

The sales management literature can provide insight into how coaching can affect performance. Personal selling is a field fraught with ambiguity and difficulties, and is one in which coaching by a sales manager can effect significant changes in the behavior of new and experienced sales people. By adapting a definition of sales coaching, coaching can be defined as the provision of on-going feedback and encouragement to someone with the goal of improving that person's performance (Rich, 1998). In addition to feedback, Rich (1998) identifies two more dimensions of coaching: role modeling and trust. Each is discussed next.

Feedback, the provision of information about one's behavior or performance, is rooted in operant learning theory, which holds that learning occurs through one's experience with consequences. Feedback has been has been linked to job satisfaction, role clarity, motivation, and job performance (Rich, 1998). Problem-based learning and scaffolding would allow feedback to be provided as ideas and actions are occurring, often taking place in real time.

Role modeling, setting an example through one's own behavior – walking the talk – is an important but often overlooked facet of coaching. As people are aspirational, they learn appropriate behaviors by observing and imitating others in a social context (Bandura, 1986). Eventually, the behaviors become habitual, requiring little thought. Consider an engineer responsible for managing 150 other engineers. Never having trained to become a manager, he observes and mimics the behaviors of those managers he admires; he hopes to internalize the behaviors and attitudes. Employing a problem-based learning approach would allow students to gain a glimpse of how to interact professionally with colleagues and subordinates.

The third dimension of coaching, trust, allows students to learn from the feedback and role modeling provided by the instructor. Trust is the students' evaluation of the instructor's competence and expertise in the subject area, and of the instructor's honesty, reliability, and concern for the student (as evidenced by the instructor's will-

ingness to listen). Without trust, feedback and role-modeling are ineffective (Rich, 1998).

While the sales management and other literatures specifically identify coaching as a one-to-one activity, Hackman and Wageman (2005) propose the concept of team coaching, which they define as "direct interaction with a team intended to help members make coordinated and task-appropriate use of their collective resources in accomplishing the team's work" (p. 269). They identify team coaching strategies that can be effective at different points during the team life cycle. In the beginning of the project, it is critical that the team becomes a team – that members get to know each other and that they define and redefine the task. This includes setting boundaries, developing identification with the group, formulating norms and determining group processes. At the midpoint of a project, when groups are anxious about what they have yet to accomplish and are therefore ready for a coaching intervention, the focus shifts to work strategies, ways of carrying out a task. Coaching is also effective at the end of the task or project when performance is still fresh and salient, and members are ready to capture and internalize the lessons learned. Without coaching, this reflective learning is unlikely to occur (Hackman & Wageman, 2005).

Student Role

In problem-based learning, the control of the learning process shifts to students. Solving these problems requires that students take more responsibility for building their own knowledge bases. They learn how to apply that knowledge, and, in the process, learn how to learn. This is driven by a small group structure. One of the benefits of the small group is that it can counteract the natural inclination of novices toward reductivism (the tendency to reduce complex problems to simplistic tasks) when faced with a complex, ambiguous problem (Kelson & Distlehorst, 2000). A group of individuals, bringing various talents and knowledge to the group, can "collectively enlighten each other regarding multiple perspectives, complex affordances, and reasonable versus reckless uncertainty" (Kelson & Distlehorst, 2000, p. 176).

Another benefit of the small group is that students are more willing to participate than they might in a larger group (Exley & Dennick, 2004). The small group allows for the development of both content and process skills (Exley & Dennick, 2004). For example, content is developed and refined as students activate and elaborate upon prior knowledge, which aids in the development of self-directed learning (Schmidt & Moust, 2000). Additionally, students develop interpersonal skills such as collaboration, negotiating, and interpersonal communication.

Despite these benefits of small group work and in spite of the prevalence of their use in marketing classes, students and faculty are often frustrated with the process of working in groups and with the outcomes of the group work. In the next section, an intervention designed to capitalize on the power of groups, improving the experiences of faculty, students, and clients by using problem-based learning, scaffolding and coaching is discussed.

INTERVENTION

Building on the problem-based learning, scaffolding, and coaching literatures, a series of directed workshops was developed. For many of the workshops students were required to complete pre-workshop exercises. For each workshop, a series of questions and tasks were listed on large tabloid sized paper. Student teams discussed the questions and completed the tasks, focusing on gathering and processing the information and ideas they would later need for the formal written report and presentation. When students became stuck on a question or task, the instructor provided guidance and feedback to help the team work through a bottleneck. At certain key points during the workshops, the instructor would gather the team together and provide mini-lectures about critical elements of the plan (positioning, for example).

Each team kept its worksheets and other materials in binders held by the instructor, ensuring that students always had access to previous work. Milestones changed from the submission of applicable portions of the writing plans to completion of the workshops and directed questioning. This process was intended to shift the focus away

from the completion of the communication of the plan and toward the creation of the marketing plan. With the exception of the teaming workshop, the questions and tasks for each workshop roughly corresponded to the various portions of a marketing plan. A summary of the workshops and the scaffolding techniques used may be found in Table 1; two critical workshops that can be used in many different contexts are discussed more fully.

Teaming

One of the critical elements of the project is the team aspect. Much has been made of developing leadership in business schools, yet little attention has been paid to developing collaborative skills. However, collaboration is increasingly important in the business world. For example, collaboration between competitors is on the rise (Gnyawali, He, & Madhavan, 2006), as is open-sourcing in product development (Hauser, Tellis, & Griffin, 2006). Additionally, the use of self-managed teams is increasing (de Jong, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2006), as is the use of sales teams with key accounts (Moon & Gupta, 1997). Building on work team theory and coaching, this workshop is designed to help students quickly develop strong functional teams.

Work Teams

Teaming has been extensively studied in business and non-business contexts. The focus here is on the research conducted in the field of management. Hackman and Wageman (2005) delineate work teams from other types of groups, such as therapy or social groups, through three distinctions. First, work teams are intact social systems, meaning that members are dependent upon one another; that members develop specialized roles over time; and that team members can easily be distinguished from non-members. Second, work teams have tasks to perform for which the team has collective responsibility (and often collective rewards). Finally, work teams operate within a larger social system, just as a college football team operates within a school, a conference, and so on.

Table 1
Workshops and the Scaffold Technique Used

Workshop Topic	Scaffold Technique(s)	Scaffold Topics
Teaming	Pre-Workshop Questionnaire	Individual priorities & schedules
		Teaming expectations
	Group Worksheets & Contract	Compilation of individual questionnaires
		Team name, mission, & standards
Positioning	Group Worksheets	Client's mission, vision & goals
		Project goals
		Client's target market(s), competitors, & partners
		Positioning statement for client
Environmental Analysis	Questionnaire	Client operations: customers, competitors, resources, marketing efforts
	Group Worksheets	Internal & external factors affecting organization
		Possible market segments
		Competitors & possible channel partners
Goals, Strategies & Tactics	Group Worksheets	Detailed description of target market
		Goals, strategies, and tactics
		Tactical plans
Storyboarding	Questionnaire	Tying it all together: a structured questionnaire summarizing pertinent elements of the plan
	Group Worksheets	Storyboard of 9 slides

The work team social system can be internal, such as the parent division or organization, or it can be external system comprised of competitors, customers, or other stakeholders.

The challenge in this course and in work settings is to aid in the development of effective work teams. Effective work teams are those in which: the output of the team meets or exceeds the expectations of the customer (or whoever consumes the work of the team); the team's capabilities improve as the work is completed (the team is better at the end than at the beginning); and individual team members gain skills and/or knowledge, and are improved from working with the team (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). While the importance of each of these three elements may vary in importance, an effective team balances them over time, never fully neglecting any of the dimensions. Effectiveness is driven by the level of effort the team puts forth in completing the task; the appropriateness of the strategy the group uses in completing its task; and the level of knowledge and skills members exert on the task (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). Coaching interventions can aid in improving team effectiveness at various points during the life of the team (see Table 2); at the inception of the team, coaching can improve the effort put forth by the team by facilitating team formation (Hackman & Wageman, 2005).

Teaming workshop

Before this workshop students completed a questionnaire regarding their individual semester priorities and schedules, their expectations regarding how the team will work together; the possible benefits of working with the team and on the project; their thoughts about the mission of the team; and possible solutions to challenges the team might encounter (Leuser, 1992).

The workshop began with an ice-breaking exercise. Then, using the individual questionnaires students completed, each team completed worksheets that summarized the priorities and schedules of each member. Teams also developed team expectations, concerns and ways to address the concerns, team processes and roles. They identified personal benefits of working on the project and of working with the particular team. Finally, they determined their team name and mission statement. Their deliverable to the instructor was a one-page "contract" identifying team name, team mission, and team standards signed by each team member. The purpose of this contract was two-fold. First, the individuals in the team began to identify with the team through the discussion and the choice of team name. Second, the team began to achieve cohesiveness as each member agreed to performance standards and the team goal.

Storyboarding the presentation and writing the plan

The purpose of the storyboarding workshop is to demystify the writing process. It is easy for students to get lost in gathering data and background information and in the process of writing the report. In this workshop, teams completed

Table 2
Workshops and Coaching at Various Stages in the Team Lifecycle

Team Lifecycle Stage	Workshop	Coaching Focus
Beginning	Teaming	Team building Group identity Team cohesion
Middle	Foundation Environmental Analysis Goals, Strategies and Tactics	Links between theory and practice Brainstorming Work strategies
End	Storyboarding	Writing and presenting process Reflection on lessons learned

questionnaires on their own time that allowed them to distill their earlier work. The completed questionnaire acted as a repository for the information necessary for writing the formal report and preparing the client pitch.

In class, students focused on creating a visual outline of the marketing plan that would frame the written plan and the presentation. They received a worksheet with nine "slides", and were to develop only headlines and brief content descriptions. Once they had completed this outline as a team, they began to write the formal marketing plan. They submitted a draft of the plan and received feedback.

RESULTS

The scaffold technique described here consists of a series of workshops in which student teams addressed guided questions printed on tabloid-sized paper. The technique changed process and outcomes for both the instructor and the students.

Instructor Results

The workshop style called for a shift toward a coaching teaching style. Rather than lecture, the workshop format allowed the instructor to wander around, providing immediate support and feedback to teams as they were working. This allowed the instructor to take advantage of teaching moments, pointing out linkages between theory and practice as students were making those linkages. The instructor could also immediately address issues and concerns about the project as they arose. For example, with on project, some teams experienced difficulties when communicating with the client (a common occurrence in the workplace), and discussions occurred regarding how students might handle this situation now and in the future.

For the instructor, the class became much more satisfying. Students were engaged in the project much more deeply, listened more to team coaching than to lectures, asked questions that reflected deeper learning, and internalized the language and processes of marketing more thoroughly. During the few lectures delivered during the semester, students were more engaged, looking for ways for the information to inform their projects.

Student Results

Student behaviors also changed. The workshops sparked discussion, debate, and brainstorming among students. The use of tabloid paper encouraged more participation as the larger paper rests in front of the entire group, unlike letter-sized paper which rests before only one student and is therefore "owned" by that student. The project was therefore more of a team project, rather than one in which one or two students carried the brunt of the workload.

Students engaged in more contact with the client. The client visited at the midpoint of the project, brainstorming with teams and providing feedback. Students were more knowledgeable about the client's operation and asked more pointed and pertinent questions than they had in the past. The format also encouraged some teams to work with the client outside of class.

Students explicitly integrated learning from other class – for example, one team used a member's experience in a digital media marketing course to develop two public service announcements that the client used in radio and TV spots. Another team, working closely with the client, developed, administered, and evaluated marketing research regarding what type of benefits and incentives the target market was interested in.

Students believed and invested in their ideas. One team provided professional samples of their recommendations – plaques and buttons to be used as donor incentives and large mock-ups of the promotional activities using the theater marquee and poster areas. Another team, suggesting the sale of a pictorial history of the theater, wrote, printed and bound a sample history after sourcing old photographs of the theater from the University's archives. Another team immediately began generating publicity for the client (and the university), bringing a photographer and a reporter for the local newspaper to class during a workshop with the client.

Students became less tolerant of free-loading. Team member evaluations, plagued in the past a reluctance to embarrass a colleague, became more

pointed as students became more invested in the project, providing better feedback to students. Work was also distributed more evenly, and earlier work was valued as much as later work.

Plans improved. They were tighter, focused on client actions rather than environmental analysis. They were more organized and better written than previous semesters. The client repeatedly indicated her intention to implement many of the recommendations and programs developed by the students. Additionally, a number of non- and for-profit community organizations have enquired about participating in future semesters.

DISCUSSION

Live cases provide a rare opportunity for students to gain valuable experience in creating and implementing marketing plans. The intervention described here required dramatic changes for both instructor and students.

The instructional shift in moving from a traditional lecture-based pedagogy with right answers to one which stresses hypotheses generation, prediction, data collection, and analysis is a difficult transition to make as instructors give up significant control over classroom activities and outcomes. Although the benefits as described here are many, the transition can make an instructor uncomfortable on multiple levels. First, as complex learning activities are associated with lower completion and higher error rates and as program, college, and university assessment has focused on the acquisition of content knowledge, shifting to a less-controllable pedagogy may carry significant risk. Second, the ambiguity inherent for students is also present for faculty; neither the instructor nor the students can predict the specific outcomes. Third, working with a live client places the instructor's ability in public view, as the client will judge the instructor's ability by the output of the class.

While the primary goal of the method implemented here was to improve students' ability to apply marketing concepts and theories, a key component of critical thinking and meta-cognition, the process also aided student in transitioning from student to professional. In addition to facilitating the internalization of the language of marketing and marketing planning, this involved providing students with a glimpse into a workplace significantly different from the academic milieu in which they lived for at least 14 years (K-12, plus college). The academic world is one in which students are always novices and one in which their work has little effect on anything other than their grades. Transitioning to a role in which their efforts have real consequences not only to themselves but to their companies, their co-workers, and their customers can be disconcerting. The workshops provided the instructor with an opportunity to work with students as their future employers might – helping them through rough patches, brainstorming ideas, playing devil's advocate.

The workshop approach to a problem-based learning project described here provided students with more than content knowledge. Students learned the process of developing a marketing plan and they learned techniques for working with a team. Additionally, as students transition from their college lives to their work lives, they will likely be in a supervisory position at some point, responsible for coaching employees to meet performance targets. Providing effective examples of coaching can help them make the transition from novice to expert-coach more effectively.

CONCLUSION

Students in problem-based curricula have an advantage over students who experience more traditional instructional approaches – particularly when it comes to applying knowledge (Hmelo-Silver, Duncan, & Chinn, 2007). Additionally, students in problem-based learning curricula experience improved metacognition – reasoning, problem-solving, and self-learning (Hmelo-Silver, et al., 2007). However, using client-based projects in marketing courses without providing guidance and structure, as is typical when these projects are used as outside assignments to supplement course lectures, can lead to results that fall short of expectations. Critical to the effective implementation of a problem-based learning strategy is a structured environment "that affords choice, hands-on and minds-on experiences, and rich student collaborations" (Hmelo-Silver, et al., 2007, p. 104). The workshop format described in this report uses scaffolding and coaching to provide the necessary guidance as students begin to

apply knowledge toward solving the problems of a live client. As a result, students learn marketing theory while gaining skills in applying that marketing theory.

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Student Rudeness & Technology: Going Beyond the Business Classroom

Barbara A. Schuldt, Ph.D., CCP
Professor of Marketing & Supply Chain Management
Southeastern Louisiana University
College of Business
Hammond, Louisiana

Jeff W. Totten, D.B.A., PCM
Assistant Professor of Marketing
McNeese State University
College of Business
Lake Charles, Louisiana

C. Mitchell Adrian, D.B.A.
Dean, College of Business
McNeese State University
College of Business
Lake Charles, Louisiana

Susie S. Cox, D.B.A.
Assistant Professor of Management
McNeese State University
College of Business
Lake Charles, Louisiana

ABSTRACT

This exploratory study examines how society is adapting to an invasion of personal technology. Specifically, the paper reports a pretest study about incivility and the use of personal technology. Findings from this study are useful in providing initial views on demographic differences concerning perceptions about incivility and rudeness in the workplace, religious settings and classroom settings.

INTRODUCTION

Have you been in a work, school or social setting only to have the person you are having a face-to-face conversation with stop abruptly and take a call, or read or write a text message, or even make a call? Current technology is being embedded into every aspect of our lives. Current traditional college age students have not known a life without a computer and now they have personal electronic devices with unfathomable capabilities when the first cell phone call was made in 1973 (Green 2011). Is society becoming ruder by the adoption of new technologies?

"Common civility is becoming a lost art. . . . . The new norm has been to expect some level of rudeness and disrespect in just about every facet of our lives" (Weeks 2011, p. 3). Personal technology offers many benefits to society but also is a factor affecting the lack of civility (Rashid 2005). We enjoy being able to chat with our closest friends even though they may live 1500 miles away. Movie buffs can download their favorites in a matter of minutes and enjoy the latest movie in the comfort of their own home. Technology helps individuals connect with others at a moment's notice whether it is by texting, Skype,

or email. However, the growing use of personal technology may have other implications as well. The convenience of this technology is changing how individuals communicate and the boundaries of such communication. Personal technology appears to be testing etiquette rules about not interrupting conversations. "Professors complain that students disrupt class by carrying on running conversations, texting, [and so forth]" (Weeks 2011, p. 44.). In this study, we examine how personal technology has changed society's perceptions of rudeness and redefined acceptable behavior. Specifically, we focus on the incivility in the classroom, religious settings, and workplace and use of personal technology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Incivility in the classroom, both on the part of students and on the part of faculty members, appears to have increased over the last fifteen to twenty years or so, depending on whom you read or what you hear in the media. Incivility has been defined in many ways by different researchers over the years. It generally includes rudeness, violation of behavioral norms, disregard for others, and lack of respect of others (see, e.g., Boice 1996; Carter 1998; Elder, Seaton and Swinney 2010; Porath and Pearson 2004). Reasons given for the growing incivility of our students include their involvement with technology (mobile phones, online chat rooms, social networking, etc.) that renders them less social in face-to-face encounters (e.g., see Hernandez and Fister 2001) and a greater sense of entitlement, narcissism and/or customer orientation (e.g., see Chonko 2004; Crary 2007; Delucchi and Korgen 2002; Greenberger, et al. 2008).

Academic research on incivility has grown over the last decade as educators investigate both student and faculty incivility and offer strategies for dealing with bad behavior. One of the major studies was undertaken by the Center for Survey Research at Indiana University in 2000. Faculty were "asked about the extent and types of incivility respondents have experienced at IUB, their responses to incivility, and perceptions about who engages in incivility" (Indiana University Center for Survey Research 2000, p. 1). Numerous subsequent research studies have involved the use of the survey developed by Indiana, including psychology (e.g., see Lampman, et al. 2009; Nordstrom, Bartels and Bucy 2009) and education (e.g., see Caboni, Hirschy and Best 2004; Hirschy and Braxton 2004; McKinne 2008).

Clark and her colleagues have done extensive work on incivility in the nursing field (e.g., Clark and Springer 2007a; Clark and Springer 2007b). Clark developed her Incivility in Nursing Education survey (INE) based in part on the Indiana instrument. Other researchers in nursing have used INE (e.g., Beck 2009).

Bjorklund and Rehling (2010) surveyed over 3,600 students at their Minnesota state university using a list of 23 behaviors derived in part from the Indiana questionnaire and identified the top four most uncivil student behaviors: continuing to talk after being asked to stop, coming to class under the influence of alcohol or drugs, allowing a cell phone to ring, and conversing loudly with others (Table 1, p. 16). A simple study of cell phone rudeness was conducted across two Arkansas universities by Jensen, et al. (2009). Over 85% of those participating thought it was rude to use a cell phone in a library or a movie theater, while less than 50% thought it was rude to use a cell phone in the restroom or in a restaurant (Table 1, p. 15). Baker, Comer and Martinak (2008) suggest that "objectionable behavior is a side effect of the changing view of education, ..., as a good for sale" and that Millenials' parents send mixed messages to them (encouraging them to succeed while praising poor performance) (pp. 70-71). In addition as noted during a panel discussion named "Uncivil Gadgets? Changing Technologies and Civil Behavior," students are thinking of themselves as the consumer in the classroom rather than a learner and, with that mind set, maintaining classroom civility will be more challenging (Flood 2010).

Only one study specifically limited to the business discipline was found in a search of the literature. Elder, Seaton and Swinney (2010) surveyed accounting faculty across the U.S.A. using Indiana's instrument. Evidence of incivility was significantly higher in larger accounting classes than in smaller classes. Irresponsible student behaviors (e.g., arriving late for class, not taking notes, skipping classes, and not being prepared) were significantly higher in accounting classes at larger institutions (> 10,000 students) and in

accounting classes at schools in larger cities (> 100,000 population) (p. 97).

Furthermore, is technology the instigator of rude behaviors or has technology changed or is changing societal norms on civility? Peter Post, great-grandson of Emily Post and director of the Emily Post Institute, says, "Technology has allowed us to be busier today than we ever were and that's created a disconnect between people" (Anderson, 2006). Personal technology has allowed us to have distance, anonymity, and a lack of self censoring due to not having face to face communications. Technology allows us to multitask, to do more in less, to be available 24/7 and businesses have embraced this in today's troubled economic times (Dexter, 2010). According to an ABCNews poll, "survey respondents singled out a few reasons for apparent increasing rudeness—particularly the impact of new technology" (Libaw 2011).

Based on the review of the literature further examination of the phenomenon is needed. Therefore we offer the following hypotheses on demographic descriptors and perceptions about personal technology usage and incivility.

- H1: The perception of incivility has increased based on age and income level
- H2: The perception of incivility has not changed based on gender, ethnicity, or religion
- H3: Greater impact perceived from younger and higher income level users
- H4: Less or no impact perceived based on gender, ethnicity, or religion

METHODOLOGY

Permissions to develop a survey based on 1) the Indiana faculty survey instrument (Indiana University Center for Survey Research 2000) and 2) the student survey developed by McKinne (2008) were secured by e-mail from Drs. John Kennedy and Michael McKinne on February 7th and 9th, respectively, of this year. The authors developed and modified the survey on paper and one author then created the web survey version using *Google Apps*™ at her university. Institutional Review Board (IRB) proposals were prepared and submitted to the appropriate committee at each university. The original intent of the authors was to gain access to all College of Business students' e-mail addresses and draw random samples of 300 from each school. E-mails would then be sent with the appropriate Human Subjects/IRB statements to each student, along with the URL link to the web survey.

After clicking a participation agreement (or disagreement) box that was required, students were then given a definition for personal technology and asked a series of questions regarding how often they had observed or experienced certain rude (uncivil) questions. Then they encountered a section on perceptions in which rudeness was defined, followed by a series of questions regarding certain technology usage as being rude or not. Questions in this section addressed not only rude behavior in the classroom or during group activities, but also in other settings (work, religious services). In the next section, students were asked about rudeness trends, policies governing rude behavior, effectiveness of those policies, and role of the leader versus participant in terms of rude behavior. The last section involved demographic questions, including age range, gender, ethnicity, religious preference, income, education status (full or part-time), and employment status.

IRB approval at one university was granted in mid-to-late March, but was delayed at the other university. Two authors proceeded to acquire an Excel file list of College of Business (COB) students' e-mail addresses from the Internship Director, who also maintains the college's listserv to send out notices (internship opportunities, student club meetings, etc.). One author then went through the list and deleted all non-university e-mail addresses of the students, leaving just the university addresses. This resulted in a population size of 761 COB students at the one school. A random sequence generator was located online (www.random.org) and used instead of the website's random number generator to avoid duplication of random numbers by the website. The first 300 numbers were used to pick addresses from the Excel file. The IRB-appropriate e-mail message content from the IRB proposal was copied and pasted into e-mail messages that were then sent to the students. The author used both single and blind carbon copy (BCC) methods to send out the 300 messages from March 30th through April 6th. When using the BCC method, the

author sent the message to himself and included less than 10 student e-mail addresses, so as not to "irritate" the university's spam filters. Two of the addresses were bad, so the next two numbers in the sequence were used and the matching addresses substituted for the bad ones.

Given the delay in IRB approval at one of the two schools, the approaching end of the semester (and the late spring break), and the low response rate of 39 students, it was decided by the authors to treat this sample as a pretest. The methodology will be reevaluated to see how a larger sample could be collected at the one school, plus implement the sample at the other school, over the summer and/or fall semester.

RESULTS

Profile of Respondents

A total of 39 students responded to the e-mail request for participation in the study between March 30th and April 19th. The authors decided to use this data set as a pretest of the questionnaire, and collect a larger sample over the summer or fall semester. A summary of the demographic profile is provided in Table 1.

Briefly, the typical respondent was a Caucasian female of traditional college age, earning $15,000 or less working part-time in banking, accounting and/or other fields. The respondent was Catholic in religious preference and tended to be going full-time to college. Cross-tabulations and chi-square analyses were conducted amongst the demographic variables using SPSS version 18. No significant differences were found by gender and most of the other tests had significant cell size problems. The few significant differences reported in the next paragraph also suffered from cell size problems greater than 65%.

Younger respondents (17 to 29 years old) tended to be enrolled in college full-time whereas the older group (30 to 49) tended to be enrolled on a part-time basis (χ^2 = 10.035, df = 4, p = .04). Catholics and Fundamentalists tended to be employed on a part-time basis, while Protestants tended to be employed on a full-time basis (χ^2 = 20.201, df = 10, p = .027). Those enrolled full-time in classes either worked part-time or were not currently employed, while those who worked full-time either took classes part-time or were not enrolled in college at all (χ^2 = 14.666, df = 4, p = .005).

Overview of Observed Behaviors & Perceptions

The online survey contained three sections of questions in addition to the demographic questions at the end. Students were first asked a series of questions regarding how often they had observed or experienced certain rude (uncivil) behaviors. Response options ranged from "none" to "four or more times." Modal responses are provided in Table 2. The most frequently observed

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

Characteristic	Modal Response	Frequency	Percentage	n
Age	17 to 23	19	48.7%	39
Gender	Female	22	57.9%	38
Ethnicity	Caucasian	32	84.2%	38
Religious preference	Catholic	14	37.8%	37
Income	$0 to $15K	14	36.8%	38
Enrolled in higher ed courses	Yes, full-time	30	76.9%	39
Currently employed	Yes, part-time	17	43.6%	39
If yes, in what industry?	Other	09	28.1%	32
	Finance	08	25.0%	

Table 2
Observed Behaviors

Behavior	Modal Response	Freq.	%	n
Technology disruptions during group activity	4 or more	22	56.4%	39
Using personal technology to cheat	None/zero	22	56.4%	39
Harassing comments using technology	None/zero	25	65.8%	38
Not paying attention due to technology use	4 or more	28	73.7%	38
Not taking notes due to technology use	4 or more	21	53.8%	39
Using technology that distracted others	4 or more	18	46.2%	39
Using technology that distracted you	4 or more	13	34.2%	38
Group members skipping activity due to tech access to materials	1 time	11	28.2%	39
Students leaving early to use technology	4 or more	12	30.8%	39
Using technology to taunt/belittle others	None/zero	25	64.1%	39
Using technology to threaten physical harm	None/zero	33	84.6%	39
Using technology during activity for non-related purpose	4 or more	22	56.4%	39

behaviors were interruptions to group activities (devices going off or being used, distracting members, members leaving early to use devices). Least observed behaviors involved using personal technology to taunt, harass, cheat or threaten physical harm. A definition of personal technology as given in the survey is any electronic device used by an individual, for example; cell phones, IPods (or equivalent devices), IPads (or equivalent devices), notebooks, etc.

In the next section, students were asked about their perceptions regarding certain technology usage as being rude or not, after reading a definition of rudeness (defined as any behavior that negatively impacts a group activity, for example; talking on personal technology when others are talking, interrupting the group when personal technology makes unexpected noises, etc.). Students were offered a four-point Likert-type scale (no neutral point but an opt-out choice, "Unsure") to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each statement. Descriptive statistics are provided (after removing "Unsure" responses) for these statements in Table 3.

As indicated in Table 3, students generally considered most behaviors to be rude (median response was 3, for "agree"), with the exception of using personal technology at school and at work. The four rudest behaviors, based on means and medians, are using technology to threaten harm, to make harassing comments, to belittle others and during religious services.

The last section of questions dealt with rudeness trends, policies governing rude behavior, effectiveness of those policies, and role of the leader versus participant in terms of rude behavior. Twenty-three respondents (59%) believe that rudeness is on the rise, compared to previous years, while 14 (35.9%) felt it was about the same. Three-quarters of those responding (30/39) indicated that their organizations have policies about rude behaviors during group activities, but only 14 out of 33 indicated that the policies were only somewhat effective (median = 3, mean = 2.52). Twenty-four respondents (61.5%) believed that the group leader's behavior "possibly" contributed to rudeness on the part of the group, while a third (13/39) said "yes." Over half (21/39, 53.8%) said that both the leader's and group participants' actions equally had an impact on the group's rudeness behavior.

Significant Differences by Demographics

Given the dominance of one or two characteristics over others for income, higher education

Table 3
Perceptions of Rude Behaviors

Statement*	Mean	Median	S.D.	n
Technology disruptions during group activity constitutes rudeness	3.03	3	0.941	36
Using personal technology to cheat constitutes rudeness	3.39	4	0.974	38
Harassing comments using technology constitutes rudeness	3.54	4	0.886	35
Not paying attention due to technology use constitutes rudeness	3.11	3	0.863	38
Not taking notes due to technology use constitutes rudeness	2.80	3	0.868	35
Using technology that distracted others constitutes rudeness	3.30	3	0.845	37
Using technology that distracted you constitutes rudeness	3.14	3	0.833	36
Group members skipping activity due to tech access to materials constitutes rudeness	2.85	3	1.034	33
Students leaving early to use technology constitutes rudeness	3.06	3	0.873	35
Using technology to taunt/belittle others constitutes rudeness	3.51	4	0.837	37
Using technology to threaten physical harm constitutes rudeness	3.61	4	0.803	36
Using technology during activity for non-related purpose constitutes rudeness	3.00	3	0.805	38
It is rude to use personal technology at work.	2.46	2	0.960	37
It is rude to use technology during religious services.	3.46	4	0.756	39
It is rude to use technology at school.	2.39	2	0.887	38

* 4-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 4 = strongly agree.

enrollment, ethnicity, and religious preference, further analyses were limited to age, gender and employment. Turning to observed behaviors and general questions about rudeness, no significant differences were identified by age or by gender. Three significant differences were identified by employment; however, they suffer from severe cell size problems (> 75%). Those employed full-time did not observe any cheating behavior using personal technology, while those either not currently employed or working part-time did observe some cheating ($\chi^2 = 15.802$, df = 8, p = .045). Those respondents who are not currently employed tended to notice some use of technology to threaten others with physical harm ($\chi 2 = 13.214$, df = 6, p = .04), and thought that participants' actions had the greater impact on group rudeness ($\chi 2 = 15.862$, df = 6, p = .015).

The 15 perception of rudeness statements and the effectiveness of policy question were analyzed using nonparametric tests (Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis) and double-checked with t-tests and ANOVA. No significant differences were identified by age or by employment. Three significant differences were identified by gender. Women respondents tended to agree with the statement that "Not taking notes due to technology use constitutes rudeness" (Means: 3.11 vs. 2.5, Mann-Whitney p = .045, t = -2.156, df = 32, p = .039). [Note: for some reason with version 18 of SPSS, only the significance value and null hypothesis decision are provided in the table. Traditional statistics are not provided.] Women participants also agreed with two other statements: "Group members skipping activity due to tech access to materials constitutes rudeness" (3.22 vs. 2.36, MW p = .011, t = -2.498, df = 30,

p = .Ø18) and "Students leaving early to use technology constitutes rudeness" (3.37 vs. 2.67, MW p = .Ø29, t = -2.464, df = 32, p = .Ø19).

DISCUSSION

Limitations

Given the low response rate, we were not able to test the proposed hypotheses. There were also item omissions on certain questions, which created problems with crosstabulations and other tests. The IRB approval delay at one of the schools limited data collection to just one of the schools. The questionnaire's length may also have deterred students from participating in our study. In addition the timing of the study may also have played a role, as students may have been more preoccupied with approaching end-of-semester projects and papers.

Conclusions

Since this was a pretest, we will summarize our general observations drawn from the findings. In general students reported observing or encountering many rude behaviors, consider rudeness to be on the rise, and generally agreed that many behaviors were, indeed, rude (with the exception of using personal technology at school and at work). It is possible that social desirability bias may be present, in that respondents provided what they assumed would be "appropriate" responses to our survey (Duh! They are asking about rudeness so I will say the behaviors are rude.). Whether this can be tested for in a larger study is something to consider. Some differences by gender were identified for perceptions of rudeness. These trends and general observations need to be assessed through a larger survey of students.

Students generally considered most behaviors as rude with the exception of "using personal technology at school and at work." What they considered the four most rude behaviors were "using technology to threaten harm," "to make harassing comments," "to belittle others" and "during religious services."

The majority of students surveyed believe that rude behavior is increasing and three-quarters of those responding acknowledged that their organizations have policies about rude behaviors during group activities. However, most of the students surveyed did not consider policies governing rude behavior as effective while supporting the idea that the behavior of the group leader could contribute to rudeness on the part of the group.

Minor gender variations in perception of rudeness were discovered with females indicating less acceptance of rude behavior.

Recommendations for Future Study

Continued research should include variations across generational groups, socio-economic groups and correlations with measures of respect. For example, variance of perceptions of incivility between faculty and students may show that different generations (divided by considerable differences in age) may have varying perceptions of what is considered rude behavior. Likewise, students from different socio-economic strata may have varying perceptions of what is considered rude or unacceptable behavior. Finally, a student's perception of respect for an individual faculty member may also affect the student's perceptions of what is or is not rude or acceptable behavior in the presence of that particular faculty member.

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Empirical Investigation of Select Personality, Attitudinal, and Experience-Based Antecedents of Cultural Intelligence in Undergraduate Business Students

Lada V. Kurpis
Associate Professor of Marketing
School of Business Administration
Gonzaga University
Spokane, Washington

ABSTRACT

Fostering cultural intelligence development in undergraduate business students should be one of the goals of diversity education in undergraduate business programs due to the demands of the increasingly global workplace of today. A number of personality-based (e.g., self-monitoring personality trait), attitudinal (e.g., preference for jobs involving a lot of intercultural interaction), or experience-based (e.g., the experience of studying/living abroad) individual characteristics have been hypothesized to be potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. This study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing a few new potential antecedents and performing an empirical investigation of these and a few previously proposed but not yet empirically tested antecedents of cultural intelligence. Consistently with the hypotheses of the study, self-monitoring personality trait, belief in importance of global-content business courses for future careers, prior experience of living/studying abroad, and preference for jobs involving intercultural interaction were positively related to cultural intelligence. Most of the hypothesized relationships between the antecedents and the specific components of cultural intelligence were supported by the data. Contrary to the expectations, however, preference for consistency personality trait was not related to cultural intelligence and its components. The implications of the study findings for developing students' cultural intelligence are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The globalized business world of today experiences a growing need for the professionals who are capable of collaborating and managing across cultures. As the managers are searching for the ways to recognize and develop such talent, they are increasingly relying on the insights delivered by the cultural intelligence research. Despite its fairly brief history (the conceptual model of cultural intelligence has been introduced by Earley and Ang as recently as in 2003), it has been rapidly gaining recognition among researchers and business practitioners alike.

Cultural intelligence is defined as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Earley and Ang, 2003). The utility of the cultural intelligence research for business community lies primarily in its capability to help in selecting the most promising candidates for the jobs requiring frequent intercultural contacts and in improving employees' ability to deal with intercultural situations through training. Cultural IQ can be measured and, what is more important, can be improved in properly motivated and professionally competent adults (Earley and Mosakowski, 2004).

Since the potential employers are more and more interested in hiring business school graduates possessing the capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings, business educators are called upon to prepare students for

careers in a globalized business world (Misra and McMahon, 2006).

This research explores the use of the 20-item version of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008) for measuring the level of cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students. This study also tests the relationship between cultural intelligence and a few individual (e.g., experience of living or studying abroad, self-monitoring personality trait) characteristics of American undergraduate business students. This paper contributes to the cultural intelligence research by establishing the relationship between some of the previously untested individual characteristics and cultural intelligence. The practical implications of these findings for facilitating cultural intelligence growth are discussed.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Cultural intelligence is an individual capability to grasp, reason, and function effectively in culturally diverse settings (Earley and Ang, 2003). This definition is consistent with the conceptualization of intelligence as a multidimensional capability (Sternberg and Detterman, 1986) which allows for individual's differing levels of ability in specific domains, such as social intelligence (Thorndike and Stein, 1937), emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1993), and practical intelligence (Sternberg et al., 2000).

According to the Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualization, cultural intelligence is comprrised of four dimensions: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral. Metacognitive component of cultural intelligence "refers to an individual's level of conscious cultural awareness during cross-cultural interactions" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5). The metacognitive ("thinking about thinking") aspect of CQ reflects one's mental processes and strategies for acquiring cultural knowledge and for dealing with the accumulated cultural information. Metacognitive component allows individuals to reflect upon their interactions with other cultures and continuously adjust their cultural knowledge. Metacognitive CQ is crucially important because it is metacognition that allows an individual to recognize cultural patterns in the multitude of relevant cross-cultural experiences. Cognitive component reflects "knowledge of the norms, practices, and conventions in different cultures that has been acquired from educational and personal experiences " (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5). Motivational component "reflects the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterized by cultural differences" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 6). This component is important because cultural knowledge is not sufficient for successful adaptation to a new culture: an individual should be adequately motivated to apply this knowledge and accept the risk of committing cultural gaffes in the process of learning. Erez and Earley (1993) found that cross-cultural self-efficacy (the belief in one's ability to understand people from other cultures) plays an important role in enhancing motivational CQ for two reasons. First, greater self-efficacy enables people to set more ambitious cultural interaction goals, and second, it helps to sustain a high level of motivation for cultural adaptation in the face of possible setbacks and disappointments. Behavioral component reflects "the capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures" (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008, p. 6). An individual with high behavioral intelligence has a wide range of behaviors and the ability to correctly judge the appropriateness of such behaviors in intercultural situations (Earley, Ang, Tan, 2006).

Several versions of a scale measuring cultural intelligence and its four components have been developed to date (e.g., Earley, Ang, Tan, 2006; Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008). This present study utilizes the 20-item self-report version of the cultural intelligence scale which has been successfully validated across cultures and shown to possess discriminant and predictive validity (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008). The cultural intelligence scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh 2008) is not the only cultural competency scale available (e.g., Paige's (2004) review identified 10 such scales), but it is the only one based on the comprehensive theoretical foundation of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence developed by Earley and Ang (2003).

As it was mentioned earlier, the potential practical applications of cultural intelligence theory

are numerous. For instance, a notable stream of research hypothesizes a cause-and-effect relationship between cultural intelligence and expatriate success (e.g., Kim, Kirkman, and Chen, 2008; Shaffer and Miller, 2008). Expatriate managers' early returns and failure to perform in overseas assignments are extremely costly to their employers (e.g., Tung, 1987). Undoubtedly, research focused on predicting potential expatriates' success based on their cultural intelligence will have practical implications.

However, it might be impractical to limit the pool of potential expatriate managers only to those candidates who can possess high levels of cultural intelligence. These job candidates might have high ability to manage in intercultural settings but happen to lack other kinds of professional skills or experience. The companies willing to invest in developing cultural intelligence in their employees might be interested in identifying the set of personality traits, attitudes, and experiences that are positively associated with cultural intelligence. Although personality characteristics are not malleable by definition, attitudes and experiences are the kind of antecedents of cultural intelligence that can be subject to cultural training interventions. This study focuses on empirical testing of a few potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. There is a wide range of personality (trait-like characteristics) and individual (e.g., experience- or attitude-based) characteristic that might be predictive of cultural intelligence (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008). Because of the relative newness of the cultural intelligence research, a large portion of the antecedents proposed in the literature have not yet been empirically tested. This study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing a few new potential antecedents and performing an empirical investigation of these and a few previously proposed but not yet empirically tested antecedents of cultural intelligence.

Self-Monitoring

Much of cultural intelligence development in an individual occurs through introspection (e.g. through observing one's way of thinking about cultural thinking - metacognition), observation of one's own reactions to cross-cultural situations (e.g., self-monitoring of one's emotions), or observation of other people's actions (e.g., learning the appropriate social interaction norms in a new culture). This gives a reason to propose that the personality trait of self-monitoring, defined by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) as the ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others increases an individual's chances to observe and understand cultures and to apply appropriate behaviors in intercultural settings. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) self-monitoring scale consists of two sub-scales: (1) the ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) and (2) sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others (SENSOTHERS).

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) proposed but have not tested self-monitoring personality trait as an antecedent of CQ. Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) point out that people with high CQ are "very good at observing others and mimicking their actions (p. 34)." A circumstantial empirical support to this proposition comes from the work of Kealey (1989) who found that self-monitoring was positively related to an expatriate's job performance. While testing for the relationship between self monitoring personality trait and the behavioral CQ, Kurpis (2009) found that the ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) sub-scale was significant but the sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) was not significant as a predictor of behavioral CQ. Only the relationship between self-monitoring and behavioral CQ was tested in Kurpis (2009). Re-examining the results of Kurpis' (2009) study, it seems plausible that the self-monitoring trait might be related to more than one dimension of CQ.

For instance, since the ability to modify self-presentation has been shown to predict higher behavioral CQ (Kurpis 2009), it is reasonable to conclude that a person who has access to a large "wardrobe" of intercultural behaviors and has the ability to employ the most appropriate behaviors for each intercultural situation (as implied by the very definition of behavioral CQ) will generally be a successful cross-cultural communicator. Prior success in intercultural communications will sustain this person's sense of efficacy in novel cultural settings. A strong sense of efficacy contributes to higher motivational CQ (Earley and Peterson, 2004). Therefore, it is possible to con-

clude that the ability to modify self-presentation might be predictive not only of the higher behavioral CQ, but of the higher motivational CQ and of the overall CQ:

H1a: Respondents' ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its motivational and behavioral components.

Although it seems logical that keen social observational skills are conducive to higher behavioral CQ, the sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) was not related to higher behavioral CQ in the study by Kurpis (2009). The explanation to this lack of relationship between SENSEOTHERS and behavioral CQ might be that sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others might translate into the cultural knowledge of the norms and traditions (cognitive CQ) or into the knowledge of one's own mental strategies for learning about and dealing with new cultures (metacognitive CQ) instead of directly affecting behavioral CQ:

H1b: Respondents' sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its metacognitive and cognitive components.

Preference for Consistency

Preference for consistency (PFC) is another personality characteristic that should be explored in conjunction with cultural intelligence. Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom (1995) define preference for consistency as a "tendency to base one's responses to incoming stimuli on the implications of existing (prior entry) variables, such as previous expectancies, commitments, and choices (p. 318)." Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) point out that a manager's motive to act consistently with his/her values, beliefs, and norms is negatively related to cultural CQ. The reasoning behind this hypothesis is that a strong motive for consistency runs counter to the manager's need to adjust to novel cultural settings, to view intercultural situations from the new point of view and to incorporate new perspectives. Trying to keep the things as familiar as possible will lead to ignoring and rejecting the information that is inconsistent with the familiar practices even to the detriment of one's ability to make sense of the new managerial situation and to find a solution. Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) note that high-consistency individuals tend to isolate themselves from the local culture as much as possible (e.g., by living in an expatriate neighborhood) when on an overseas assignment thus forgoing the additional opportunities for networking and for understanding the local culture. Such chronic disposition is likely to result in lower levels of cultural intelligence and all of its components. These considerations lead to the following formal hypothesis:

H2: Respondents' preference for consistency (PFC) will be negatively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component.

Perceived Importance of International Business Courses

In the context of a business school students' learning, it is important to understand which attitudinal dispositions correspond to higher levels of students' CQ. Students who perceive international business-focused courses (e.g. International Marketing, Global Finance) to be important for their future professional careers were found to have higher motivational CQ (Kurpis, 2009). Kurpis (2009) used an earlier version of the cultural intelligence scale (Earley, Ang, and Tan, 2006). The findings pertaining to perceived importance of international business courses has been re-examined in this study using a new version of the scale for measuring cultural intelligence and its components (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008):

H3: Respondents' perceived importance of international business courses for future professional careers will be positively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component.

Experience of Studying/Living Abroad

Stemming from the very definition of cultural intelligence and its components, it appears that prior exposure to cultures other than one's own is likely to enrich a student's cultural knowledge (cognitive CQ), contribute to building mental strategies for understanding of novel cultures (metacognitive CQ), enhance student's cross-cultural efficacy beliefs (motivational CQ), and provide a student with a chance to acquire a set of behaviors for interacting with the representatives of other cultures (behavioral CQ). Participation in study abroad programs is one of the proven ways of increasing students' exposure to different cultures. This study tests the hypothesis about a positive relationship between prior experience of study/living abroad and students' cultural intelligence scores:

H4: Respondents' prior experience of studying/living abroad will be positively related to cultural intelligence as well as to its metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral components.

Preference for Jobs Involving Intercultural Interaction

Even though business students understand that today's workplace places value on an ability to manage competently in intercultural situations, they differ in their motivation to pursue jobs involving a lot of intercultural interactions. Some students are excited about the prospects of a job involving overseas assignments, frequent overseas travel, or a lot of interaction with overseas suppliers or customers, while others are indifferent about such jobs or prefer to avoid them in their job search. It is possible that the high CQ-students are seeking out the work environments where they are more likely to succeed because of their high intercultural abilities while low-CQ students are trying to avoid these environments because they are more likely to fail in positions requiring intercultural skills. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H5: Those respondents who prefer jobs involving intercultural interactions will have higher cultural intelligence than those who prefer the jobs requiring no intercultural interactions or those who are indifferent about the intercultural component of their jobs.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced the concept of consumer ethnocentrism, defined as a "unique economic form of ethnocentrism that captures the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made products (p. 280)." Highly ethnocentric consumers are trying to avoid purchasing imported products irrespective of their price and quality due to nationalism (Shankarmahesh, 2004). A number of studies found that education was negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism with the explanation being that more educated people are less likely to have ethnic prejudices and are less likely to be conservative (c.f. Shankarmahesh, 2004). Business courses with significant global content are likely to broaden students' perspectives on global markets, on interdependency of global economics, and on importance of global trade, thus diminishing their consumer ethnocentrism:

H6: Greater exposure to courses with the global content will be negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

METHOD

Subjects

Undergraduate students (N=61) from a small private Northwestern university enrolled in an International Marketing course participated in an on-line survey in exchange for a partial course credit. The students taking this class typically major in business or accounting and they take it during their junior or senior year. The mean age of the respondents was 21.4 (range from 20 to 26). Female respondents comprised 59 % of the sample.

Procedure and measures

The survey was presented to the respondents as a study of "cross-cultural skills and attitudes." First, the respondents answered completed the self-report 20-item Cultural Intelligence Scale (Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh, 2008) consisting of the metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral subscales, with response options ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. Then they completed the short version of the Lennox and Wolfe (1984) Self-Monitoring Scale consisting of the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation (SELFMODIF) and the Sensitivity to the Expressive Behaviors of Others (SENSOTHERS) subscales. The next section of the survey consisted of the 10-item version of the Shimp and Sharma (1987) Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE) and the 9-item short form of the Preference for Consistency (PFC) Scale (Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom, 1995).

Finally, the respondents answered the three questions pertaining to the importance of International Marketing course for their future professional careers (example of an item: "*I expect to interact a lot with the overseas clients and suppliers over the time of my professional career*"). In a separate one-item measure of job preference respondents stated whether they prefer a job that requires a lot of overseas travel/assignments and involves interaction with people from other cultures. Another question from this portion of the survey utilized the response scale from (1) *does not apply to me* to (7) *describes my experience* to assess if the respondents studied/lived abroad for extended periods of time (for a month or more at a time).

In the concluding portion of the survey, respondents provided an answer to a subjective measure of the number of college-level courses with significant global content that each of them had taken. For the purposes of this survey, the global content course was defined as either a designated "global" or "international" course (e.g., International Finance) or a course where a lot of theoretical perspectives/examples were drawn from around the world. The response categories for the Number of Global Courses measure were: 1 *course*, 2-3 *courses*, 4-5 *courses*, 6-10 *courses*, and over 10 *courses*. The last two measures of the survey pertained to respondents' age and gender.

RESULTS

Sample

Overall, 61 undergraduate business student completed the survey in exchange for a partial credit in an International Marketing course. Of these respondents, 59 % were female. The age range was from 20 to 26, with the mean of 21.41 years of age.

Variables

The metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ scores were calculated by averaging the scores in each of the respective sub-scales of the Cultural Intelligence scale (CQS). The overall cultural intelligence score (CQS) has also been computed by averaging the scores across the four sub-scales. Reliabilities of all Cultural Intelligence measures were at a satisfactory level (metacognitive α=.80, cognitive α=.85, motivational α=.79, behavioral α=.84, and the overall CQS α=.89) and consistent with the four-factor model of cultural intelligence (Earley and Ang, 2003). The Ability to Modify Self-Presentation (SELFMODIF) and the Sensitivity to the Expressive Behaviors of Others (SENSOTHERS) variables were created by calculating the mean of the appropriate items of the Self-Monitoring Scale, as indicated by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Cronbach's alpha was .79 for the SELFMODIF sub-scale and .83 - for the SENSOTHERS sub-scale of the Self-Monitoring Scale. The Consumer Ethnocentrism (Cronbach's alpha .88) and the Preference for Consistency (Cronbach's alpha .89) mean scores were computed in a similar manner. The answers to three questions pertaining to the perceived importance of the International Marketing course for respondents' future careers were averaged to form a three-item International Marketing Importance for Job (IMJOB) scale (Cronbach's alpha .87). Thus, all scales used in this study reached or exceeded conventional levels of reliability.

Hypotheses Testing

To test for H1-H4, a series of regressions were run. Each regression used the same set of predic-

tor variables (SELFMODIF, SENSEOTHERS, IMJOB, preference for consistency, and prior experience with work/study abroad) and one of the following dependent variables: the overall cultural intelligence score (CQS), metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ. Beta coefficients with the corresponding t- and p-values for all regressions are reported below.

All models used to test for H1-H4 were significant. The model predicting overall cultural intelligence score (CQS) from the above set of independent variables was significant (F(5, 55)=9.78, p<.ØØ1), accounting for 47.1% of the variation in the data. The independent variables were significant as predictors of metacognitive CQ (F(5, 55)=4.68, p<.Ø1), explaining 29.8% of variance. The independent variables were also significant predicting cognitive CQ (F(5, 55)=3.89, p<.Ø1), explaining 26.1% of variance. The model predicting motivational CQ from the set of independent variables was significant as well (F(5, 55)=4.37, p<.Ø1), explaining 28.5% of variance. Finally, the model predicting behavioral CQ from the set of independent variables was significant (F(5, 55)=4.75, p<.Ø1), explaining 3Ø.2% of variance.

Recall that H1a predicted that respondents' ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its motivational and behavioral components. As can be seen from Table 1, SELFMODIF was significant as a predictor of the overall cultural intelligence score (t(55)=2.4, p<.Ø5) and marginally significant as a predictor of motivational CQ (t(55)=1.93, p=.Ø6) and of behavioral CQ (t(55)=1.99, p=.Ø5). Thus, H1a was mostly supported.

H1b predicted that sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) will be positively related to cultural intelligence, including its metacognitive and cognitive components. This hypothesis was only partly supported as SENSOTHERS was a significant predictor only of cognitive CQ (t(55)=2.Ø6, p<.Ø5), but not of metacognitive CQ (t(55)=1.Ø3, n.s.) or of the overall CQS (t(55)=1.55, n.s.).

Table 1
Regression Analysis of Individual Difference Variables as Predictors of Cultural Intelligence and Its Components (df=55)

	Cultural Intelligence scale (CQS)		Meta-cognitive CQ		Cognitive CQ		Motivational CQ		Behavioral CQ	
Independent Variables	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)	β	t (p)
Ability to modify self-presentation (SELFMODIF)	.29	2.4* (.Ø2)	.25	1.53 (.13)	.21	.9Ø (.37)	.29	1.93 (.Ø6)	.44	1.99 (.Ø5)
Sensitivity to expressive behaviors (SENSOTHERS)	.16	1.55 (.13)	.14	1.Ø3 (.31)	.41	2.Ø6* (.Ø4)	-.Ø3	-.22 (.83)	.13	.69 (.49)
Preference for consistency (PFC)	.Ø4	.57 (.57)	.Ø7	.79 (.43)	-.Ø2	-.17 (.86)	-.Ø2	-.24 (.82)	.12	1.Ø5 (.29)
International business importance (IMJOB)	.13	2.31* (.Ø2)	.Ø5	.67 (.5Ø)	.15	1.45 (.15)	.16	2.28* (.Ø3)	.16	1.59 (.12)
Live or study abroad	.Ø9	3.76** (.ØØ)	.11	3.31** (.ØØ)	.1Ø	2.14* (.Ø4)	.Ø6	2.ØØ (.Ø5)	.11	2.36* (.Ø2)

* p<.Ø5, **p<.Ø1

According to H2, preference for consistency (PFC) was expected to be negatively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. PFC was not a significant predictor of CQS scores (t(55)=.57, n.s.), of motivational CQ (t(55)=-.24, n.s.), or of any other component of cultural intelligence.

H3 proposed that perceived importance of international business courses (measured as perceived importance of an International Marketing course) for respondents' future careers will be positively related to the overall cultural intelligence, as well as to its motivational component. The data provided full support to H3. The IMJOB scale was a significant predictor of the CQS score (t(55)=2.31, p<.05) and of motivational CQ (t(55)=2.28, p<.05).

Consistently with H4, respondents' prior experience of studying/living abroad was positively related to the overall cultural intelligence score (t(55)=3.76, p<.01), including metacognitive CQ (t(55)=3.31, p<.01), cognitive CQ (t(55)=2.14, p<.05), and behavioral CQ (t(55)=2.36, p<.05). It was marginally significant as a predictor of motivational CQ (t(55)=2.00, p=.05). Overall, H4 was mostly supported.

To test for H5, the hypothesis predicting that those respondents who expressed preference for the jobs involving intercultural interaction (e.g., overseas assignments) have higher cultural intelligence, the job preference variable was transformed. This transformation separated all respondents into two groups: those who prefer jobs with intercultural component versus those who are either indifferent or prefer jobs that do not require a lot of intercultural interaction. The cultural intelligence scores of the two Job Preference groups were then compared using an independent-sample t-test. Consistently with H5, the means of the CQS scores and of all of its four components were higher for those respondents who had expressed a preference for a job involving intercultural interaction. This difference was significant for the comparison of the overall CQS scores (t(59)=3.09, p<.01), motivation CQ (t(59)=2.49, p<.05), and behavioral CQ (t(59)=3.08, p<.01). The difference was marginally significant for cognitive CQ (t(59)=1.93, p=.06), however the difference between the groups' metacognitive CQ scores was not statistically significant (t(59)=1.39, n.s.). Overall, H5 was generally supported.

As a follow-up analysis on the data, the two Job Preference groups were compared on perceived importance of an International Marketing course. The respondents who were predisposed to working in diverse, intercultural environments perceived International Marketing course as being significantly more important for their future professional careers (M=5.75 vs. M=4.53, t(59)=4.18, p<.01) compared to their peers who were indifferent or averse to jobs with significant intercultural component.

Finally, H6 proposed that exposure to larger number of courses with global content (e.g., International Marketing, International Finance) will be negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism. To test for H6, the self-reported data on the number of courses with significant global content taken by the respondents was transformed in order to group respondents into two categories: those who took between 1 and 3 global content courses (low exposure) and those who took 4 or more global content courses (high exposure). Consumer ethnocentrism (CET) scores of the high exposure group were significantly lower (M=2.08 vs. M=2.61, t(59)=2.21, p<.05) compared to the low exposure group. Thus, H6 was fully supported.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, H1a and H1b were mostly supported: the data were consistent with most of the hypothesized positive relationships between the self-monitoring personality trait and the specified components of cultural intelligence. The two subscales of the self-monitoring scale were predictive of higher scores on different dimensions of cultural intelligence. The ability to modify self-presentation was significant as a predictor of cultural intelligence while being marginally significant as a predictor of motivational and behavioral CQ. On the other hand, the sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others was significant as a predictor cognitive CQ but it was not significant as a predictor of the overall CQS score. These findings generally support the author's hypotheses about flexible self-presenters (high SELF-

MODIF scores) being more successful in intercultural communications, thus leading to higher behavioral CQ. As discussed earlier in this paper, success in cross-cultural communication is likely to increase a person's intercultural self-efficacy, thus contributing to higher motivational CQ. At the same time, keen observers (high SENSOTHERS scores) are apparently better capable of making sense of intercultural situations, an ability which contributes to their greater cognitive CQ. The data did not support the hypothesized positive relationship between SENSOTHERS scores and metacognitive CQ. Metacognitive CQ represents the "thinking about thinking" aspect of acquiring cultural knowledge. It is possible that the ability to observe and understand expressive behaviors of others (SENSOTHERS) alone is not sufficient for achieving higher metacognitive CQ. Additional factors such as experience of dealing with other cultures, inductive and analogical reasoning might need to be present in order for the sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others to exert its impact on metacognitive CQ (Earley, Ang, and Tan, 2006).

H2 about a negative relationship between cultural intelligence and respondents' preference for consistency was not supported by the data. One possible explanation for this is that the Preference for Consistency (PFC) scale (Chialdini, Trost, and Newsom, 1995) used to measure consistency in this study covers more than one type of consistency, namely: the desire to be consistent with one's own responses, the desire to appear consistent to others, and the desire that others be consistent. It might be possible that some, but not all types of consistency preferences negatively affect cultural intelligence scores. This possibility needs to be explored further in the future research.

Taken together, the results of testing for H3 and H5 suggest that students who believe in the importance of taking business courses with global content as well as students who have preference for the jobs with intercultural content tend to have higher cultural intelligence scores. There are many practical implications for this finding. First of all, these data suggest that undergraduate students differ in their attitudes to developing global management skills. Those students who are interested in developing global management skills tend to have higher cultural intelligence. Such students represent an attractive target market for the universities willing to offer a variety of business courses with global content. These data also suggest that a university's path for facilitating students' cultural intelligence development can start with educating the students about the growing importance of global management skills for success in today's workplace.

This study has also shown that, consistently with H6, exposure to a larger number of business courses with global content is associated with lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism. This outcome might be desirable for the educators who wish to lower the levels of ethnocentrism in undergraduate business students out of a concern that a highly ethnocentric business professional who is biased against foreign-made products will be more at risk of making suboptimal buying decisions on behalf of her future employers.

Finally, one of the most interesting findings of this study is that, as stated in H4, students' experience with studying/living abroad was positively related to cultural intelligence. H4 was also supported for most of CQ components with the exception of the marginally significant association with motivational CQ. The fact that cultural intelligence is positively related to the participation in study-abroad programs indicates one of the promising directions for increasing cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students.

Because of the relatively short history of cultural intelligence research, few empirical studies testing the hypothesized antecedents of cultural intelligence have been published to-date. This present study contributes to cultural intelligence research by proposing and empirically testing some new relationships between potential predictor variables (preference for consistency, perceived importance of business courses with global content, preference for jobs involving intercultural interactions, experience of working/studying abroad) and cultural intelligence. This study also makes a contribution by testing previously hypothesized but not empirically tested antecedents (self-monitoring) of cultural intelligence. The findings of this present study can assist human resource managers who need to identify the best candidates for the positions requiring intercultural management abilities. As noted above, most of the findings of this study

also have practical implications for improving undergraduate students' preparedness for work in the global workplace. This study suggests that cultural intelligence in undergraduate business students can be improved through educating the students about the importance of intercultural skills for professional success as well as through increasing the number of business courses with global content and increasing the opportunities for the students to participate in the study-abroad programs.

The limitations of this study include the use of a fairly small (N=61) and homogeneous sample consisting of undergraduate business students of similar age and socio-economic status. Future research should employ larger and more diverse samples to identify potential antecedents of cultural intelligence. Only a small number of potential antecedents have been tested in this study due to limitations on the size of the questionnaire. There are several potential antecedents that have been proposed in the literature (e.g., need for closure - c.f. Ang and Van Dyne, 2008) that, to the best of the author's knowledge, have not been empirically tested. Future research should continue identifying and testing other potential antecedents of cultural intelligence and its components.

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What Are You Doing the Rest of Your Life? Strategies for Fostering Faculty Vitality and Development Mid-Career

Ellen L. West, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
School of Business Administration
Portland State University
Portland, Oregon

ABSTRACT

Faculty mid-career sometimes become cynical about and disengaged from their teaching. The consequences can be severe, from alienating their students in the classroom to causing faculty to abandon teaching altogether. This paper explores this vocational disconnect; and, more importantly, proposes remedies for re-energizing faculty; for helping them to bloom anew.

And you—what of your rushed
and useful life? Imagine setting it all down--
papers, plans appointments, everything--
leaving only a note: "Gone
to the fields to be lovely. Be back
when I'm through with blooming."

Ungar (1995)

INTRODUCTION

Patrice, an Assistant Professor in the School of Business, at an urban university stood on the sky bridge looking at the white-capped mountain on that misty May morning. Anne, a professor in the Graduate School of Education, had just surprised her with some exciting news. "I'm moving to New York," she blurted out to Patrice. This summer. I'm so excited about my new position with Hunter College."

"We'll miss you," Patrice offered while she thought to herself: "You are one lucky professor, going to the Big Apple where you won't have to deal with a possible faculty strike, overcrowded classrooms with ceiling tiles raining down on the unsuspecting; so much construction noise that students can't hear my lectures; dirty bathrooms; and students demanding more coaching time and instant email responses, all the while appearing resentful about the creative assignments that I'm working so hard on." As she wandered back to her hot office (the university hadn't turned the air conditioning on yet in their efforts to hold utility costs down), she wondered if she was in the right profession. She wondered what had happened to her original enthusiasm for her job that now seemed to be replaced with some sort of free floating dread and discouragement.

In conversations with educators about what they found fulfilling in a workshop regarding teaching that the author facilitated, responses were varied. Participants talked about the value of seeing learning occur among their students; seeing the transformation in their students; observing the 'aha' experience; getting positive feedback from their students; experiencing the excitement and passion that comes with teaching a topic that one knows well; and connecting with stu-

dents through this discovery experience. People attending represented faculty members from the local university and a neighboring community college.

However, somewhere during mid-career some faculty begin to experience doubts about their effectiveness and can become plagued with uncertainties about their career choice.

In an article addressing problems and challenges facing faculty mid-career, Romano, Hoesing, O'Donovan, and Weinsheimer (2004) indicated that "the number of faculty in higher education reaching the mid and later years of their careers is significant" (p. 2). If this lack of motivation is indeed an issue for many, it would seem that the challenge of helping faculty to continue to grow and develop is one that will not disappear soon but will, rather, continue to increasingly confront administrators.

William Bridges writes about an important transition that often takes place in a person's work-life: from being motivated by demonstrating technical competence to being motivated by finding meaning, value, and purpose...from exploring the question of *how* to the question of *why* (Bridges, 2004). They may experience a shift in motivation from the desire for exhibiting technical expertise to a focus on value and purpose to more centrally define their efforts.

> The world knows all about competence. Most evaluation and rewards are determined by a person's competence.... In business and the professions, you get in and get ahead by demonstrating your competence.....But somewhere along the way—as early as thirty-five for some and as late as fifty-five for others—competence begins to lose its force as a source of motivation (Bridges, pp. 84-85).

No longer motivated by the thought of teaching, yet again, that introductory class, the tenured professor may try being proactive by seeking help at the center for teaching at her university or, sadly, just deciding to continue using her yellowing transparencies instead of creating readable and engaging power point slides. The "why bother?" question seems to be constantly throbbing in her head.

BACKGROUND: I'M TOO TIRED TO CARE ANY MORE

There are many reasons why faculty may experience "career blues." As Clawson and Haskins have observed, "They have lost their motivation for their work and the pleasure they once derived from it. They have become...disengaged from their work, and although they may partially recognize that fact, they feel lost and uncertain about what to do about it" (Clawson and Haskins, 2000, p. 91). Because they may lack enthusiasm, energy, or excitement for the job, the organization as a whole loses, too, because faculty are often only doing a mediocre job; they are being "just good enough" to get by.

Other authors have written about the lack of vitality among mid-career faculty and suggest that there are many reasons for this condition ranging from burnout, dissatisfaction, low morale and workload issues to changes in the student population, the tenure system, reward structure, and general dissatisfaction with administrative changes and departmental climate (Eastman, 1996; Johnson, 1989; Kelly, 1990; and Meyers, 1991). Bowen and Schuster (1986) describe a professorate with a sense of "stuckness " regarding their career projectory. Palmer (1998) has another name for this: "losing heart."

> We lose heart, in part, because teaching is a daily exercise in vulnerability. I need not reveal personal secrets to feel naked in front of a class. I need only parse a sentence or work a proof on the board while my students doze off or pass notes.

No matter how technical my subject may be, the things I teach are things I care about—and what I care about helps define my selfhood (Palmer, 1998, p. 17).

In a chapter devoted to discussing issues of power in the classroom, Weimer wades into the conversation about vulnerability when she asserts that faculty are motivated to control "because teaching makes us vulnerable" (Weimer, 2002, p. 26). She continues her analysis of classroom control, power issues and vulnerability by adding that "Most faculty do not feel vulnerable in the

classroom because students are not learning" (Weimer, p. 27).

Whatever the cause, the institution of higher learning loses out on the wasted potential of faculty. Often this condition goes undiagnosed and is shrugged off as simply being part of a mid-life crisis.

Observing and commenting on this condition is not limited to those in academe, however. In a chapter entitled, "Renewal," Sheehy has written that "The point is to defeat the entropy that says slow down, give it up, watch TV and open up another pathway that can enliven all the senses, including the sense that one is not just an old dog" (Sheehy, 1974, p. 346). She further suggests that if we don't grow, we aren't really living. She continues this theme in her follow-up book, New Passages, where she elaborates on what she terms the "meaning crisis" which, she asserts is the major preoccupation of the second half of our lives (Sheehy, 1995). In a similar vein, Boldt (1999) asks a related question, "How can we make of work a genuine art—an expression of our deepest selves?" (p. 39).

Bridges writes, "The task is to find the connection between the change in your work or career and the underlying development rhythm of your life" (Bridges, p. 86). It is these questions that often preoccupy faculty mid-career in their search for meaningful answers.

Boldt (1999) continues by suggesting that one's life's work should reflect four qualities: integrity, service, enjoyment, and excellence (p. 51). In contrast, in a study of university professors mid-life, Karpiak (1997) has written that the population she sampled is reflective of four attitudes regarding their careers: meaning, malaise, marginality, and mattering. Part of her population clearly cares about teaching and making a difference but others feel marginalized and view the university to be a "cold, isolated, fragmented environment" (p. 34). These attitudes manifest themselves through "fatigue, exhaustion, low self-esteem, and need for renewal" (p. 30).

Certainly many authors have suggested a variety of answers to this sense of disconnect by faculty (Karpiak, 1996; Feldman & Paulsen, 1999; Romano et al, 2004; and Kelly, 1990). This writer describes one method for engaging faculty that has proven motivating in a variety of settings.

ONE REMEDY: AN APPRECIATIVE WORKSHOP

Phillips (1997) has written about the creative potential in all of us. She states that "Creativity is not something that has to be worked at, but something that is released automatically when we are on the right path" (Phillips, p. 163). Bryan, Cameron and Allen (1998) maintain that all of us are creative and that creativity is teachable and that all of us have the capacity to become more creative than we already are (Bryan et al., pp. xx-xxi). Crafting a workshop based on these assumptions became the means through which to revitalize discouraged faculty in order to help them reconnect with their creative core. The workshop has been presented to university faculty, to a state conference for women in higher education; and another state conference involving faculty and staff who work in early childhood training. It was designed to be the first step in a journey to help faculty reconnect with their original enthusiasm and passion for teaching and faculty life. It was about creating opportunities for the participants and facilitator to generate "... a spark of possibility for others to share" (Zander and Zander, 2000, p. 125) It was also about creating a space so that faculty could hear what they had to say of value about their vocational directions. A variety of approaches were used including reflection and journaling, viewing film, listening to music, reading and writing poetry and experiencing a variety of art forms. An added bonus was the creation of an immediate support system.

Much of what happened in the workshop was designed to get momentum going and help faculty tune into their natural gifts. Palmer has written about this recalibration process: "Before you tell your life what you intend to do with it, listen for what it intends to do with you." (Palmer, 2000, p. 3). The intent at this point was not to spend time identifying the various sources of their malaise; but, rather, to determine aspects of their professional lives that they found fulfilling, celebrate those forces, and, most importantly, discuss how

to expand those influences in their daily lives. The emphasis was on having fun and letting go; sometimes a challenge for academics.

When queried regarding why they had decided to attend the session, the participants responded with a variety of reasons:

- Curious about the topic
- Feeling burned out
- Wanting to reorient my career during my sabbatical
- Wanting to help colleagues re-energize
- In need of revitalization
- Looking to "spark up my teaching"

After an appropriate introduction and overview of the workshop, participants were asked to do an ice breaker, borrowed from the world of improvisation. The Word-at-a-Time Story is designed to help energize workshop participants and also foster a feeling of togetherness since the success of this activity truly depends on everyone's participation. It is an exercise that builds sentences one word at a time. As simple as this may sound, it is usually a challenge for most and can help to focus attention on themes of the workshop as well as emphasize the skill of "letting go" since participants are only able to add one word at a time to the flow of the sentence. It was also fun and helped people to shift gears, leave other worries behind them, and generally lighten up a bit (Huffaker and West, 2005).

Appreciative Inquiry

After a quick debrief, the workshop shifted gears and background was provided with regard to Appreciative Inquiry, a philosophy and world view that inquires about what is "right" in an organization and one's life (Elliott, 1999). It invites workshop participants to view potential within the present rather than focusing on problems to be solved. It is an approach to change that is based on strengths rather than weaknesses, envisioning what is possible rather than analyzing what is not (Cooperrider and Whitney, 2005). Appreciative Inquiry (AI) builds on that view as a way to create a frame or perspective for an imagined future based on the forces in one's life that are energetic, joyful, life-giving and transformative. It is a very flexible process useful for both personal reflection as well as for engaging people in building the kinds of organizations that they would like to work in (Watkins and Mohr, 2001). It unleashes creativity through affirming, participatory, and energizing processes (Preskill and Coghlan, 2003).

The AI approach consists of four phases: discovering, dreaming, and designing and delivering (Watkins & Mohr, 2001).

A scene from the film "Mr. Holland's Opus" was shown. It is the scene in which Richard Dreyfus, who portrays a high school music teacher, helps a very discouraged clarinet player find her "clarinet voice" and experience a moment of profound joy through her playing. It served to focus participants on how a teacher can make a difference using an appreciative approach and also helped to frame a subsequent exercise. In the discussion after viewing the film clip, participants were eager to offer examples of teachers, coaches and friends who had made a positive difference in terms of their development. The discussion usually overflows with excellent examples and provides an opportunity to reinforce some of the basic ideas of AI.

A short explanation of the various phases of the AI process followed. After that brief introduction, the participants were asked to briefly interview one another and answer the following two questions which represent the first phase of AI, the discovery phase:

1. Describe the best time you have had as an instructor...when you felt most alive and most excited abut your work. What made it that way? Who was involved? What was it about you and your contribution that helped this to happen? Describe in detail.
2. What are the things that you value deeply about yourself and your job? Without being humble, what do you value about yourself as a person and as an instructor?

After a few moments of hesitation, the room was filled with conversation, laughter, energy and

joy. Everyone had lots to say; this portion of the exercise lasted for twenty minutes. It should be mentioned that this introductory phase could certainly last longer given other time parameters. When the author was first introduced to AI, she spent an hour over lunch with another workshop participant "discovering" what each found uplifting about their respective jobs.

Next, groups of six participants were formed and their earlier stories were shared. This part of the conversation took another twenty minutes and represented a continuation and refinement of the discovery phase of AI. It should be added that this phase can sometimes take much longer; but usually enough ground can be covered in 20-30 minutes to help the group determine the common themes that emerged from the process of sharing their various stories. The groups were asked to brainstorm a list of themes that were evident in the stories that represented highpoints, life-giving forces, and ideas about what college teaching was like when things were at their best. Hammond has suggested requesting that each person share the best story or most 'quotable quote.' She also mentions that this sharing will surface common "themes of success" which are critical to the rest of the process (Hammond, 1998, p. 37).

Some of the themes that were shared on the board with the larger group were:

- Seeing learning occur
- Observing transformation in students
- Getting positive feedback in the form of applause
- Feeling excitement and passion through teaching a subject you know well
- Creating a bigger vision
- Honoring student contributions
- What's inside shines through
- At a crossroad.

After a discussion of what the themes meant, groups were then asked to do a bit of dreaming about what their careers would look like if they woke up in five years, happy and content with their jobs. Having some soothing music playing in the background often helps to facilitate this process. Scenes from "Extraordinary Visions," a film by Dewitt Jones, a photographer for the National Geographic, that "celebrates what's right with the world," were shown and helped to promote positive reflection and conversation about the natural beauty that surrounds us. Viewing the film also reinforced the idea about what was joyful as well as inspiring with regard to their academic positions. It should be noted that comparing notes among members in this collaborative fashion almost always guarantees that the conversation will be very positive.

Lively discussion followed and participants were asked to generate a list of locations on campus where reflection and repose were possible. Several art galleries were mentioned as possibilities in addition to the park blocks that are centrally located at this urban campus. Ideally there would be adequate time during the workshop to take a walk to one of these sanctuaries and continue to reflect. Other ideas included walking to the nearby city art museum; touring the university community garden; and observing the various sculptures available on campus. In addition, another possibility at this point could be sharing poetry that acts as a trigger for further reflection such as "The Way It Is" by William Stafford (1998) and "Wild Geese" by Mary Oliver (2004).

Additional discussion prompts that encourage the process include:

- List five things that nourish me as an instructor;
- If I knew there was no way to fail, I would....
- What are the three principles that guide me as an academic?
- If all my dreams come true about teaching, I would like...?
- List one specific thing I can do this week to make this dream happen.

It should be noted that sometimes participants in this workshop have been called upon to create an artful response to the dreaming phase. In the case of those who attended the state conference dealing with early childhood training, one group shared the following poem they had written after their dreaming conversation:

Imagine no contention
People working together

Imagine no complaining
People excited to work

Imagine everyone being
Happy, healthy and safe

Imagine no complacency
People caring for each other

Imagine no crying
People filled with laughter

Imagine everyone being
Happy, healthy and safe.

Finally, the participants were asked to do some action planning and share ideas with each other that they wanted to explore during the current term as well as make a commitment to report the results of that activity. These activities reflect the designing and delivering phases of AI. Contact information was exchanged and connections with others were finalized in order to reinforce moving ahead with their ideas and results. This could take the form of a "recalibration phase" as discussed by Levin (2005). "Little by little, we get in touch with that elusive potential, our passions" (Levin, p. 20).

RESULTS

In their written evaluations regarding what they found most helpful about the workshop, participants have commented that:

- It got me thinking about the future and focused on the positive
- Connecting with other faculty with similar struggles was useful
- Positively provocative, a non-pedagogical interlude
- Reminder to allow the staleness to go away
- Talking with colleagues about teaching, positive focus
- Enjoyed the opportunity to reflect.

A number of faculty also commented about how reassuring it was to be able to converse with other faculty about these issues. One specifically mentioned that "I especially liked the phrase that people in mid-life are no longer motivated to find competence but are motivated to find meaning."

NEXT STEPS

Since the workshop represents but a first step in the process of rediscovery, the following steps might be considered in order to create a pathway toward continuation of this "recalibration" process.

1. Create an ongoing support group at the university in order to provide assistance and resources regarding revitalizing faculty. This might most effectively be done by emulating the inspiring "Mid-Career Teaching Program" that Romano and others have written about (Romano et al, 2004). It might also be housed in a center for learning if the college has one.
2. Consider linking up with other like-minded groups at regional universities in the area as well as neighboring community colleges. Creating an online "community of practice" or learning community would be an innovative way to foster this development (Sherer, Shea, and Kristensen, 2003).
3. Design a regional conference focused on this issue.
4. Do follow-up interviews with workshop members to gauge the effectiveness of the workshop and improve the content. This could be the beginning of an important longitudinal study. Use internet survey techniques to collect data (e.g., Survey Monkey).
5. Establish a blog in order to share related ideas and reflections. Consider establishing a page on Facebook.
6. A more ambitious next step might be approaching the administration with a comprehensive career development strategy as several community colleges and other institutions of higher learning

have done (Baldwin, 1982; Sherer et al., 2003). There are many models available for replication. Although this step would certainly go beyond the design and intent of the original workshop, having a conversation with the administration could be an energizing and motivating step by itself.

Researchers have identified that people who believe they make a difference in the role they value most in life actually live longer than those who don't experience a similar sense of control (*Harvard Women's Health Watch*, 2001). For many, work represents that critical role. Faced with an aging baby boomer workforce, the prospect of keeping faculty engaged remains a challenging as well as intriguing one.

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Conferences

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