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How to EULA

As a career software developer (co-author Hogan Haake), I have written quite a bit of code for my employers and for myself. Countless hours have been spent in front of a computer monitor pounding out complex sequences of characters to produce software programs. Occasionally software developers decide to share their work with the greater community and publish their works through such formats as The Code Project.

Part of the process of sharing my work was to select an End User License Agreement or EULA. During the submission process of my work, I was presented with 16 different boiler plate EULAs (“Code Project”). I had never given a second thought to those documents, but figured something was going on. There must be a good reason why I would be presented with so many choices of how to license my submission. Each article submitted to the code sharing website prominently displays the EULA selected by the author.

After researching about EULAs, I want to present my findings so that you may better understand why a EULA is important. There are some questions and myths about their enforceability. Most documents have some basic provisions and there is always room for industry/entity specific clauses to protect the owners of the software.

Basics of a EULA

The software EULA is a legal document designed to protect the owners of the software. EULA documents generally contain information for company rights, user rights, and penalties for violations (Langdon). The document is designed to explain to the consumer of the software what their rights and obligations are for using the software.

Company rights are stated and protected by the use of a EULA. Many companies even depend on their customers not reading the licensing agreement. eWallet from Gain Publishing has a statement in their EULA telling users that installing eWallet gives Gain Publishing permission to install internet tracking software on your computer (Magid). This is spy software that virtually nobody would agree to, but is installed because people do not read the agreement.

To prove a point about users not reading EULA agreements, PC Pitstop included a provision to pay their customers money for reporting that they read a specific item in a EULA for one of their software offerings. It took over 3,000 downloads and four months before somebody responded to the agreement and was awarded \$1,000 for their efforts (Magid).

EULA documents are often several pages long with lots of legal writing. Many people just want to use software and will agree to nearly anything. Companies use this to their advantage, creating items in the agreements that favor them. Software users generally do not take the time to carefully read each EULA, opting instead to click through and get to the software they are installing. Most people are guilty of this practice!

Enforceability

One of the biggest myths out there about EULAs is that they are not enforceable. Many backyard forum posters will state that they are not enforceable and to ignore them. This could not be further from the truth. EULA agreements are often defined as click-wrap and are as good as putting a pen to paper and signing your name.

Software EULAs are presented to the users of the software via a shrink-wrap or click-wrap method. Shrink-wrap is the act of opening a package to accept the license agreement. Click-wrap on the other hand is the act of clicking and accepting a license agreement during the software installation process. Starting in 1996, the US court system set the precedent that click-

wrap licenses are a legal defense and protection of software ("ProCD v. Zeidenberg."). The court case focused on Zeidenberg copying non-copyrightable material that he purchased from ProCD. Because he clicked and accepted the EULA, he was bound to the terms of the agreement which prohibited him from copying ProCD's work.

Backyard forum posters have also asserted that if they don't click on the EULA, then it is not enforceable. The court system has disagreed with this statement in many cases. Recently in *Vernor v. Autodesk*, Vernor purchased a second-hand license and tried to resell it on eBay. Autodesk stated that it violated the EULA as the license had been previously purchased via another entity.

Minors are also not exempt from EULA agreements. In *A.V, et al. v. IParadigms, Limited Liability Company*, the court ruled in favor of IParadigms that minors entered into a valid contract for the use of a website (Samson). In this case, students were forced to use a website to turn in their homework to automatically check for plagiarism. Even with the forced usage, the court still ruled in favor of the click-wrap contract.

Common Provisions

I mentioned that I was presented with 16 different boiler plate EULA agreements for publishing software. Each of these 16 agreements had different provisions for protecting the software. With that many EULAs offered from one site, a person might wonder why any organization would ever have to write their own EULA for their software. There are actually many provisions in the EULA that deal specifically with a particular software offering and how to protect a company that offers it. I want to explore a couple of provisions to demonstrate the necessity of customizing a EULA to fit your specific software offering.

Today, software is distributed on a global level with the use of the Internet. The selection of legal forum and the set of laws that govern the EULA should be specified, each as their own provision (Foust, and Cardon). Foust contends that separating the provisions allows extra protection should either of the provisions be struck down. The use of a specific forum allows companies to operate on their home turf. Occasionally, suits will be dismissed before they are started due to jurisdictional issues, like the case of *Groff v. America Online Inc.* (Samson).

The agreement should present a strong representation of ownership in relationship to the software and any associated servers or software that it interacts with. This provision should include the intended purposes of use. This provision will help protect against reverse engineering. Reverse engineering can often lead to a loss of revenue as critical server software is copied. This was the case in *Blizzard v. BnetD* ("IGN Entertainment Games").

Modification of the EULA is an important provision. Should a company have to go to court and the court system strike down any portion of the EULA, a company would not want to be continually bound to the "broken" EULA. Instead, there should be a provision to state where modifications of the EULA will be placed and that they can change at any time. It should be up to the end user to check for any changes and abide by the modified agreement.

Conclusion

I hope I have demonstrated the need for a quality EULA to protect your software, whether it is free software, specialty software produced for an organization, or high end boxed software. EULAs are very enforceable agreements that should be carefully read before the user agrees to them. Excuses and advice from Internet forum lawyers are no excuse for not reading and abiding by the agreement. Specific provisions must be placed inside the EULA to protect the owner of the software from legal threats. Simply copying and pasting an agreement from a different organization and changing a few words could provide an agreement that is not

enforceable or relevant to your organization. Please contact a lawyer if you have something valuable you want to protect with a EULA.

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Implementing Universal Design for Learning

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Universal Design for Learning (UDL)

UDL uses scientific based cognitive research to develop a framework to improve and enhance teaching and learning for all learners (CAST, 2015). UDL is a philosophy and a variety of multiple approaches to make learning accessible to a wide range of students (Basham, Israel, Graden, Poth, & Winston, 2010). The UDL practice is truly inclusive and accounts for varying types of learners regardless of background, physical make-up, or cognitive limitations (TEAL, 2012). The idea of UDL stems from architecture; it utilizes a principle that it is easier to include accessibility rather than reconstruct the

building (Stanford & Reeves, 2009). UDL creates an equal opportunity for diverse learners to access content.

The reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Act laid the groundwork for UDL and was later defined by David Rose and Ann Meyer at CAST. UDL came about during a time when students with disabilities were being included with their mainstream counterparts. There needed to be a way for students with special needs to be blended in instructionally. This presented a problem. Students were viewed as having barriers to learning. UDL rejects that idea by stating the curriculum is the barrier to learning and through the principles of UDL, those barriers can be refuted.

The CAST model for UDL has three components. The components are: multiple means of representation, multiple means of action and expression, and multiple means of engagement. Multiple modes of representation is the "what"; in what ways will the teacher present this information to the student. Examples include auditory, visual, colors, and text size. Multiple means of expression is the "how"; in what ways will the student demonstrate what they learned. Examples include projects and differentiated activities. Multiple means of engagement is the "why" of learning, engaging students by tapping into the learners' interest, inspiring new interest and challenging them appropriately. Employing these strategies removes the barriers to learning and gives all students the opportunity to learn in a way that is best suited to them. These are the building blocks for successful teaching and learning. UDL is further supported in the 2016 National Education Technology Plan, which calls for the incorporation of UDL within all educational institutions (US Department of Education, 2015).

Advantages

One of the primary benefits of UDL is that the principles of the design encourage teachers to create flexible curricular learning opportunities to meet the needs of all students and abilities (King-Sear, 2009). This approach to learning is a paradigm shift from the "one size fits all" approach to education.

UDL puts the "how of learning" in the learner's hand through options and choices. UDL makes learning student-centered, where students are demonstrating what they know by other means than paper and pencil tests.

Historically, curriculum and textbooks were geared toward the "average" learner. UDL recognizes that students are diverse therefore each has varying abilities. Barriers to learning are addressed upfront. This takes the roadblocks off students with disabilities, English language learners, and gifted and talented students and places the focus on the curriculum to meet students' needs. All students, even those with disabilities, benefit from the information being presented in multiple ways and from having options in how they demonstrate understanding (Teaching Excellence in Adult Literacy, 2012). UDL supports personalized learning and a personalized learning environment. In personalized learning, students identify their strengths and challenges to learning. Students use data about themselves to determine how they learn best. Students create their toolbox for learning which will help them to become independent learners. This way of thinking and learning will help lead students to become expert learners.

UDL incorporates an array of fields such as learning sciences, instructional design, brain imaging, and technology to develop an intervention that is best suited for the 21st-century learner (Edyburn, 2010). UDL is an engaging approach to teaching and learning. Research shows that engaged learners are more motivated and perform better in school (Carnahan, Zieger, & Crowley, 2016). Student engagement is the most important element in UDL. This same principal coincides with the Framework for Teaching. Student engagement is discernable in that they are intellectually active in meaningful and challenging content (Danielson, 2007).

Disadvantages

Professional development is essential for successful implementation of UDL. Although UDL has been around for some time, many educators lack training.

Professional development at the state, district, and building level is required for education professionals to maximize the full potential of UDL (Stansbury, 2012). Professional development in technology integration with UDL is important. If teachers are reluctant to integrate technology on a consistent basis, it reduces students ability to participate and interact with the content. Professional development and teacher training must be approached differently if the goal is to achieve technology integration on a regular basis (Byrd-Jones, 2011).

Another disadvantage is that students still have to take standardized tests. Standardized tests are not differentiated and not all material on the standardized tests is engaging. Standardized tests are either computerized or paper and pencil based. Students will not have the choice on how to demonstrate their knowledge of the material.

UDL is still developing; there is no research to scientifically validate UDL (Edysburn, 2010; Rao, Ok, & Bryant, 2014; Mathew, 2016). Most UDL studies explore the perception of UDL, but don't examine if UDL strategies caused improvement in student achievement (Mathews, 2016). To understand this causality, relationship additional experimental design studies are required.

Implementing UDL

According to National Center for Education Statistics data, an achievement gap exists and is further perpetuated by the difference between high-and-low income families (Duncan & Murnane, 2011). Disenfranchised students come to school with a different skill set that can be further developed through UDL. Historically, education has not addressed the diverse learner or the barriers that exist in educating all learners. UDL seeks to address those trepidations.

UDL can be used in nearly any lesson. A math lesson can begin with multiple means of representation having students watch a math tutorial or teacher demonstration. The idea at this level is to

have an explicit structure that is modeled for the student. The lesson would progress to multiple means of expression, with students answering a worksheet, students modeling answers independently or in small group, games, and the use of technology. Multiple means of engagement is what hooks the students' interest and allows them the opportunity for self-regulation. The premise behind the last two components is that there is a variety of engagement that meets the students needs. Students are being challenged at varying levels. UDL is intentional and values diversity. The aim for UDL is to improve student achievement by having students learn through their strengths and interests.

Conclusion

UDL creates a framework to differentiate instruction to a wide audience. More research is needed to validate specific strategies, but differentiation is a strategy already used by many instructors to ensure that students are actively engaged in learning activities. Appealing to a wide range of learning styles and providing multiple ways to demonstrate proficiency is an ideal situation. However, it is important that instructors balance this type of instruction with the needs of high stakes standardized testing, which is at odds with UDL. Teachers face the task to balance alternative instructional strategies, while still maintaining rigor and structure that is required for standardized testing.

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An Evaluation Of The Effectiveness Of A Summer Bridge Program On Student Retention

And Progression ... Demetria R. Johnson-Weeks, EdD, MBA, Director, Title III and Sponsored

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the influence of a selected academic enhancement program on the retention and progression of incoming freshman who enrolled at a historical black university in Texas. Specifically, this study is concerned with the differences in the grade- point-average and retention and progression of incoming freshmen who attended the Summer Academy program and those who did not attend the summer academy program.

INTRODUCTION

Colleges and universities have played a crucial role in providing access to a postsecondary education to underprepared high school graduates. The fact that those incoming first time freshmen students do not possess the necessary academic and social skills to be successful in college, has forced colleges and universities to be creative in retaining, progressing and graduating them, often applying various types of educational developmental programs. One of these programs, Summer Bridge Programs have demonstrated success in helping students make the transition from high school to college (Murphy et al., 2010; Strayhorn, 2011).

Earlier studies found little change in students' GPA by Summer Bridge Programs (Santa Rita and Bacote, 1991). However, more recent studies showed correlations between a Summer Bridge Program and students' GPA (Barnett, 2009). Since Grade Point Averages for incoming freshmen is a determination of academic achievement and student success, it is also known that effective learning and cognitive strategies are key factors that determine retention and progression (Kleijn, Ploeg & Topman, 1994). Some of these strategies include proper time management, improved study strategies, better competency in taking examinations, and overall competency in academic course work. Those strategies are often extensively used in Summer Bridge Programs. Sansgiry, Kawatkar, Dutta and Bhosle, (2004) noted that in order to excel in academics at the college/university level, one must first learn how to study effectively. There are many effective ways to acquire information. It is then a matter of self-assessment to understand what works best for a specific person. In terms of students attending historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs), information regarding the impact of a Summer Bridge Program on students' GPA and their subsequent graduation rates are critical for the University as well as for the higher education community to better plan their resources and promote overall educational outcomes.

Despite numerous evaluating outcomes of Summer Bridge Programs, systematic and experimental data are still lacking simply because many of these studies don't follow students into the regular academic year(s), and such studies are even rare in HBCUs. Thus, there is a need of quantitatively studies evaluating the factors that are most relevant to Summer Bridge Programs with respect to their actual impact on student college success, especially in a HBCU setting.

Statement of the Problem

Universities and colleges have been faced with receiving students that are not academically prepared for college level courses, which results in remediating the underprepared population, developmental educational students. Given that universities and colleges are faced with one to three years of offering and funding non-credit courses and offering summer bridge type programs to advance the developmental education students administrators and faculty have to understand the needs of these students. This study, therefore, will address the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the retention rate of students who participated in the Summer Academy Program and those who did not participate in Summer Academy Program?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the freshman to sophomore progression rate of students who participated in Summer Academy Program and those students that did not participate in Summer Academy Program?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Various studies have been conducted (Barnett, Bork, Mayer, Pretlow, Wathington, and Weiss, 2012, Murphy, T. E., Gaughan, M., & Moore, R. H., 2010, and Strayhorn, 2011), examining and analyzing developmental education bridge programs, but the results are not consistent. This study will compare students at The University who were enrolled in the Summer 2010 Academy Program to students that did not participate in the Summer Academy and are enrolled as regular incoming freshmen in the Fall 2010 semester. It is hopeful that this research study will assist The University administrators and other institutions with this type of program in

evaluating the effectiveness and quality of an academic enhancement program such as the Summer Academy program and its continuing utility to the University in future years.

This study is focused on a summer academy's impact on student retention and progression. Johnson-Weeks and Superville (2014) examines the academic effectiveness of a summer academy. Per Taylor (2012) few theoretical models are available to explain the purpose of bridge programs and academic enhancement programs. Theories explaining student success in postsecondary education (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006) are often confined to the postsecondary education context and arguably do not adequately address a program intended to bridge two educational levels. Summer Bridge programs exist because incoming first time freshmen are not prepared for college level courses and will need to spend their first college courses in developmental education courses. These developmental education courses are generally not credit based courses. The developmental education courses are designed to prepare the incoming freshmen for basic skills that they did not master in high school, these courses are also referred to as transition courses. Karp and Hughes (2008) developed a conceptual model for credit-based transition programs that is intended to explain program structures and interaction among the components of programs. Although bridge programs are not always (or often) classified as credit-based transition programs, this conceptual model is useful to consider variables and mechanisms that contribute to college persistence. Karp and Hughes (2008) claim their conceptual model "hypothesizes that student participation in college coursework and support services, along with the attendant growth in academic skills, knowledge of the social aspects of college, and motivation, will lead students to matriculate into postsecondary education" (p.838-839). It is relevant to note that their model was developed using five case studies of programs enrolling middle- and low-achieving students. Thus, the credit-based

transition model may not be applicable to all bridge contexts; but does seem helpful to identifying mechanisms that facilitate matriculation and persistence to postsecondary education for students who have been underrepresented and underserved in the past.

Ely (2000) notes, multiple learning and instructional models are available to developmental educators, each offering a different and unique approach and framework. The most noteworthy of these cognitive models of learning include (a) the Factorial model, (b) the Developmental Stage model, (c) the Heuristic model, (d) the Taxonomic model, and (e) the Integrative model.

While each model has its own strengths, each is narrowly focused in its approaches and instructional framework toward student learning and developmental education, except for the Integrative model. In reviewing the five models, Mickler (1988) explains, “The Integrative may provide developmental educators with a theoretical and philosophical framework that can be broadened to accommodate for learning as a complex human endeavor that encompasses many variables, not just those directly associated with the learner.” Furthermore, this model “provides developmental educators with a conceptual framework with which to unravel the complexity of relationship among students, teachers, texts, and tasks.” Instead of viewing the instructional surroundings through a confined lens providing limited exposure of those inherent characteristics associated with students, “educators can widen their perspective to a view that permits an accounting for all of the variables that are influencing the degree of success experienced by students.” In short, this model takes on a holistic approach.

In discussing learning theory, Boylan (1986) explains, that most developmental programs were structured using at least three schools of learning theory including behaviorist, developmental, and humanistic. As noted by McMillan, Parke and Lanning (1997): Behaviorist

theories of learning underlie the concept of programmed instruction, with the basic assumption that learners respond to external variables that can be programmed in particular ways that lead to mastery of the subject matter. Programs founded on behavioral theory usually feature self-paced, computer assisted instruction and, quite often, an open entry—open exit format, (p. 25). In many instances, this format is used in serving large numbers of students using a minimal number of faculty and staff, thus making the program inexpensive to operate.

In comparison, programs based on developmental theories of learning focus on students moving from one level of knowledge to the next after mastery (Boylan, 1986). In this format, the instructor, in addition to providing a supportive and encouraging environment, provides challenges to the student at appropriate levels to stimulate learning (McMillan et al., 1997, p. 26). Due to heavy instructor involvement and small class size, this type of program is much more costly to operate (p. 26).

As noted by Boylan (1986), most developmental programs are a combination of behavioral and developmental models (p. 5). In many cases, the design of the developmental program is based on developmental theory, but the actual mode of delivery is associated with behavioral theory (p. 5). This combination format, while providing an element of cost effectiveness, also supplies the support required by most developmental education students.

In other instances, developmental programs are based on a humanistic model. This approach assumes that individuals are “naturally and intrinsically motivated to learn as part of the human need for personal growth and development” (Boylan, 1986). While this model relies heavily on instructor involvement, the role of the instructor is shifted to that of manager/facilitator, responsible for “creating an environment where learning will occur” (McMillan et al., 1997). Interestingly, the major responsibility for learning is shifted to the student. “Few

remedial/developmental programs use this model because underprepared students are generally not ready for the responsibility of such a self-directed approach”. When considering this approach, intellectual maturity should be a major consideration.

In addition to evaluating models, researchers have also examined the effectiveness of teaching methods used in developmental education programs. Dr. James Kulik, Senior Research Scientist for the Center for Research on Learning and Teaching at the University of Michigan, reports being impressed by “the favorable evaluation findings on individualized mastery-oriented teaching methods, such as Bloom’s (1968) Learning for Mastery (LFM) and Keller’s (1968) Personalized System of Instruction (PSI)” (as cited in Bonham, 1990, p. 17). Apparently, more than 100 evaluation studies have been conducted examining the results of these teaching methods. Remarkably, more than 90 percent report significant gains in student learning using an individualized mastery-oriented approach versus a conventional classroom approach (p. 17).

The art of designing a development program can be a complex and often frustrating task since there are so many models from which to select. Mickler (1988) warns educators to take a cautionary view when adopting an instructional system—some promise more than they can deliver (p. 5). In order to develop or maintain a successful remedial program, developmental educators need to be currently knowledgeable in all areas associated with developmental education, especially in the area of student learning.

According to Harr (2009), developmental education theories undergirding this study are based on three theorists’ works that have guided developmental education since the 1960’s: Arthur Chickering, William Perry, and Alexander Astin. Chickering’s (1969) model built on *The Student Personnel Point of View’s* emphasis on the whole student and identified seven vectors of college student development: (1) achieving competence, (2) managing emotions, (3) developing

autonomy, (4) establishing identity, (5) freeing interpersonal relationships, (6) clarifying purpose, and (7) developing integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). These vectors are applicable for traditional as well as non-traditional students and are useful in assisting students in managing time and the demands of school.

Harr (2009) and Perry (1970) believed that the idea of ethical and intellectual development is another student development theory that assists developmental educators in understanding student behavior. He argued that when students enter college, they are likely to view the world from a dualistic perspective and to look at faculty as authority figures that have the “right” answers. Thus, following Perry’s theory that educators must work to move students beyond such a dualistic perspective, it is important that developmental educators facilitate students’ ability to think for themselves, evaluate the relative qualities of different points of view, and make decisions accordingly (Higbee, Arendale, and Lundell, 2005).

Astin’s (1984, 1985) theoretical work has also been fundamental to the understanding of college student development. He proposed that instead of viewing higher education as a place to produce “knowledge and trained manpower,” educators must embrace a “talent development model,” being aware that where students begin along the educational continuum is less important than how much they learn and develop (1985, p. 14, 16). Astin says, “Under this model, the major purpose of any institution of higher education is to develop the talent of its faculty and students to their maximum potential” (1985, p. 16). Astin’s research urges educators to focus on enhancing access and retention while stressing the role of developmental education in encouraging students’ individual talents (Harr, 2009).

Harr (2009) notes, the field of developmental education has embraced transformative theory. Transformative theory is a combination of Democratic Theory and Multicultural Education Theory, taking into consideration social justice issues associated with providing students with developmental education. Transformative Theory is an adult education based theory that suggests ways in which adults make meaning of their lives. It looks at “deep learning,” not just content or process learning, as critical as those both are for many kinds of learning, and examines what it takes for adults to move from a limited knowledge of knowing what they know without questioning (usually from their cultures, families, organizations, and society). It looks at what mechanisms are required for adults to identify, assess and evaluate new information, often sources that may look at how adults can identify, assess and evaluate new information, and in some cases, reframe their world-view or belief system. Transformative Theory encourages students to “evaluate both new information and the frames of reference through which the information acquires meaning” (Higbee, Arendale, and Lundell, 2005). This theory coincides well with the higher education movement in the 1990s to focus more on learning rather than teaching, and scholars within developmental education have embraced this paradigm shift.

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This study consisted of 202 first-time freshmen who were enrolled during Fall 2010 of which, 101 were Summer Academy participants during the Summer 2010 at The University. The samples were systematically selected from 300 Summer Academy participants and 800 freshmen who did not participate in the Summer Academy. Data for this study was obtained

from the University’s Office of Institutional Effectiveness. Descriptive statistics, F-test for the homogeneity of variances and two-population t tests were the statistical techniques employed in the analyses. Johnson-Weeks and Superville (2014) addresses the demographics of the fall 2010 cohort, as exhibited by the participants sampled. The first section evaluates the hypotheses, formulated earlier in the study. The final section summarizes the analyses.

Evaluation of Hypotheses

Ho₁ : There is no statistically significant difference between the retention rate of the students who participated in the Summer Academy Program and those who did not participate in Summer Academy Program.

A two-population t-test (Table 1) was performed for a difference in the retention of Summer Academy (SA) participants and non-Summer Academy (NSA) participants. A statistically significant difference was not found in the retention of students who participated in the Summer Academy Program and those that did not participate in the Summer Academy Program at the 5% significance level. The results produced a t-value of 1.971896 and a P-value of 0.672568. Equal variances were assumed since the F-value equals 1.014435 with a corresponding p- value of 0.471509, which is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 1

F-Test Two-Sample for Variances

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Variable</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>

Mean	0.544554	0.574257
Variance	0.250495	0.246931
Observations	101	101
df	100	100
F	1.014435	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.471509	
F Critical one-tail	1.39172	

Correlation coefficient = -0.02349

T-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Variable</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Mean	0.544554	0.574257
Variance	0.250495	0.246931
Observations	101	101
Pooled Variance	0.248713	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	200	
t Stat	-0.42325	

P(T<=t) one-tail	0.336284
t Critical one-tail	1.652508
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.672568
t Critical two-tail	1.971896

Ho₂ : There is no statistically significant difference between the freshman- to-sophomore progression rate of students who participated in Summer Academy Program and those students that did not participate in Summer Academy Program.

Table 2

F-Test Two-Sample for Variances

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Variable</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Mean	0.257426	0.405941
Variance	0.193069	0.243564
Observations	101	101
df	100	100
F	0.792683	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.123542	
F Critical one-tail	0.718536	

Correlation coefficient = 0.06666

T-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Variable</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Mean	0.257426	0.405941
Variance	0.193069	0.243564
Observations	101	101
Pooled Variance	0.218317	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	200	
t Stat	-2.25877	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.012488	
t Critical one-tail	1.652508	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.024977	
t Critical two-tail	1.971896	

A two sample t-test (Table 2) was computed for a difference in the freshman-to-sophomore progression. The progression rate for students who participated in the Summer Academy Program is significantly different from those that did not participate in the Summer Academy

Program at the 5% significant level. The results produced a t-value of 1.971896 and a p-value of 0.024977. Equal variances were assumed since the F-value of 0.792683 with a corresponding P-value that equals 0.123542 is not significant at the .05 level.

CONCLUSIONS

This study was conducted to examine the influence of a selected academic enhancement program on the retention and progression of incoming freshmen who enrolled at The University. Specifically, this study was concerned with the differences in the retention and progression rates of incoming freshmen who attended the Summer Academy program and those who did not attend the Summer Academy program. Descriptive statistics, F-test for the homogeneity of variances and two-population t tests were the statistical techniques employed in the analyses.

There was not a statistically significant difference in the retention of students who participated in the Summer Academy Program and those who did not participate in the Summer Academy Program. There was a statistically significant difference in the progression of students who participate in the Summer Academy and those that did not participate in the Summer Academy Program at the 5% significant level. Successfully matriculating through Summer Academy appears to have improved the freshman-to-sophomore progression compared to the rest of the freshman population.

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Culture & Religion Learning Strategies

Jesus Is Bread Of Life: Daniel Mugaviri, Cape Town, South Africa

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10 verses of Scriptures in the New Testament Book of John that can help me witness to someone about salvation are:

1) **John 1:1 NIV:** In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God.

-Explaining Scripture: Scripture tell us that since the beginning Jesus was there, and He was with God. Everything on earth was created through him. And later he become flesh and dwell among us. -This is how I will use the Scripture to lead someone to salvation:

The word I am telling you about today, he was there from the beginning. And the word is Jesus Christ. He was there from the beginning. All things were made through him. And he is the one who came to die for us so that we can be saved.

2) **John 3:3 NIV:** In reply Jesus declared, I tell you the truth, no one can see the Kingdom of God unless he is born again

-Explaining Scripture: Jesus assured us that in order for us to see the kingdom of God we have to be born again, spiritual birth.

-This is how I will use scripture to lead someone to salvation: In order for you to see the kingdom of God you have to be born again. Not physical birth but spiritual birth.

3) **John 3:5 NIV:** Jesus answered, I tell you the truth, no one can enter the kingdom of God unless he is born of water and the spirit.

Explaining Scripture: The only way to enter the kingdom of God is to be born of water and the spirit. This verse confuses lot of people when it comes to born of water, some believed to be born of water is to be baptized. But is believe born of water is to be born from your mother's womb, the thief on the cross was not baptized but Jesus assured him paradise. If someone in the hospital today receive Jesus and die before baptized I am sure he/she will enter the kingdom of God. -This is how I will use the scripture to lead someone to salvation: Jesus taught us that in order for us to enter in the kingdom of God we have to be born by water and spirit. You are blessed that you were born from your mother's womb now you need to receive Jesus and he is the spirit of truth.

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- 4) **John 3:16 NIV:** For God so loved the world that he gave his one and only son, that whoever believes in him shall not perish but have eternal life.

Explaining Scripture: God saw that the blood of the bull is not worth eternal, so he gave us his only son to die for us. -This is how I will use scripture to witness to someone about salvation: What an amazing God we have, we were sinners and absolutely nothing but yet he cares for us. After sin separates us from him he gave us his only son to die for us so that we can have another chance to be called by his name again. You need to believe in son in order for you to have internal life.

5) **John 5:24 NIV:** I tell you the truth, whoever hears my word and believes him who sent me has eternal life and will not be condemned, he has crossed over from death to life.

-Explaining Scripture: Whoever hears the scriptures and believe, that person already has internal life. There is no condemnation to those who are in Christ Jesus.

-This is how I will use scriptures to witness to someone: Now you have heard the word of God, believe them save yourself from death. There is no condemnation to those who are in Christ Jesus so the time is now for you to believe the word of life.

6) **John 6:35 NIV:** Then Jesus declared, I am the bread of life. He who comes to me will never go hungry, and he who believes in me will never be thirst.

-Explaining Scriptures: Jesus is our daily bread. In him there is everything. Our soul will never be in need if if are in Christ Jesus.

-This is how I am going to use scripture to witness to someone: Seek Jesus because he is our only hope. Without him we will go hungry, no one will survive spiritual without Jesus. If you believe in him today surely you will never be thirst again. Your spirit needs Jesus.

7) **John 7:38 NIV:** Whoever believes in me as the Scripture has said, streams of living water will flow from within him.

- Explaining Scripture: Jesus assured us that he is the way and the truth, in him streams of living water flows from within.

-This is how I am going to use Scripture to witness to someone about salvation: Do not doubt Scriptures because all scriptures are God breathed. If you believe in wat scripture says your life will be filled with joy.

- 8) **John 8:12 NIV:** When Jesus spoke again to the people, he said, I am the light of the world. Whoever follows me will never walk in darkness, but will have the light of life.

-Explaining Scripture: The world was in darkness but Jesus became the light of this world.

-This is how I am going to explain: Those who receive Jesus are walking in the light, I assure you today you will never be in darkness again. Jesus is the light of the world. I say to you today, Its up to you to continue walking in darkness.

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- 9) **John 10:11 NIV:** I am good shepherd, The good shepherd lays his life for the sheep

-Explaining Scripture: Jesus is our shepherd, which means he knows what is good for us and what is not. He died for us just to make sure we will be in God's kingdom.

-This is how I am going to use Scripture to witness to someone: Jesus proved to be good shepherd when lay his life for us. Sheep without shepherd will never survive. You need Jesus in your life because he is a good shepherd.

- 10) **John 14:6 NIV:** Jesus answered, I am the way and the truth and the life. No one comes to the Father except through me.

Explaining Scripture: There is no other name that will save us except the name of Jesus. He is the only way, truth and life. He is our only Advocate between us and the Father.

-This is how I am going to use Scripture to witness to someone about salvation: Jesus assured us that there no other way to go to heaven without going through him. Jesus is our only way to go to heaven. There is life in Jesus.

From A Very Young Age I Accepted And Have Followed Our LORD JESUS CHRIST: Terrence Merrifield, Southampton, England, UK
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JUNE 6th 2016.

From a very young age I accepted and have followed our LORD JESUS CHRIST ever since. Our Lord has helped me through many serious illnesses. Once, in the 1970,s I was almost Taken from this life, But I had such calmness when I prayed with my mother and sister as They sat on my hospital bed I knew that Jesus was there with me! It was a feeling of a presence a feeling of comfort. Hard to explain but I had such conviction that I would survive. Since then I have followed Christ. Many things have happened, such as being guided away from danger when walking through a strange city. My mother and sister both died from cancer, yet though alone I felt the comforting hand of Christ during the funeral service in church. I have gained so much by following, as best as I am able, the way of GOD. Through illness money and career problems, I have been lifted up and the words that ALWAYS come into my mind are, “ I am with you always; yes to the end of time.” (Matthew 28 v 20). I have since then become a minister and have worked to carry The Lords message to an increasing secular world. At least that is so here in England. Yet, through the abuse, the threats, the isolation, the protection of OUR LORD has been manifest, as I have never been badly injured. JESUS CHRIST, has given me grace. Grace to be granted HIS love and help. Sometimes I wonder how I have continued so long in HIS sight. For like us all I am a sinner! Yet CHRIST has forgiven me and accepted me as one of HIS own. How fortunate am I. Christ has shown me and taught me, not only how to accept my failings and those of others but a small insight into HIS words as recorded in the New Testament. The Spirit of THE LORD has given me opportunities to spread his word in many different and sometimes unusual places.

I have been lucky enough to have brought two persons back to CHRIST after many years of them

being adrift. Both became Deacons in their own churches and though I have not seen them for a long time, I have heard that they both have remained in the comfort of CHRIST. Yet the greatest

thing I feel is that LOVE for people, regardless of their race etc. It is through GOD that I am able to

comfort others, even if at times it is seemingly pointless. Yet it never is pointless, sometimes one

never really knows if you have been truly of help, at other times the aid is plain to see. Because of

JESUS CHRIST I am not a gambler, or a drug addict or drink addict. I have helped out in “ half way

Houses” and through those experiences have seen how GOD is present in even the most dire of places. I thank OUR LORD every day for the gift of my life.

From; MR TERRENCE MERRIFIELD.

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A Step by Step guide to Business Law Assessment

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Abstract

This paper is a step-by-step guide to developing assessments that are consistent with the College of Business outcomes and the goals of the business law classes. While providing information needed by the college to determine whether the college is doing what it says it is doing, it can also provide the information to the department so that goals can be accomplished using the same core competencies and learning objectives with a variety of teaching methods.

Introduction

As instructors we desire to teach students so that each and every student will be inspired to want to learn for learning's sake. If only we could put together the magical lecture, the perfect assignment, the best project, and instantly the students would be inspired. As instructors we have had some success and we have had some failures, and we certainly did not inspire the entire world as we had hoped. We do want to know if all of our planning, presenting, writing, lecturing, grading, guiding, facilitating and directing is working.

Teaching can be isolating. We have questions. How vulnerable are we if we share our questions, our teaching ideas, or our thoughts with our colleagues. Are we doing what we think we are doing as teachers? How do we find out? Is all of our organization and planning working? (Glassick, Huber & Maeroff, 1997) Are we using the right tools to obtain our goals? There is an old saying that if the only tool in your toolbox is a hammer, everything starts to look like a nail. Do we have only hammers? How do we find out? Have we become myopic? What tools do we have? Are they working? (Adamson, et al 2005)

We were given the assignment of doing an assessment of our classes for our department. How we did that assessment and what we assessed was our decision. We were all teaching the same business law class and each of us also taught different upper division law classes. Our business law classes had students with a variety of business majors and our upper level classes were mostly accounting measures. At the time there were 11 business law classes taught by three full time professors and four adjunct

instructors. One full time instructor was on sabbatical and not available. The adjunct instructors were invited but did not choose to take part in developing these assessment tools.

Step One – The Reflective Process

As colleagues we decided to meet not only to develop an assessment method, but to trust one another to try to become truly critically reflective instructors with the goal of preparing mutual goals and assessments and to become colleagues in the true sense of the word.

Our first step was to get together informally to begin the process. Our first meeting was a casual meeting over a meal. We decided that we needed to set mutual course goals for these classes. We all had individual class goals, but we needed to develop some core goals. We started throwing out some ideas and quickly discovered that we needed to discover the why each of us felt that certain goals were important. We all wanted to become critically reflective teachers as outlined by Brookfield (1995).

We next discussed our teaching assumptions. At first glance we appear to be a very homogenous group. We are all female, all approximately the same age, all grew up in turbulent times, all attorneys, all have chosen to teach law classes, all were middle children, and we all have the desire to do be a great teacher. It would seem our assumptions would be similar, but we soon discovered differences. What were our basic assumptions and how do our assumptions affect our thinking?

“Assumptions are the taken for granted beliefs about the world and our place within it that seemed so obvious to us as not to need to state explicitly.” (Brookfield

1995 p2) There are three broad types of assumptions: paradigmatic, prescriptive and casual. It is hard for us to recognize that our core beliefs are assumptions. (Brookfield 1995)

Paradigmatic assumptions are the hardest to uncover because they are what we perceive to be reality. Prescriptive assumptions are assumptions about what we think should be happening. Casual assumptions are those that help us understand the world and the process of change. (Brookfield)

By discussing our assumptions what are we risking? How will our colleagues view us? Two of us have power over the third, two have tenure and one does not. Will revealing ideas be professional suicide? We decided to go forward and to continue our discussions about assumptions. We decided before we developed our goals and determined our assessment tools that we would at least understand each other's thinking.

Some of our assumptions included the following:

- The belief that most of the responsibility for our students' learning is our responsibility as instructors
- The belief that our syllabus is a binding contract with our students
- The belief that as instructors we short change our students if we do not cover all of the material
- That as teachers we need to be active participants in the integration of technology in our class
- That curriculum is more than mere subject matter in class
- That curriculum is complex and must be viewed through its relationship with the whole educational process

- That we need to make sure students are provided with opportunities to prepare them for both their present and future life roles
- That as instructors we must continually explore ways to improve learning and teaching
- That we must recognize our students' preferred learning styles, and develop our classes to accommodate those various learning styles
- That adult learners are different from child learners and are self starters
- That the best adult learning occurs when students are made equal partners in the learning process

We saw the process as important so that as colleagues we could see things from a variety of perspectives. Our goals were to search below the surface to devise assessments that truly reflected our core goals. We agreed that we could also have individual goals for our classes.

Although we all taught the same class with the same book, our teaching styles, demands and requirements varied greatly. Did we need to teach the same? Did we need to give the students the same assignments? Did we need to give our students the same final exam? Although our task was to devise an assessment tool that provided data about our students, we decided that it was important to devise a tool that reflected all of our students in all of our classes. (Cox 2005)

We agreed in general that our goal was to make our classes learner centered. We had to think about what that meant to each of us. Did it mean the same thing to each of us? Does that mean giving up control of the class to our students? Does that mean you never lecture to students? Does that mean our students are not accountable to us? What does learner centered mean?

We agreed that moving from teacher-centered classrooms to learner-centered classrooms requires a restructuring of the classroom format from lectures to other more learner-centered activities. Switching from a teacher-centered to learner-centered approach can take everyone out of their comfort zones. We find that many of our students are resistant to taking more responsibility for their own learning. As teachers we have to determine who has control of the student's learning, and more importantly, who should have control. (Generett & Hicks, 2004) We all see ourselves as moving toward being facilitators in the learning process in the classroom. As facilitators creating student-centered classrooms, we realize the balance of power in the classroom needs to be examined and most likely changed. (Felder, 1996) We agreed that a facilitator's job is to be the person who motivates, assists, and empowers students. We agreed that we see our roles as one who helps students to take charge of their own learning processes. (Knowles, 1998) Our dilemma is how one measures learning-centered activities if they are different from teacher-centered activities.

Step Two – Setting Goals:

We agree with Anglo (1993) that the goal of the facilitator should be to set learning goals. A critical part of defining the class is determining what skills we expect our students to learn. Is it critical thinking, research ability, or problem solving? Determining what skills we want to encourage and to facilitate become a critical part of planning the classroom course. What do our students expect to learn from this class? Should we ask them? (Easley, 2004) How do these goals relate to the college and university goals?

We decided the first question we needed to answer was what do we want our students to be able to do when they complete this course? (Walvoord, 2004) We discovered that is not an easy question to answer.

The next set of meetings and communications was to attempt to answer those questions. Do we want specific course goals such as “Our students will know basic legal terms,” or more deep learning goals, such as “Our students will be able to think critically about legal issues?” Is the development of learning skills more important than learning the course content? Are they equally important? Is a student who learns how to learn a subject more capable than a student who learns the content of the class? We already have the college and the university assessing deeper learning skills; do we need to assess the same skills as a department?

According to Hassel (2004), as facilitators our main concern should be developing student responsibility. We agree in general, but how do we evaluate student responsibility? Should every single class in the students’ curriculum have that same goal or are there some classes where content is more important than the process?

Many of our students are accounting majors with the ultimate goal of obtaining their CPA licenses. They need to pass a section of their certification examination on business law to obtain their licenses. Therefore, legal principles and theories are obviously important, but it is not likely that these students will remember these principles in two or three years when they sit for their exams. We agree that our roles as a facilitators are to help our students understand the principles of law, but not to make it the principal focus of the course goals. Instead, the principal goal of this class is

for students to learn how to use the material in a problem-solving way. More important than a temporary understanding of the subject matter is an understanding of where legal theories, principles, concepts, or terms can be found and how they may be applied. As facilitators, we determined our goals should be to teach students how to find legal principles and how to use these principles to solve problems involving legal and accounting issues. We agreed that our primary goals for these legal classes are to help students develop the skills to be learners in the field.

As facilitators we try to design the classes around the various skills students will need to develop. Through various activities we try to have students build on the skills they are learning. (Kolb, 2004)

We agreed as facilitators that our goals would be to lead students through four phases of learning as defined by Kolb: a concrete experience, a reflective observation, an abstract generalization, and an active experimentation. As facilitators we provide the learning exercises, develop insightful questions, introduce pertinent course information, and assign the projects that use these skills. (Kolb, 2004)

We determined that one of our goals as teachers should be to help our students acquire the skills to be self-directed and to achieve self-actualization by taking responsibility for their own learning and creating a desire to become life-long learners. (Wang 2004) As facilitators it is a very difficult task to accomplish. Not only must we guide students to develop these skills, but we must first convince our students that they want to develop these skills.

As facilitators, we need to examine the material to be covered in the courses to determine which material is essential. Does all the material have to be covered? We must determine whether covering all of the material is as important as making sure the content covered will help students develop learning skills and the self awareness needed in the real world. (Miley & Gonsalves (2000) Questions to be answered include whether it is reasonable for students to be required to learn some of the material on their own?

As facilitators we determined that our roles must change from those of lecturers and directors of student learning to those of guides and supporters. We must know how these teaching methods impact student learning. The adult learner has different needs and demands than the child learner. The adult learner needs to know why he or she needs to learn information. The adult learner needs to know how what he or she is learning will relate to his or her current knowledge and needs. In short, students need to have the opportunity to engage in the learning process. (Brookfield, 1997)

There has to be a shift from what a teacher does in the classroom to what is happening in the student's mind. (Wang, 2004) A teacher must see himself or herself as a partner in the learning process and must consider learners' needs and learning styles to help create a learner-centered environment for students. (Wang, 2004)

Most importantly, the learner must be guided to accept the responsibility for learning. (Weimer, 2004) One major problem to establishing a learner-centered environment might be the students. Often, students are resistant to these changes and often see the teaching style as chaotic and threatening. (Weimer, 2004) Substituting

active learning for lectures and holding students responsible for their own learning using self-paced or team-based learning may take students out of their comfort zones and find them resistant to change. Then we have the problem of assessing these activities.

As teachers we decided we have to get beyond the techniques and gimmicks and think about the approach. Everything needs to be designed around learner-centered activities. These activities need to be designed so students develop confidence in themselves and help them become problem-solvers and critical thinkers. (Wooley, 2004) Success in achieving teaching goals can be achieved by measuring students' critical thinking skills, attitudes, technical skills and values. We care about the learning development of our students and want to empower them to think for themselves.

One of the most important goals is that our students will learn how to evaluate what they know, what skills they have, what skills they need, and how to obtain the knowledge or skills they lack. The most important aspect of designing group work is to make sure that students are individually accountable while at the same time designing projects so the group has shared goals. (Bacon 2005) We decided that group activities do not necessarily increase learning outcomes. Therefore, we tried to carefully determine the learning outcomes and tried to design activities that accomplished our desired goals. (Anderson 2004)

Based on those ideas we determined class goals as follows:

- Students will understand and analyze business implications of ethical decisions and will be able to identify the ethical dilemma and stakeholders involved in a problem situation.

- Students will locate appropriate legal materials to evaluate and to analyze a specific business problem and will discuss, in written form, specific legal implications that should influence business decisions.
- Students will use team building and collaborative behaviors in the accomplishment of group tasks and will demonstrate competencies in speaking and writing.
- Students will do independent study and research, including choosing appropriate research topics, identifying sources, and applying that research.

Step Three – Determining Assessment Methods

Anglo stated, “Teaching without learning is just talking.” Assessment should be first and foremost about improving student learning and secondarily about determining accountability for the quality of learning produced. In short, though accountability matters, learning still matters most. (Anglo, 1990) We need a "vision worth working toward." Second, we need a different concept of assessment itself, a new mental model. Third, we need research-based guidelines for effective assessment practice that will increase the odds of achieving more productive instruction and more effective learning. (Anglo, 1990)

First, we need to develop shared trust; second, shared visions and goals; and third, shared language and concepts. Fourth, we need to identify research-based guidelines that can orient our assessment efforts toward the goal of creating productive learning communities. (Anglo, 1990)

No matter how much planning we do for a particular class, we need to know whether our students are learning what we think they are learning. We do a myriad of assessments in the classroom for us to determine whether our students are learning and whether they are learning what we think they are learning. We look for ways to measure deep learning skills,

such as research skills, critical thinking skills, decision making and leadership skills. These skills are usually the same ones our department is attempting to measure, the same ones the College of Business is attempting to measure, and the same ones the university itself is attempting to measure. (Walvoord, 2004) Quality assessment impacts student learning and instruction. What else should we be doing?

We discussed that our assessment can also be used to motivate students. Giving the students the measure of assessment up front helps them know exactly what is expected of them and can motivate them to do better. Assessment can be integrated into the learning experience. Integrated assessment throughout the semester can help make decisions as to whether we need to continue with assignments or stop and reinforce information. Assessment can help determine when we need to give more examples and when we need to include various assignments. (Palmer, 1998)

The first step is to determine the purpose of the assessment and to develop learning outcomes. We need to determine what student trait, skill or ability we need to assess and at what level should the students perform. Then, we need to choose activities and assignments that will demonstrate what we are trying to measure. Next, we need to determine what criteria are important for each task. Then, we need to develop the criteria so that they are both observable and measurable. Then, we need to create the assessment type that accurately reflects the information we are trying to assess. (Walvoord, 2004) We decided that rubrics would work best for us, so we must determine the skills we are measuring with each desired learning outcome. (Andrade 2004) A sample assessment scoring guidelines and rubrics are shown below in Table 1.

Table 1 Sample Assessment Scoring Guidelines/Rubrics

Learning Outcome: Students will demonstrate research skills to locate and evaluate appropriate legal material and to understand implications to business decisions			
Primary Trait	Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
Quality/Quantity of Legal Information	Student fails to identify legal concepts correctly and or unable to locate adequate number of legal sources	Student was able to locate adequate number of legal sources and is able to identify legal sources and use this appropriately	Student is able to identify legal sources and use them all appropriately within the content.
Relation to Business Concepts	Students are unable to relate sufficient legal concepts to business decisions studied	Students can relate at least one half of the legal concepts to the business decisions studied	Student successfully relates all legal concepts to business decisions studied
Organization/Format	Student's research information is difficult to follow research and has no particular order.	Student's research has basic order but logic maybe unclear.	Student research provides logical order and can be followed clearly.

The main reason to use assessment is to provide the instructor with information that will allow him or her to make corrections prior to the end of the course and help both the instructor and the student develop a good relationship, and increase the success of learning. (Cross, 1990) It also helps the teacher to realize that teaching is an ongoing process that evolves over time. For students, it helps them take responsibility for their own learning and helps them realize their teacher does care about their learning. (Walvoord, 2004)

According to Anglo, if learning really matters most, then our assessment practices should help students develop the skills, dispositions, and knowledge needed to do the following:

- Engage actively – intellectually and emotionally – in their academic work.
 - Set and maintain realistically high, personally meaningful expectations and goals.
 - Provide, receive, and make use of regular, timely, specific feedback.
 - Become explicitly aware of their values, beliefs, preconceptions, and prior learning, and be willing to unlearn when necessary.
 - Work in ways that recognize (and stretch) their present learning styles or preferences and levels of development.
 - Seek and find connections to and real-world applications of what they’re learning.
 - Understand and value the criteria, standards, and methods by which they are assessed and evaluated.
 - Work regularly and productively with academic staff.
 - Work regularly and productively with other students.
 - Invest as much engaged time and high-quality effort as possible in academic work.
- (Angelo, 1999)

Next, we discussed whether we needed to give our students the same assignment in our classes if we used the same rubric. After much discussion we determined that the actual assignment we gave was not so important as what skills the assignment required the students to use to meet our criteria for a particular learning outcome. We each picked different assignments. (See appendix) From these assignments we applied the rubric to the assignment.

Determining the Results and Writing the Report

Once we determined the goals for the classes, we needed to write a report and answer the following questions:

- What was the student learning performance measured?
- How does it relate to the college and university goals?
- What was the method of assessment?
- Who did the assessment?
- When did the assessment occur?
- What was the criterion?
- What attended to learn?
- What do we do next?

In our next step we applied the rubrics we developed for the particular assignments in our classes. We decided that the standard of mastery was 70% or better. For the particular learning outcome, "Students will understand and analyze business implications of ethical decisions and be able to identify the ethical dilemma and stakeholders" we assessed 168 students in 5 of 11 classes with a possible 408 students. We decided that the five classes were a statistically significant group. The results are shown below:

Identification of the ethical dilemma		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
13	39	6
16	71	21
Identification of Stakeholders		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
22	33	3
18	75	15
Decision Making		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
9	35	14
14	68	26

Next we assessed upper division law classes. For the learning outcome “Student will locate appropriate legal materials to evaluate and analyze a specific business problem and will discuss, in written form, specific legal implication that should influence business decisions” we assessed 64 students in two different upper division law classes, namely Employment Law and Contract Law.

Quality and Currency of legal Information		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
1	11	16
1	21	14
Relation to Business Concepts		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
0	17	11

0	20	16
Organization/Format		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
0	18	10
3	25	8
Writing Mechanics		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
1	11	16
3	22	11
Research skills - use of databases		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
1	11	16
2	14	20
Understanding of language and terms of law		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
0	12	16
1	7	28

Use of language		
Unacceptable	Acceptable	Exceptional
2	10	16
1	16	19

The Final Step –Where Do We Need to Make Changes?

We were pleased with our first efforts, but we are taking steps to make a variety of changes. First, we will be meeting as a group again in the fall and will make efforts to include adjunct faculty in the process. We intend to meet first to review our goals. Next, we will have each professor including every adjunct instructor select a student activity that can be measured to fit with a classroom goal. We will complete the following form at the beginning of the semester:

BLAW200 Legal, Political, Regulatory, Environment of Business		
Course Goals	Learning Outcomes	Assessment Instruments
Students will be able	Students will understand	A instructor – B instructor C instructor D instructor E instructor F instructor G instructor H instructor

Next, we will be meeting throughout the semester to further reflect, refine goals and continue to brainstorm.

Conclusion

In conclusion, in this process we are trying to answer the question of “How do we know whether our students know what we think they know?”, and maybe more importantly, “How do our students know what they know?” (Velta, Berardinelli, Burrow, 1998)

We are also trying to be true learning-centered teachers and facilitators. As faculty members we are convinced that our students learn more if we set high expectations of them and try to engage them in activities that provide deep learning skills. We are committed to giving them frequent and meaningful feedback, but more importantly, we are committed to make sure our students know what we expect of them. We find that finely honed assessment will help us answer the question “Are our students learning what we think we are learning and helping us as instructors to become better facilitators?” (Eder, 2004) Most importantly, this process has allowed becoming true colleagues – not just in name, but in a true collegiate partnership

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**DEVELOPING THE CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS
OF INTERNATIONAL MANAGERS**

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DEVELOPING THE CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS OF INTERNATIONAL MANAGERS

International executives rate intercultural competence as the most important criterion for the success of a global business person. This paper describes cross-cultural exercises designed to develop this competence, an experiment to test their effectiveness, and the implications.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of global security and health warning, companies are pursuing business opportunities around the world. Nearly 7 million Americans will have traveled overseas on business in 2004 and over 6 million overseas residents will come to the U.S. on business (International Travel Administration, 2004). This international activity has increased the likelihood that many American managers will have interactions with business people from other cultures. Moreover, the fortunes of their companies increasingly depend on the success of these contacts (Bhawuk, 2001); as a result, it has become essential that these encounters be productive. However, the potential for cross-cultural mistakes and conflicts, both here and overseas, is very high. Little wonder that international executives rate cross-cultural skills as the most important criterion for the success of an international business person (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). As a consequence, company executives are concentrating on preparing their personnel for the challenges of this global marketplace. This paper reports on a training program designed to develop the cross-cultural skills of managers, and the results of an experiment testing the effectiveness of the program.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

While American organizations recognize the importance of international business, most training and development programs in the United States deal inadequately with the potential conflicts that result from cross-cultural interactions. Too often the issue is addressed only at the cognitive level--focusing on superficial dos and don'ts (Bhawuk, 2001). Managers who envision international careers in business must prepare for life in foreign cognitive and behavior contexts; cross-cultural considerations must be learned both intellectually and experientially (Serrie, 1992). This means being able to manage cultural differences on three distinct levels. First, managers must be able to cross-culturally manage themselves: to move personally beyond

culture shock and adapt to the alien location to where they have been sent, or to appropriately receive foreign visitors in the manager's home country.

Second, they must be able to manage cross-cultural differences at the interpersonal level. This includes relating effectively to fellow employees, suppliers, customers, and government officials in a foreign environment. They also must be prepared to deal with foreign stakeholders when they visit the manager's home country. In the case of an expatriate resident, this also includes dealing competently with the host nationals with which they come in contact in daily life, such as taxi drives, store clerks, service people and neighbors. Personal life in a foreign culture often includes helping spouses, children, and home country friends and co-workers to adapt to the host culture. Home country managers must be capable of effectively communicating, negotiating, and entertaining visiting foreign stakeholders.

Third they must be able to cross-culturally manage at the organizational or institutional level. This means possessing enough understanding of both their host culture and their home culture to be able to make correct managerial decisions regarding their organization's work force, its commercial markets, the community in which it operates, and the country which is its host. Although the five exercises are separable, when used collectively they are especially effective in building cross-cultural management skills on all three levels--the self, the interpersonal, and the institutional (Serrie, 1992).

To empirically test the effectiveness of these training exercises to develop intercultural sensitivity-- the ability to function effectively in cross-cultural interactions (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992), a pretest-posttest experimental design was conducted with treatment and control groups. The paper next describes the five cross-cultural exercises, the experiment, the results, and the implications.

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING EXERCISES

Module 1: Goals of the Training Program

During first half-day session, in addition to introductions and orientation, the trainer will focus on the goals of the program which will help participants to: "(1) manage the stress of cross-cultural interaction, and thus make good personal adjustments, (2) develop and maintain interpersonal relationships, (3) complete the tasks they originally set out to accomplish, and (4) restrict the time need for successful adjustment to what would be expected in a more familiar context. In designing actually training programs, most trainers choose a combinations of ways to these goals" (Cushner & Brislin, 1996, pg. 20).

Module 2: Cross-Cultural Interview

In this exercise, each participant will interview one foreigner who is from a culture different from his or her own, and whom he or she has never met before. This exercise provides experience and builds skills at the first two levels of cross-cultural management, self and interpersonal. It helps trainees overcome inertia and fear about getting to know strangers from a different culture, and provides the participants with an opportunity to successfully motivate a foreign stranger to expend a significant effort on their behalf. On the completion of the exercise, each trainee shares his or her strategy for meeting the foreigner and for getting him or her to do the interview.

This exercise requires that the trainer do some preparation in advance. To make the assignment more challenging, the foreigners to be interviewed should be recent arrivals. One source of these foreigners would be individuals participating in English as a Second Language (ESL) programs in the United States. Reports suggest there are over 100 proprietary ESL schools in the U.S., and additionally most universities, colleges, and community colleges have international student organizations, many of whose members are new arrivals.

Module 3: Cross-Cultural Incident

This exercise makes use of the 110 critical incidents detailed by Cushner and Brislin in their book Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide, 2nd edition (1996). Each incident describes a realistic cross-cultural misunderstanding, four plausible explanations for the misunderstanding, and an evaluation of each explanation. The book is a “culture-general assimilator” in that the incidents describe a wide variety of cultural situations and reflect 18 themes that evolved from their research (i.e., anxiety, time and space, ambiguity, prejudice and ethnocentrism, etc.). In this activity trainees discuss and demonstrate the cross-cultural incidents. The emphasis is on having participants experience the cultural conflict rather than simply considering it intellectually.

This exercise addresses the first two cross-cultural management levels--self and interpersonal--by developing skills of recognizing and correcting a cross-cultural error. Trainees learn to accept the virtual inevitability of their making some cross-cultural errors in the field, but not to accept their repeating the errors. They also learn that errors in appropriate behavior are far worse than mere inability to speak the host country language. The participants further learn to strategically recover in such situations, and soon afterwards seek out explanation of their cross-cultural error from a member of the host culture. In addition, they correct their understanding of the host culture and develop a mastery of appropriate cultural behavior in similar situations in the future.

Module 4: Cross-Cultural News

Each trainee finds a newspaper or magazine article that describes an American work organization adapting, or having difficulty in adapting, to the culture of a foreign country. The participants then write an analysis of the cross-cultural differences and explain why the American organization is successful or unsuccessful in resolving its cross-cultural differences. This exercise builds analytical skills at the third or institutional level of cross-cultural management. Trainees become acquainted with cases involving well-known organizations confronting cultural differences that result in real and crucial consequences at the institutional level and which offer parallels to the personal and interpersonal levels that they have already experienced.

Module 5: Cross-Cultural Skit

For this exercise, each trainee is assigned to one of several "Country Groups" that have been formed in the training facility. The Country Groups are charged with planning, writing, and performing a skit before the entire class that illustrates a minimum of five cross-cultural blunders that an American person might make in the host culture represented by the Country Group. Groups must organize the blunders into a business-related scenario involving social interaction between one or more individuals representing Americans and one or more individuals representing host country nationals.

This exercise builds skills and emotional commitment at all three levels of cross-cultural management--self, interpersonal, and institutional--in recognizing and in rejecting the ignorance and arrogance that produces many kinds of cross-cultural errors. The true costs of cross-cultural errors are exposed, including harm to self, harm to others at the interpersonal levels, and harm to the host culture or to the work organization at the institutional level.

Module 6: Cross-Cultural Event

For this exercise each a team of trainees conceives, plans and carries out a program for improving the cross-cultural relations, using the ESL or ISO resources discussed in Module 2.

At a very minimum, each participant should bring together at least two foreigners and two local individuals who have never met before, and organize pleasant activities and interesting discussions that will foster cross-cultural understanding and friendship. A short proposal should be approved in advance and after the program, a report should be submitted that summarizes the activity, the quality of the interaction, and evidence of improvement in cross-cultural relations among the persons involved.

This exercise builds skills at all three levels of cross-cultural management, for it involves mastery of self, of interpersonal relations, and of the dynamics of small groups. It is the most difficult of all the exercises, and represents the culmination of the four exercises preceding it. In this exercise, each trainee becomes an *agent of cultural change* within his or her own organization, and is equipped with knowledge and skills to figure out a way to actually make a real improvement in a problematic multicultural institutional situation. Some of the successful cross-cultural management events have involved getting together to cook a meal, going to the beach, going bowling, or organizing baseball or soccer games.

Although the five exercises may be used separately, when used collectively they are related and synergistic. While the news exercise is academic, the others are experiential and engage the emotions. The incident and news exercises require intellectual analysis of real events that have already happened. The interview, skit, and event exercises require planned personal action. The interview and management exercise also involve interactions in the real world. These five exercises strongly reinforce each participant's sense of being empowered to make a positive difference in difficult cultural situations that the trainees may face in the future..

METHODOLOGY

A pre-test, post-test research design with a treatment-group and control-groups was developed to test the effectiveness of the five exercises described above. Participants in the experiment were a convenience sample of college students. Three groups of students participated in the experiment: a group of Americans taking "Introduction to International Business" (referred to in this paper as the "U.S. Control" group), a group of foreign students taking a course called "Living in the U.S.A." (labeled the "Non-U.S. Control" group), and a group of American students taking a "Cross-Cultural Primer" course (referred to as the "U.S. Treatment" group). It was this course that employed the five training exercises described earlier.

One of the most widely used instruments to measure cross-cultural skills is the Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI). Intercultural sensitivity "is sensitivity to the importance of cultural differences and to the points of view of people in other cultures" (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992, p. 414). To measure this attribute, Bhawuk and Brislin developed a 46-item, theory-based instrument that would assess an individual's ability to modify his or her behavior in other cultures. Those who could change their behavior in a culturally appropriate fashion were deemed interculturally sensitive and would be expected to be successful in overseas assignments or in culturally diverse settings.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A total of 88 participants completed the pre-test ICSI and 84 completed the post-test version. The participants were distributed as follows:

<u>Groups</u>	<u>Pre-Test</u>	<u>Post-Test</u>
U.S. Experiment	19	18
U.S. Control	43	42
Non-U.S. Control	<u>26</u>	<u>24</u>
	88	84

Data analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the ICSI means for the three groups. Table 1 reveals that in the Pre-Test, when the three groups were compared against each other (reading vertically); none had a significantly higher ICSI score. From a starting point, therefore, the groups were fairly comparable in terms of intercultural sensitivity. In the Post-Test, again when all groups are compared to each other, only one group had a significantly higher mean: the U.S. Treatment group. And the differences were significant at $p < .01$.

This increase in the U.S. Treatment mean is reflected in a comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test results (reading horizontally). The U.S. Treatment mean is the only result that is significant at $p < .01$. In fact, it was the only result that was even close to showing a significant increase.

DISCUSSION

Participants in the U.S. Control group had the “typical” pedagogical exposure to cultural differences in international business. They read about it, wrote about it, discussed it, and were tested on it. Their test scores indicate that they intellectually understood many of the causes and consequences of cultural conflict. Yet they showed no significant growth in their ability to deal with cross-cultural problems. The Non-U.S. Control group represents the students who might be expected to be somewhat more intercultural sensitive by virtue of the fact that they have been raised abroad and have been widely traveled individuals. They too read, discussed, and wrote about the issue of cultural differences. Yet in the pretest, their scores were

not significantly higher than any of the other groups and they showed no significant growth during their orientation course.

Table 1: Pre-Test/Post-Test Results

Group	Pretest Mean/Number	Post Test Mean/Number	Significance
U.S. Control	4.183/43	4.217/42	.7638
U.S. Experiment	4.383/19	4.913/18	.0034*
	.1190	.0001*	

*p<.05

Group	Pretest Mean/Number	Post Test Mean/Number	Significance
Non-U.S.Control	4.244/26	4.010/24	.2966

U.S. Experiment	4.383/19	4.913/18	.0034*
	.2553	.0024*	

*p<.05

Group	Pretest Mean/Number	Post Test Mean/Number	Significance
U.S. Control	4.183/43	4.217/42	.7638
Non-U.S.Control	4.244/26	4.010/24	.2966
	.5495	.3163	

Instead, this study suggests that intercultural sensitivity does not significantly increase by simply living in a foreign country, or by taking an overview course in international business. It requires specific cross-cultural skill training that addresses both the intellectual and experiential aspects of cultural differences. The study also indicates that there is a practical and effective way for trainers and educators to significantly improve intercultural sensitivity.

Still, it is important to recognize that the results of any experiment have to be interpreted with caution. The sample of this study, for example, was very small and selected purely for its convenience. As a consequence, the results can not be generalized to a larger population. Nevertheless, the potential of the results indicate that this topic deserves further examination. As with any single-study investigation, it would be useful to replicate and extend the research.

This paper provides evidence that intercultural sensitivity is a skill that can be learned as well as measured. Since these skills are reported to be an important criterion of an individual's success in international business, trainers should consider using the five exercises to provide this valuable attribute.

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What's Happening With The U.S. Housing Market?

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Abstract

The economic health of the U.S. housing market usually reflects the relative vigor of the entire U.S. economy. One of the best indicators of how the U.S. economy is doing is the housing industry. If the economy is weak, the housing industry is the first signal. Fewer housing starts and smaller new homes is the sign of a weak economy. More housing starts and larger new homes is a sign of a strong economy. The authors will focus on current indicators that affect the home building industry, including mortgage interest rates, housing starts, and personal income. The authors will analyze the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and trends that factor into the forecast for the home building industry. Recommendations and strategic initiatives for sustaining the growth of the home building industry will be described.

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***THE ECONOMIC OUTLOOK
FOR THE U.S. HOUSING MARKET***

The purpose of this research is to present a brief history of the home building industry, an industry overview, and a SWOTT analysis of the industry. Additionally, the authors will address the impact of real GDP, the unemployment rate, and the inflation rate as measured by the consumer price index (CPI). The authors will discuss indicators that are relevant to the home building industry, including mortgage interest rates, housing starts, and personal income. In addition, the authors will present an in-depth analysis of how the forecast will affect the home building industry, including recommendations and strategic initiatives for sustaining the growth of the home building industry. The home building industry is a key indicator as to the health of the economy. The more homes under construction the healthier the economy. When homebuilders do well, the rest of the nation tends to follow suit.

Brief History and Overview

The current worldwide boom in residential real estate is the biggest bubble in history, according to a report in *The Economist* magazine. Not since the beginning of time, have home prices been on the rise, for so fast, and for so long. House prices in relation to rent have hit an all time high in the U.S. The ratio is 35 percent above its 1975-2000 average. A drop in home prices is more likely today than after previous booms for three reasons, according to *The Economist*. Homes are more overvalued, inflation is much lower, and many more people have been buying homes as an investment (Economists calls housing, 2005).

Throughout history, financial bubbles have continued to inflate for longer than believed possible. In many countries around the globe, housing prices are already at record levels in relation to rents and incomes. It is impossible to predict how long the trend will last. (After the fall, 2005)

Strengths

The Construction Analysis report identifies the major strengths in the home building industry as the small business homebuilder and technology. The small business homebuilders represent strength within the industry because they start fewer homes. This means that these companies have less money tied up in homes that are sitting on the custom housing market. Since the customers come to the builder and ask them to build their homes, this tends to keep these firms out of the speculative housing market. Small builders are flexible because they can move from residential construction into the light commercial construction or remodeling markets easily. (Industry Analysis, 2004)

Weakness

The industry is dependent on the building material industry. Because of the shortage of lumber and sheetrock, these products sell at inflated price. To stay ahead of the demand the industry is developing new building materials that minimize the industries dependency on these natural resources.

Opportunities

“If you are a high school graduate and like to work outdoors, this could be the chance of a lifetime for you to enter the field of construction and follow your path to a successful career.” (MacLeish 2005) Opportunities abound in the home building industry. With tighter restrictions on the borders and stiffer penalties for hiring illegal aliens, the home building industry is experiencing a shortage of qualified laborers. The shortage is for carpenters, framers, sheet rockers, roofers as well as plumbers, electricians, tile layers and painters. For the skilled laborer, the wages are the highest in history. The increases in salaries equate to higher prices for the home, but the opportunity is there for anyone who is willing to learn the trade and wants to work.

Threats

Currently, raw materials are the biggest threats to the home building industry. Raw material costs have risen over the past few years, mostly due to China's expanding economy. China's demand for lumber, cement, and steel is causing the price of these materials to increase significantly. Homebuilders have to pass this increase on to the price of the homes. The recent surge in oil prices has also increased the price of raw materials. All oil-based products, such as roofing material, have almost doubled in cost. The rise in new home prices may cause consumers to purchase older homes, which will ultimately affect new home sales.

Trends

Better Homes and Gardens reports the top trends in the home building market for 2005. The current trend in the home building market is for homebuyers to trade extra square footage for well-crafted details, luxurious amenities, pantries, recycling centers, closet organizer systems, specialized kitchen storage, pre-wiring for home theater, home computer networks, and security systems. The trend further includes effective air filters that trap allergens as fast as a sneeze, and replacing arsenic-laden treated lumber with kinder, gentler preservatives. The replacement of wooden supports with lightweight beams that can span longer distances than typical wood joists reduces the need for supporting posts or walls. The benefit: complete flexibility in the arrangement of rooms. Safety is high on the list: slip-proof stair-treads, no-step entries, wide doorways, bathroom grab bars, and single-story floor plans are all in demand. Taking time to "smell the roses" has become a trend, by turning the inside to the outside with multilevel decks and patios, outdoor fireplaces, high-end outdoor furniture, lavish water features, and weather-resistant entertainment systems.

Interest Rates

Interest Rates have many different definitions under the Home Building format. The annual rate of interest on the home loan is expressed as a percentage of 100. Interest Accrual Rate is the percentage rate at which interest accrues on the mortgage. In most cases, it is also the rate used to calculate the monthly payments. In recent years, the capital growth in the value of a home has often exceeded the annual principal payments on a mortgage. The research shows how the interest rate each year is the average of the nominal interest rates for special U.S. Government obligations. The trust funds receive 12-month interest estimates from the government. Interest for these securities is generally compounded semi-annually. The real interest rate is defined to be the annual yield rate for investments in these securities divided by the annual rate of growth in the CPI for the first year after issuance. For 2005, the average annual nominal interest rate for securities newly issued to the trust funds was 4.3 percent, an increase of 0.2 percentage point from the average nominal interest rate of 4.1 percent for 2004.

In the OSDI Trustees Report “developing a reasonable range of assumed ultimate future real interest rates for the three alternatives, historical experience was examined for the 40 years and 10-year subperiods. In the 40-year period, the real interest rate averaged 2.9 percent per year. For the four 10-year subperiods, the real interest rates averaged 1.6, 0.8, 5.6, and 3.7 percent, respectively. The assumed ultimate real interest rates are 3.7 percent, 3.0 percent, and 2.2 percent for the low cost, intermediate, and high cost assumptions, respectively. These ultimate real interest rates, when combined with the ultimate CPI assumptions of 1.8, 2.8, and 3.8 percent, yield ultimate nominal interest rates of about 5.5 percent for the low cost

assumptions, about 5.8 percent for the intermediate assumptions, and about 6.0 percent for the high cost assumptions.” (Economic Method, 2005)

“For the 10-year short-range projection period, nominal interest rates are projected based on changes in the business cycle and in the CPI. Under the intermediate assumptions, the nominal interest rate is projected to rise from 4.3 percent for 2004 to 5.6 for 2008 and 2009, and to 5.7 percent for 2010, reflecting a recovering economy along with a higher rate of inflation. Thereafter, the nominal interest rate rises to the ultimate assumed level of 5.8 percent for 2011. For the low cost assumptions, the average annual nominal interest rate is assumed to reach an ultimate level of about 5.5 percent for 2012. For the high cost assumptions, it is assumed to peak at 8.7 percent for 2010, and then decline to an ultimate rate of about 6.0 percent for 2013.” (Economic Method, 2005)

In a Standards and Poor’s (S&P) analysis report, “low mortgage rates drove housing demand in the past few years, and although rates are rising they should stay accommodative for the next few years. Rates on the average 30-year fixed rate mortgage moved from 5.4% in March 2004 to 6.4% in June 2004, however they have since returned to 5.7% in early November. With S&P projecting annual mortgage rate averages to rise in coming years, but to remain below 7% through 2007, solid levels of home sales should continue. Remodeling also has been driven by funds from high levels of refinancing.” (Business Analysis 2004)

“While a pickup in rates should reduce refinancing, home values have risen sharply over the past few years, so home equity loans have become a major source of funds. In addition, a better economy should lead commercial parties to start long-delayed projects. Furthermore, once interest rates begin to move upward, demand may remain the same or even increase

initially, as previously undecided buyers rush to purchase before rates rise.” (Business Analysis 2004)

Unemployment

“In economics, a person who is able and willing to work yet is unable to find a paying job is considered unemployed. The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed workers divided by the total civilian labor force, which includes both the unemployed and those with jobs (all those willing and able to work for pay). In practice, measuring the number of unemployed workers actually seeking work is notoriously difficult. There are several different methods for measuring the number of unemployed workers. Each method has its own biases and the different systems make comparing unemployment statistics between countries, especially those with different systems, difficult.” (Unemployment Rate)

According to the unemployment information that was stated on the website “the BLS counts employment and unemployment (of those over 16 years of age) using a sample survey of households. In BLS definitions, people are considered employed if they did any work at all for pay or profit during the survey week. This includes not only regular full-time year-round employment but also all part-time and temporary work. Workers are also counted as “employed” if they have a job at which they did not work during the survey week because they were: On vacation; ill, taking care of family or personal obligations, on maternity/paternity leave etc.

The unemployment rate is a key indicator of how well the economy is doing. The research shows that that Federal Reserve cannot agree on what the projected rate will be at the

end of 2006. The Federal Reserve monetary policy report submitted to the Congress on July 20, 2005 states, "The civilian unemployment rate is expected to average 5 percent in both the fourth quarter of 2005 and the fourth quarter of 2006." The November 2005 Survey of Professional Forecasters predicts "unemployment averaging 5.1 percent in 2005 and 4.9 percent in 2006 (Monetary Policy Report, 2005). If one were to take the average rates that the professional forecaster projected over the two years, they will average 5 percent. The forecast by the professional forecasters is the most recent and is probably the closest to what the unemployment rate should be.

Housing Starts

Housing Starts are a measure of the number of residential units on which construction is begun each month. A start in construction is defined as the beginning of excavation of the foundation for the building and is comprised primarily of residential housing. Building permits are permits taken out in order to allow excavation. An increase in building permits and starts usually occurs a few months after a reduction in mortgage rates. Permits lead starts, but permits are not required in all regions of the country, and the level of permits therefore tends to be less than the level of starts over time.

There are instances where weather changes and natural disasters could produce tremendous delays in housing starts for a region. Housing data tracks the four major regions of the U. S.: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Building permit data is

released at the same time as housing starts. Permit activity provides insight into housing and overall economic activity in upcoming months. It is so important that it is included in the index of leading economic indicators.

Housing activity is directly impacted by mortgage rates. Higher interest rates increase housing costs and reduce the number of qualified borrowers, thus, a decline in home sales and drop-off in starts. Conversely, lower interest rates increases housing affordability and spurs homes sales and housing starts.

A housing explosion is occurring across the land with home ownership reaching an all-time high of 67%. "Homebuilders slowed down their work this year following an upwardly revised housing starts number that was the highest in 32 years and the highest-ever recorded figure for single-family housing starts." (IHB 2005) "Employment growth, particularly in full-time jobs, in recent years, and very low mortgage rates continue to fuel high levels of housing starts." (Dugan 2005) Some analysts see the housing boom continuing throughout 2005, saying the market and its fundamentals remain strong.

Analysts had expected housing starts to post a modest gain. Privately owned housing starts in October were at a seasonally adjusted annual rate of 2,014,000, a 5.6 percent decline from September's figure of 2,219,000. Single-family housing starts in October 2005 were at a rate of 1,704,000, 3.7 percent below September. Building permits issued also declined in October. Overall, permits issued totaled 2,071,000, a 6.7 percent decline from September. Of those, single-family permits were 1,681,000 a decline of 4.9 percent.

Downward pressure on rental prices mainly resulted from an increase in demand for homeownership, which was spurred by historically low mortgage interest rates as housing starts

and home sales surged in the recent recession and recovery. The national rental vacancy rate jumped to 7.8 percent in the fourth quarter. This effect was compounded by the way owner-occupied housing prices are measured in the CPI. The CPI uses a rental-equivalence approach, measuring the value of the shelter services an owner receives from his or her home. Price movements in owners' equivalent rent reflect changes in prices of rental units that are comparable in characteristics to owner-occupied homes. Therefore, increased demand for homeownership put downward pressure not only on tenants' rent but also on owners' equivalent rent, which is the largest component in the CPI." (Survey of Professional Economist, 2005)

Personal Income

Personal income includes all sources of earnings, such as wages (which represents about 58% of the total), interest, dividends, proprietor's income, and other miscellaneous labor income. Personal income is the total received by all resident households from employment, self-employment, investments (dividends, interest, and rent), and transfer payments, (Social Security, welfare, unemployment benefits). It is a key indicator of the economy's size and health. Consumption is important, because it represents over one-half of the gross domestic product (GDP).

It is the income that households have available for spending or saving. Consumption is lower than disposable income for most households. Single elderly and single mothers have the lowest level of adjusted income and consumption of any households examined. They are also the only two family types that have higher consumption than income. Changes in wages, salaries and supplementary labor income have the most significant impact in terms of the relative shifts in personal disposable income. Savings are affected by factors such as general economic conditions, age, and individual preferences. However, income is probably the most important determinant of the savings behavior of individuals.

The US administration scaled down its economic growth guidance for 2005 to 3.4%, from 3.5% projected in December last year. The US economy had grown 3.9% in 2004. The forecast for the consumer price index has been raised from the earlier guided 2% to 2.9% due to the continued surge in energy prices. The White House forecast assumes that the Federal Reserve will only raise the interest rates marginally in the near future. The National Association of Business Economics (NABE) trimmed its growth forecasts for the U.S. economy for 2005 to 3.4% from their earlier estimate of 3.6%. The U.S. economy had grown at a pace of 4.4% in

2004. Recessions usually occur when consumers stop spending, which then drives down income growth. Looking solely at income growth, one may therefore miss the turning point when consumers stop spending.

The U.S. Commerce Department said in a monthly report that personal spending increased by 0.5% last month, as compared to an increase of 0.1% in January this year. The core inflation index, which excludes the volatile food and energy costs, increased by 0.2% last month, as compared to an increase of 0.3% in January this year, the report said. According to the Commerce Department, the 0.3% increase in personal income last month was driven primarily by a surge of 262,000 new jobs, which marked the highest job gains in the past four months (Personal Income, 2005)

GDP

The gross domestic product (GDP) is used as a broad range measure of economic activity over a specified period. Nominal GDP and real GDP are the two ways that GDP is measured. Nominal GDP measures the value of final goods and services quarterly using current prices. Real GDP adjusts the nominal GDP value for inflationary purposes in order to compare the values from one year to the next. Dividing the nominal GDP by the price index and multiplying that value by 100, creates the real GDP value.

There are four areas of GDP that are measured: consumption, government spending, investment, and net exports. Consumption makes up roughly 2/3 of GDP and measures daily consumer transactions, such as food, gasoline, and clothes. New home sales fall under the

investment category. Currently the real GDP for the 2nd quarter of 2005 was 3.3%. The 3rd quarter preliminary results for 2005 came in slightly higher at 4.3%. This increase was due mostly to personal consumption, federal spending, and housing investment. (Schenk, 2002)

"The U.S. economy today is performing strongly and with the help of good economic policies from the Administration and the Fed, this economy continues to demonstrate flexibility and dynamism – even in the face of the severe weather disruptions we faced this summer. Real GDP and payrolls are expected to continue to grow at an above-trend rate while core inflation remains low," said Treasury Secretary John Snow. According to the White House Administration, GDP is expected to grow 3.4% in 2006 and 3.3% in 2007. The housing industry is a critical driver of the U.S. economy, representing 14% of U.S. GDP and an investment by consumers in excess of \$11 trillion. The combination of consumption and private investment spending on housing represented about 15% of GDP in 2001, and close to that in 2002 and 2003. (White House Administration)

CPI

The consumer price index (CPI) measures the prices of items consumers purchase throughout a fixed period. The prices of roughly 400 items that consumers usually purchase are checked across the United States, then compared against the prices of these same items at an earlier date. This data is used to determine the amount of inflation or deflation. According to the Administration, the CPI is expected to remain steady at 2.4%. (White House Administration)

The consumer price index for urban customers increased 0.2 percent in October 2005, bringing the cumulative level to 199.2. The index for housing rose 0.9 percent in October, following an increase of 0.4 percent in September. Transportation costs changed from 5.1% in September to -1.3 % in October. Energy costs also declined from 12% to 0.2%. These areas affected the overall percent increase in consumer prices. The CPI has been steadily increasing over recent months, which triggers more rate hikes. However, with oil and gas prices receding, the inflation rate should remain steady. (U.S. Department of Labor)

Conclusion

The home building industry has been a key indicator to the health of the economy. With interest rates rising and housing starts on the decline, some are worried that the home building industry is on the verge of collapse. However, according to David Seider, Chief Economist for the National Association of Home Builders (NAHB), "The forecast depicts an orderly slowdown in home sales and housing production in 2006 and 2007, combined with deceleration of national house price appreciation toward historic norms (around 5%). The production level we're forecasting for 2007 is at the midpoint of the long-term forecast range we've established for this decade -- an average of 2 million new housing units per year (including manufactured home shipments). That range is based on estimates of demographics, net replacements and vacancies (including second homes) – the trend factors that eventually win out." (Seider, 2005)

The home building industry has found strength in consolidation, and with their balance sheets showing less debt, they have the ability to purchase smaller builders to gain more market share. Consolidation also brings more flexibility. If a particular market slows, the builders are able to change their target market with relative ease. For example, if a neighborhood is showing a decrease in home sales, the builders may defer their options to purchase the land for the next building phase. (Brush, 2005)

Many home builders feel investors are overreacting to the media hype of a bursting "housing bubble." After all, builders were posting earnings well over 50%; so, any slow down may not be enough to warrant the attention. Toll Brothers is still expected to post 25% earnings growth on average over the next five years. The home building industry may have seen explosive growth due to low interest rates and affordable housing prices over the last couple of years, but slower steadier growth is better for a healthy economy. (Brush, 2005)

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Clarifying Roles in Non-profit Organizations Reach-Up Inc.

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Clarifying Roles in Non-profit Organizations:

Reach-Up Inc. (A)

Reach-Up Inc. is a non-profit social service agency located in St. Cloud, Minnesota. The agency provides a variety of services to the local community through four different programs. These include Head Start which provides education and family support services to children ages 3 to 5 and their families; Family Literacy which serves adults who need to obtain a high school diploma or GED; Kinder Start which serves children when they are moving from Head Start to kindergarten; and Early Head Start which works with parents and their children from birth to three.

The agency employs 85 staff members. The management structure includes a Board of Directors, an Executive Director, and a Management Team which consists of the coordinators of various departments within the organization. In addition, there is a Policy Council that consists of parents of children who are in the Head Start and Early Head Start programs. Since Reach-Up receives its funding primarily through government or other grants it must follow the rules that are stipulated by the funder. The Policy Council was stipulated by the federal government to ensure that parents were a part of the decision making process.

The day-to-day activities of Reach-Up are many. Children are picked up by busses and taken to Head Start centers during the day. The Nutrition Services Coordinator supervises the planning and distribution of meals to the children. Family Advocates meet and talk with the children's parents two to three times annually. The Family Specialist works with pregnant women whose children will be eligible for the Early Head Start program. Transition Advocates

work with the kindergarten teachers of Head Start children. The Literacy Coordinator works with parents who need to complete their education. The program management staff performs all of the duties necessary to make the operation run smoothly.

The Board of Directors is a group of community members who are the final decision makers. The Board's main responsibilities are to:

1. Supervise the Executive Director
2. Monitor the fiscal operations of the organization
3. Develop strategic plans
4. Evaluate services
5. Review policies and procedures
6. Approve grants
7. Recruit and develop Board members

Serve on a standing committee

Promote community participation in Reach-up Programs

Board members are appointed for three year terms and meet once a month with the Executive Director and perhaps one or two other top management staff members. Board members receive an orientation from the Executive Director and other Board members about their duties and responsibilities. Additionally, professional training is available from other organizations such as the local United Way. It is important that Board members understand their duties and responsibilities and how they differ from those of the Management Team or the

Policy Council. For example, if a bus driver fails to pick up a child one Tuesday, this is an issue for that bus driver's supervisor not the Board. But if bussing is a continual problem year after year, then it is an appropriate concern for the Board since the Board evaluates the quality of services. If a particular line item goes over budget, this is an issue for the Fiscal Officer and the supervisor. If it is clear in an annual report to the Board that one of the four major programs is over budget for that year then the Board should hold the Executive Director accountable for this problem.

The Policy Council consists of 18 parents of children who are in Head Start and Early Head Start. They serve one year terms. Their major responsibilities are to:

1. Approve grants
2. Approve objectives
3. Approve hiring and firing decisions
4. Approve enrollment priorities
5. Review fiscal reports

Facilitate the involvement of parents in Reach-Up Programs

Report to parent groups regarding Policy Council activities

Request parent input about decisions

Serve on a standing committee

The purpose of the Policy Council is for parents to give input into the Head Start and Early Head Start programs. These meetings are where parents can raise issues and concerns. They serve as a feedback mechanism. In one situation, parents were concerned about scented markers and the possibility that their children may be sniffing them. The issue was raised at a Policy Council meeting and later discussed among the management staff. The old markers were thrown out and scent free markers were purchased. Another parent was concerned about storage at his grandchild's school and asked about cubby units. Staff members agreed that more space was needed, and Reach-Up purchased a storage unit for the classroom. Such instances demonstrate that the Policy Council provides an opportunity for parents to have input and management staff to receive feedback. It is unusual, however, for such an input process to exist formally. Many nonprofit organizations have only a management staff and board of directors and rely on the board or informal mechanisms for feedback from the community. Thus, the Policy Council members' roles may be confusing for them--particularly their role in approving hiring and firing decisions--so it is important that members understand the role that they play in the organization.

The Executive Director is Jeannette Bineham who has worked for the agency for 8 years. When Bineham was hired the organization was in financial disarray but under her direction, the organization has put its financial house in order and has grown significantly. Bineham's responsibilities are to:

1. Oversee the organization
2. Ensure program efficacy
3. Ensure system operationability

4. Ensure fiscal responsibility
5. Supervise management staff of 14

Bineham meets with the Management Team twice a month. Together they strive to make policy decisions unanimously. Decisions must be made concerning how to comply with funding agency regulations. For example, one funding agency requires that Reach-Up document children's attendance at its programs. How should this documentation occur? Will the same documentation work for all of the programs? What if a child leaves early? Who gets to decide? Other decisions include staff training, meeting schedules, strategic planning, etc. Fourteen is a large number of people to supervise so Bineham meets individually with the team members only as needed.

The Management Team consists of 15 program directors and coordinators all of whom are women. Each supervises a number of employees who carry out the programs. The Management Team meets regularly and as a way to ensure that their meetings are successful, the team developed a set of ground rules that guide their meetings. These rules are written on a poster which is brought periodically to Management Team meetings:

1. We listen to and value everyone's ideas.
2. We will respond to every issue with yes, no, or I'm not sure.
3. It is OK to ask questions.
4. We don't have all the answers.
5. Personal issues/conflicts are handled outside of meetings.

6. We are responsible for our own actions, opinions, and feelings.
7. Honesty, respect, compassion, and share openly.

Shortly after joining the organization, Bineham introduced strategic planning as a management tool to guide the organization's growth. A group of volunteers along with the Board of Directors and the Policy Council worked with her to develop a set of long range plans which were presented to the management team and were adopted by consensus. The plans were reviewed at biannual meetings of the management staff. During these meetings the goals for each unit of the organization were read and the manager responsible for each unit indicated what had been done to achieve that goal. Over the following years this process of goal development and review was embraced as an effective process by both the management and nonmanagement staff. As a result, a second round of strategic planning was initiated and a new set of three year plans was developed for the years 1999-2001. The four major goals for these three years are: 1) to ensure that the staff develop the skills and abilities to provide high quality services, 2) to develop a variety of program options to meet diverse needs, 3) to assist client families to strengthen their self-reliance, and 4) to market their programs to ensure full enrollment and significant waiting lists.

THE ROLE OF NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Nonprofit organizations are different from for-profit organizations. For-profits exist to make a profit for their owners. Nonprofits exist to provide a service to communities. Therefore, non-profits need to be accountable to those communities and also the organizations/governments that provide them with their funding. One of the ways that

nonprofits work to provide this accountability is by appointing community members to their boards. This provides community members with knowledge about how the organization operates and provides the organization with feedback from the community.

Community participation, however, on non-profit boards is not a simple process. The business of nonprofit organizations is quite complex and often difficult for community members to understand. The incidents below demonstrate the complex relationship between boards and staffs.

Incident #1: A Board member heard from a friend that a Reach-Up staff member refused to discuss abortion services with a client. At a monthly Board meeting the member raised this issue for discussion and demanded that Bineham explain why this occurred.

Incident #2: A Board member showed up at the Reach-Up office one afternoon and demanded information about one of the programs from a management staff member.

Question 1: Were either of these actions appropriate for their contexts? In other words, was the topic in incident number one an appropriate topic for a Board meeting? Why or why not? Is it appropriate for a Board member to act the way s/he did in incident number 2?

Question 2: How and to what extent should Board members be involved in day-to-day operations of an organization? If a Board member wants information about the

organization what is the most appropriate way to obtain it? Policy Council members?

Question 3: What are some ways that Board members could interact with the organization? Identify the strengths and weaknesses of each approach that you list.

Question 4: What topics would be appropriate for discussion at a Board meeting? At a Policy Council meeting? At a management staff meeting? Consider the list of topics below. Indicate where the topic would be most appropriately discussed?

1. Where to have vans repaired.
2. A shortfall in the annual budget.
3. Whether or not to renew a rental agreement for classroom space.
4. What types of desks to purchase.
5. Whether to work with the school district to implement a new program to train elementary school teachers how to work with students who had been in Head Start before beginning elementary school?
6. Whether to hold a retirement party for one of the teachers.
7. Whether to apply for a grant from the federal government for money to provide services to more children.
8. How to replace a Board member who has resigned.
9. Parent complaints about bus pick up of their children.
10. Which children's books to purchase.
11. Whether or not to continue the Kinder Start Transition program.

12. A review of the annual objectives for the organization.
13. Whether or not to hire a new teacher.
14. Whether or not to divide the responsibilities of the Executive Director.

Question 5: What happens when topics are discussed in contexts (staff meeting, Board meeting, Council meeting) where you have indicated it should not be discussed?

Question 6: The successful operation of this organization depends on coordination between the Board, the Policy Council, the Executive Director, and the Management Staff. What type of communication must occur in order for members of the Board of Directors and Policy Council to understand their role in the organization? Who should engage in this communication? How should it occur?

Question 7: What kinds of problems could occur if these roles are not clearly understood?

Clarifying Roles in Nonprofit Organizations:

Reach-Up Inc. (B)

One model of nonprofit board development, developed by Karl Mathiasen (1990) suggests that boards develop through three stages. In the first stage, a group of volunteers bands together to work on a particular social issue. This stage is called the “Organizing Board.” In this stage there may be no difference between board members and other members of the organization. There may be just one group of people involved. They may provide the service to the community as well as develop plans for the organization itself. Sometimes a single

individual stands out as the leader of this board and all of the members follow his/her leadership. Or, the entire board is active in the leadership of the organization.

In the second stage, called the “Volunteer Governing Board,” the volunteers begin to become more organized and raise more funds and begin to hire professionals to provide their service. In this stage the board members become less involved in the day-to-day activities of the organization because they now have a staff to handle such duties. They devote more time to thinking about the nature of the organization itself, how it should develop, and how to raise the funds to ensure its existence. There is still some involvement in the day-to-day activities of the staff because the board members have so much knowledge of the organization itself. After all, it wasn’t long before that they were providing the services themselves. The staff appreciates and encourages involvement by the board in day-to-day activities but the balance of power between the board and the staff needs to be negotiated and often these negotiations are difficult. Frequently, board members find it difficult to relinquish their power to staff members because their identities have become closely linked to the activities they performed for the organization before there was a paid staff.

In the final stage of board development, called the “Institutional Board,” the board devotes itself completely to the larger organizing and planning activities and leaves the day-to-day activities to the professional staff. This final stage is frequently referred to as the mature stage and is the result of years of work by both staff and board members. Frequently, community members volunteer to serve on mature boards because of the prestige such positions hold.

- Question 1: Based on the information provided in the Reach-Up Inc. case, how would communication be different at the meetings at each stage of board development? What would be discussed at organizing board meetings? Governing board meetings? Institutional board meetings?
- Question 2: What would the relationship be between the Executive Director and the Board at each of these stages? Between management staff and the Board?
- Question 3: Who is responsible for ensuring that new Board members understand their role?
- Question 4: What problems could arise if role relationships were not clear between any of those involved in such organizations at any of the stages?
- Question 5: Consider the two incidents presented earlier in the case. How might these be handled at each phase of Board development?

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Clarifying Roles in Nonprofit Organizations:

Reach-Up Inc.

Teaching Notes

This case is best used by asking students to read and prepare answers to the questions for the (A) part of the case. The instructor can then begin the class discussion with a role play.

Opening Role Play: Assign one student the role of Executive Director and another the role of new Board member. Have the Executive Director give an orientation to the Board member. Instruct the new Board member to ask questions about what their role in the organization will be.

This can be followed by a discussion of the questions in (A). The instructor could then distribute the (B) portion of the case and either give the students class time to read it or assign it for the next class period. A discussion of the questions in (B) can follow. Some guidelines for discussion appear below.

REACH-UP (A):

Incident #1 A Board member hears a rumor about a staff member refusing to discuss abortion services with a client and requests information at a Board meeting about it. This is an issue for the staff member and his/her supervisor not the Board. Unless there is a specific policy regarding such discussions, it would be an inappropriate topic for the Board. The Board member needs to learn the difference between what is appropriate discussion for the Board and

what is more appropriate for discussion between supervisors and employees. Private personnel related matters should not be discussed at Board meetings. Broad policy questions should be discussed at the Board.

Incident #2 This Board member appears to be getting directly involved with the day-to-day operations of the organization which is inappropriate. If the Board member needed information that was related to a policy question on the Board's agenda s/he should have requested that information directly from the Executive Director (or his/her designee) who is the liaison between the Board and the management staff.

Questions: These questions all deal with how the communication that occurs at various Board and Council meetings constitutes the organization. Students may be able to see that policy questions are appropriate topics for discussion at Board meetings and implementation questions appropriate for staff discussions. But the difference between these two is not always easy to determine.

Encourage students to consider how personal relationships complicate rules for behaviour within the organization. As human beings interact, norms develop about what behaviour is appropriate and inappropriate for them. You come to work on a Monday morning and the colleague in the office beside yours cordially asks "How was your weekend?" You respond by saying that you and your spouse went camping and had a great time. Your colleague responds politely and then tells you what his/her family did. Over time, a norm evolves in your organization that indicates it is appropriate to engage in personal chit chat about your private lives. Later, a death occurs in a co-worker's family. You and your colleagues take up a collection to purchase flowers for the funeral. You wouldn't have known about the death if you hadn't

talked about it with your colleagues. Over time this kind of conversation seems natural and a powerful norm pervades the organization. What impact will this norm have on meetings and work interaction—particularly when there are disagreements?

The same thing occurs in all contexts in which communication occurs—including Board meetings.

Board members may have children participating in programs and may have direct information about what occurs there. Or, Board members may live next door to employees of the organization. Encourage students to consider these issues when answering these questions.

REACH-UP (B):

This discussion about stages of nonprofit organization development is an important one. Many nonprofit organizations struggle as their boards move from one stage to the next. Newspapers are full of stories about organizations that fail because of conflicts on their boards. Frequently these conflicts are related to the issues that emerge during the transitions between these stages. For example, when a board moves from being an organizing board to a governing board the board members need to transfer some of their power to the staff. This can become a problem when founding board members who identify closely to the organization are still on the board and refuse or don't know how to give up control. This specific problem has led to the demise of scores of nonprofit organizations.

At the other end of the spectrum, when an organization is governed by an institutional board they may lose an important feedback mechanism. If the board consists mostly of wealthy people who bask in the prestige of the organization, the staff can become so self-focussed that they can lose sight of the vision of the organization. Repeatedly, scandal erupts when CEO's of nonprofit organizations spend hundreds of thousands of dollars on office improvements and luxury vacations while the clients of the organization suffer. An out-of-touch board can easily find itself the victim of poor management.

During the early phase of board development, practically every topic related to the organization is discussed at board meetings. But as the board develops the topics narrow and shift to broader policy oriented decisions such as growth, new program development, fund raising, external relations, etc. More specific topics such as employee supervision, salaries (with the exception of upper management staff), and program implementation questions shift more to staff.

Can We Over-Socialize? Applying The Systems Socialization Model To U.S.

Military Accession Programs

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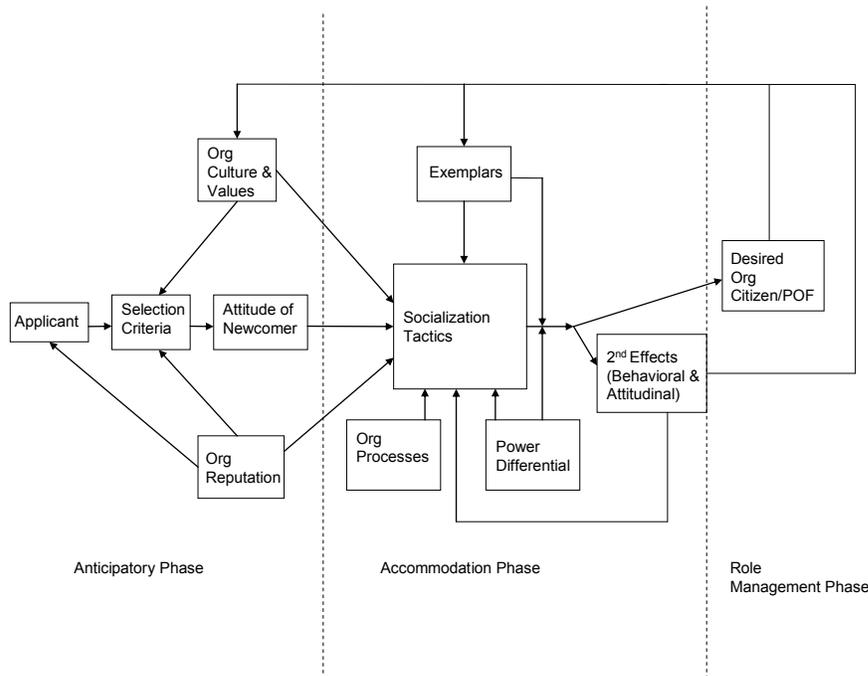
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Can We Over-socialize? Applying the Systems Socialization Model to U.S. Military Accession Programs

Over the last few years, the United States' premier military schools have received a lot of attention by the media. All have been plagued with cheating scandals and excessive hazing during training periods. One of the schools has been confronted with rapes, alleged rapes and accusations of systemic insensitivity towards sexual harassment, then accusations of religious bias and intolerance among both faculty and cadets. With all of this media notoriety, the school has been trying to come to grips with what is really going on at one of the nation's most treasured institutions. What initially appeared to be a few "bad apples" turned into something much more. This paper is an attempt to address this "much more" as it has proven to be a fairly complex problem.

We ultimately conclude that issues regarding gender and religious intolerance stem from, at least in part, from an incredibly powerful and successful socialization process used to indoctrinate students attending four year military accession programs. Four year military accession programs include military institutes that grant college degrees and Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs that operate out of colleges and universities. Fortunately, this paper suggests that we need not throw the baby out with the bath water and reduce the effectiveness of the socialization process at military schools. We suggest that secondary effects of socialization can be mitigated by designing an "intolerance of intolerance" loop into the

socialization system. In order to bring this socialization process to light, we will apply the Systems Socialization Model (SSM) (Blass & Levy under review)(See figure below) to generic four year military accession programs in the United States.



The Systems Socialization Model (SSM) is an attempt to gain an appreciation of the complexities inherent in the socialization process. The model suggests that various influences ranging from organizational exemplars to organizational policies impact the socialization process in potentially profound ways. The significance of this perspective is that it begins to illuminate the various leverage points that managers must consider when seeking to influence cultural changes in an organization. Perhaps more importantly, this perspective sheds new light on potential sources of dysfunction in organizations.

The Systems Socialization Model examines the socialization process through Feldman's (1976) stages and incorporates Van Maanen & Schein's (1979) tactics, as well as Chao's (1994)

content dimensions. The result is a much richer view of the socialization process that expands the socialization process from a deliberate process to a systems or holistic experience.

Feldman (1976) proposed that organizational socialization occurred in three stages, and argued that distinct and different activities occurred at each stage. He contended that the stages of the socialization process consisted of anticipatory socialization, accommodation, and role management. Feldman's stages of socialization provide a useful perspective from which to examine individual outcomes to the socialization process because of the longitudinal perspective that presents socialization as an ongoing phenomenon with the effect of organizational member maturation as a result. Following Feldman's three stages of socialization, the proposed model suggests that as newcomers enter into the accommodation stage, they are aggressive learners of the organization's affairs.

Anticipatory Socialization Phase

Anticipatory socialization includes all of the learning that occurs prior to organizational entry. Feldman argued that it included such activities as forming expectations, and making decisions about employment.

Applicant's Interaction with the Accession Program's Culture and Reputation. The anticipatory phase of socialization begins with an applicant that is interested in joining an organization. Schneider's (1987) attraction, selection, attrition (ASA) model supports the notion that individuals seek employment in organizations that they are attracted to. An individual's level of attraction is impacted by a number of factors that fall within two main categories: organizational culture and values, and organizational reputation.

Through any number of venues such as relatives, counselors, friends, the media, and others, a high school student becomes aware of the various military accession programs available throughout the United States. Out of the tremendous number of students that know of

a particular program, only a fraction of them are intrigued enough regarding the possibility of attending it that they become active information seekers. They go to the institute's website, call up aunts and uncles who have served in the military, request catalogs and ultimately decide to apply to a military accession program, either ROTC or a military academy or institute.

Once they fill out an application form they are required to have an interview by a military officer affiliated with the accession program. Military officers likely share the values of both the accession program the student is applying to and the larger military as a whole. The interviewer acts as a disseminator of information as well as a screener for institute, screening out those high school students that he believes are not a good fit for either the military or the particular military accession program.

The military officer conducting the interview is looking for proven academic, leadership, and athletic performance, those attributes necessary for a cadet's survival. Also important is a student's motivation for seeking admission to the accession program. Those out solely for a free education need not apply—at least in theory.

The interviewer ascertains this "fit" with the accession program and military primarily through a structured interview whereby the officer digs into a student's high school record, personal goals and dreams, and extracurricular activities. "So what extracurricular activities do you find most rewarding," As the interview continues, the officer gets a strong feeling, either positive or negative, regarding the applicant. As the ASA (Schneider, 1987) shows us, the interviewer, all other criteria being equal, will likely unconsciously self replicate and select those students most like himself or the self he would like himself to be. The result is a largely homogeneous population. Indeed, demographic information from a comprehensive climate survey of students attending one military institute in 2004 reveals a cadet population that is 78% white, 85% Christian, and 81% male.

Most military schools of higher learning have reputations as academically rigorous, athletically challenging bastions of conservative values. Reserve Officer Training Corps programs tend to share these conservative values but are often located within liberal academic institutions. This reputation acts as a beacon for those that are a good fit for the accession program and a warning for those that aren't. Military accession programs do an incredibly good job of giving prospective students a realistic preview of what the place is like. Rather than attempt to convince a student that they are a good fit for a particular accession program, interviewers will often encourage students to do some "soul searching" to see if they really want to join the program and enter the military.

The process works. Developmentally, high school students are looking for meaning in their lives, they're trying to find out where and who they fit in with best and are generally eager to please other members of their in-group. Of course, the ASA model suggests that the high school students that are most likely to be attracted to military accession programs are white, conservative, Christian males since that is the majority group in the military officer corps as a whole. In other words, at a military those that show up for Initial Cadet Training (ICT) in late June already share the majority of the values of the military accession program and are eager to fit in with the institution's organizational culture.

Accommodation Phase

Socialization Tactics. Organizational socialization tactics have been categorized into six basic tactics with each one representing a continuum between two extremes. The collective versus individual tactic refers to the degree to which a group of individuals goes through a common set of experiences together (Becker, 1964; Dornbush, 1955; Evan, 1963; Wamsley ,

1972). The formal versus informal tactic refers to the degree of segregation that occurs between those being indoctrinated and the regular organizational membership (Cogswell, 1968; Dornbusch, 1955; Van Maanen, 1975; Wamsley, 1972). The sequential versus random tactic represents the degree of formality and the clarity of the boundary passages are the characteristics of this tactic. The fixed versus variable tactic describes the temporal aspects of socialization to the degree that there is a specific start and end point, and the points in-between are clearly punctuated. The serial versus disjunctive tactic reflects the degree to which experienced members of the organization act as role models for new members. Finally, the investiture versus divestiture tactic refers to the degree to which the organization is willing to embrace the identity of the individual.

Jones (1986) argued that Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) socialization tactics constituted a gestalt that was as a continuum with one end representing an institutionalized perspective, and the other an individualized one with the former fostering loyalty and the latter encouraging innovation (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Research has largely supported Jones' (1986) continuum assertion. Allen and Meyer (1990) replicated Jones' study and found that socialization experiences characterized as institutional were negatively related to role innovation after six and twelve months, and positively related to organizational commitment after six months.

Socialization tactics used by military schools of higher education and ROTC clearly fall on the institutional side of the continuum. Initial Cadet Training as well as the overall four year program is a collective experience. Heads are shaved, uniforms donned, cadets start to march in unison, and when one cadet makes a mistake all cadets are punished. Training in military accession programs is also quite formal. During ICT, the new class of cadets is segregated from

anyone that is not directly participating in the training. During the academic year, cadets are separated and marked as different by class colors, class year patches, and by the specific military and academic training each class receives.

The training cadets receive is also highly fixed and sequential rather than variable and random. Cadets reach a number of milestones, the first major one being the completion of initial cadet training. Once the academic year begins, training is punctuated with the completion of major training events in both the Fall and Spring. Both major training events are designed to provide cadets with feelings of achievement and success. Thus, we have training with extremely clear boundaries. Military accession programs also provide a continuous presence of role models to exemplify proper behavior and conduct for trainees, thus adopting a serial rather than disjunctive socialization tactic.

Finally, rather than an individualistic approach, the institute uses divestiture socialization tactics to create the product of a military officer. Cadets are validated for their talents they bring with them to the institution, but the goal is clearly to create a new person based on the raw material students come in with.

Overall, the socialization tactics used by military accession programs strongly compel cadets to adopt institutionally approved behavioral roles, attitudes, and values. Although this is both expected and desired, it leads to homogeneity of behavior, attitudes and values not found elsewhere.

Organizational Processes. The very processes and rules of the organization facilitate the adoption of an organization's culture. Strict rules of behavior govern cadet lives. To cadets, many of the rules, such as those that govern their behavior as freshman, seem arbitrary, unduly harsh, and contrary to their development as officers. Yet, one outcome of these rules is that cadets tend to graduate with a willingness to follow rules and obey orders of their superiors.

Cadets learn to not question directives, either because they've learned to trust their leaders or because they learned that it can be painful to challenge the system.

As cadets try to understand how they can succeed and excel in the accession program, organizational processes tell them what is important by allocating rewards and punishments. Organizational processes determine who will be on the various honor rolls of program and define how orders of merit are calculated. When cadets voice a divergent view, they run the risk of being counseled for not fitting in and their military average might suffer. Organizational processes of military accession programs appear to be perfectly engineered to produce conformity among cadets.

Power Differentials. Perhaps the power differentials that exist between organizational members of military accession programs provide the most profound source of information regarding desired behavior. We define power differentials as an asymmetry within the realm of influence. Extreme power differentials occur when one individual is significantly within the realm of influence of another, yet the reciprocal condition for influence does not exist. When extreme power differentials exist, individuals can be easily influenced through innuendoes and event latent forms of persuasion. This creates the potential for an amplification effect of any cue or communiqué delivered by an individual in significant position of influence.

Within military accession programs, power differentials are literally placed on one's shoulders. The bright silver eagles of a full colonel can be seen across a large room. When outdoors, symbols of power are placed on placards on vehicles for all to see. The execution of a salute by a subordinate to a superior is an acknowledgement of an existing power differential as well as a show of respect. On the very first day of entry into training, cadets learn of the vast power differential extant at the organization. In fact, there is such a willingness to succumb to power differentials that cadets need to be trained on when they should not follow orders of their

superiors. The Zimbardo prison experiment and the Millgram studies on obedience have demonstrated quite profoundly the power that asymmetries of influence can have.

Exemplars. Exemplars personify success to organizational members. They consist of leaders in key positions in the organization. Whenever there is ambiguity within the organizational system as to appropriate behavior, one need look no further than senior leadership to determine an appropriate course of action. Exemplars may act as leverage points for change in an organization as they continually model what is perceived as appropriate behavior and provide the “sense” that employees look for as they search for organizational meaning and purpose.

Exemplars may also short circuit existing organizational processes and socialization tactics even when they are not ambiguous. Enron certainly did not have illegal policies, or training materials that fostered illegal activity. What Enron did have was exemplars that short circuited legal policies and practices by providing organizational members with models of success that trumped existing policies and practices. Had the exemplars at Enron provided a personification of success consistent with written practices, their ability to socialize members into the organization would have improved.

Exemplars epitomize what it means to be successful in the organization. They act as models for appropriate behavior and set boundaries on behavior. As newcomers attempt to make sense of roles and expectations placed on them, they look to exemplars as manifestations of organizational values, processes, and attitudes.

When the behavior of organizational exemplars is congruent with organizational values, processes and attitudes, the adoption of desired organizational citizenship behavior is facilitated as organizational members receive consistent messages during their sense making processes. In other words, there is little ambiguity as to what is appropriate behavior and what that behavior means.

If, on the other hand, there are inconsistencies between the behavior of exemplars and that of organizational values, processes and attitudes, newcomers are put into a situation where it is more difficult to make sense of what their roles are and what expected behavior looks like. In fact, the newcomer faces a dilemma. Should the newcomer place more credence on written policy, memos, dusty value and mission statements hanging on a back wall, or on the living and breathing general officer who, in one data point, represents and embodies organizational success? It's actually not much of a dilemma. Social Learning Theory tells us of the importance of role models as we learn and adapt to an organization (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Organizational exemplars are expected to trump all other input into the sense making process and may short circuit established organizational values and processes. As such, organizational exemplars may act as leverage points within the socialization process.

That is why the burden of leadership weighs so heavily on military leaders. Given the significance of the power differential in place between leadership and cadets, even the smallest idiosyncrasies of leadership are amplified to cadets. Therefore, if senior leaders discuss religion and promote their faith, it is no wonder that it might create problems for a cadet who is trying to model leader behavior. Add to this, a number of faculty who are also exemplars proselytizing in class and the existing pressure to conform, and the result can be powerful and profound.

Role Management Phase.

The final stage of socialization, role management, essentially refers to maintaining relationships and mediating conflict between the individual and his or her work group and other work groups. Feldman (1976) pointed out two types of conflict that are crucial to manage during this stage: conflicts between work life and home life, and conflict between others in and around the work place.

Desired Organizational Citizen. All of the factors we have discussed thus far facilitated the internalization of the organization's values and culture by cadets. The stated core values of the military are codified, posted on walls and bulletin boards, addressed in speeches by military leaders and often serve as headers or footers on military letterhead.

To the extent that there is homogeneity among exemplars, there is an extraordinary amount of pressure for cadets internalize other values of their leadership. These values may be benign or perhaps even as beneficial as valuing hard work or physical fitness. The point is, for better or worse, that cadets will adopt these values without even knowing it or without even thinking about it. It is a result of highly effective socialization training.

Secondary Effects of Socialization

In military accession programs, we find a tremendously powerful socialization machine that has created Medal of Honor winners, numerous general officers, and a host of national and corporate leaders. We also find a generalized intolerance of others that do not share their internalized values. This intolerance is likely a result of the socialization process itself as well as in-group out-group dynamics first described by Sherif & Sherif (1953). These researchers found that dividing children into groups and putting them in competition with each other resulted in animosity and open hostility towards each other.

We suggest that organizational socialization directed towards institutionalization provides a similar in-group versus out-group dynamic that results in, if not animosity and hostility, a form of generalized intolerance that manifests as elitism, arrogance, and stereotypes. When we state that tolerance is generalized, we mean that it extends beyond what we would consider the normal out-group. For example, a homogenous group of computer engineers socialized into a software firm may exhibit a certain level of intolerance towards people less technically oriented than they are and not just intolerance towards members of competing firms.

Likewise, the intolerance may extend to political and religious views or any other facet that the socialized members think sets them apart from others outside the group.

Finally, we feel that this generalized intolerance may become habituated, thus facilitating a lack of critical thinking and closed mindedness that can have detrimental effects on an organization. Organizational members may then look to the organization as an embodiment of “truth” concerning a vast array of issues.

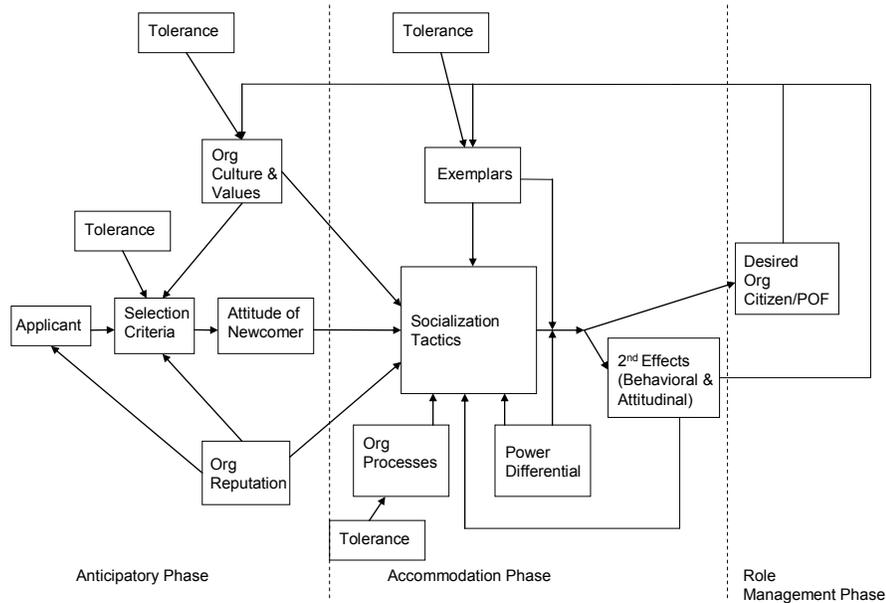
One need look no further than the media reports of sexual harassment and religious intolerance over the last few years to see a generalized intolerance towards perceived out groups. We argue that sexual harassment and religious intolerance are basically the same issue, created by the same socialization process.

Addressing Intolerance in Military Accession Programs

A sobering message gleaned from the application of the Systems Socialization Model to military accession programs is that the very success of the socialization system of these programs results in an intolerance of others outside the system. This is not to say that the military must simply learn to live with intolerant views, rather it needs to view the institution from a systems perspective and intentionally build “tolerance” into its cultural fabric by addressing all facets depicted in the Systems Socialization Model.

Military accession program leaders, just as other corporate leaders, have tackled intolerance issues with task forces, committees, and training. Unfortunately, the Systems Socialization Model suggests that these approaches are unlikely to work as they address just one small aspect of a large and powerful system. The System Socialization Model suggests that all aspects of the system need to be modified. In particular, organizational exemplars, the senior leadership of military accession programs need to model, even exaggerate, tolerant behavior. Processes need to be changed so that all students are validated all the time. Figure 2, below

illustrates where “intolerance of intolerance” needs to be embedded within the organizational system to reduce intolerance.



System Socialization Model Figure 2

Maj Fred Blass and Dr. David Levy,
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Ultimately, organizations that are fortunate enough to have an extremely powerful and effective socialization system must create a paradox within the socialization process. Since we know that effective socialization results in intolerance of those outside the system, organizations should socialize intolerance as one of the values they are intolerant of. It is not as strange as it sounds. Rather than respond to issues of intolerance after they occur, the system should address them as a fundamental part of elements within the Systems Socialization Model. Applicants to a military accession program should be screened and selected for their demonstration of tolerant views, processes should stress accommodation of religious, spiritual and cultural values and beliefs, and exemplars should openly discuss why tolerance is important and what happens when we create intolerant systems. Armed with an understanding of how

powerful socialization systems work, we find ourselves able to strengthen the positive aspects of these systems while preventing negative secondary effects from occurring.

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