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ABSTRACT

Volume 1 of this journal contains the following research papers in the field of business education: "Economics Education" (Bruce Stirewalt); "Information Systems Laboratory" (Michael Totaro et al.); "Utilizing Computers in the Teaching of Keyboarding" (Cynthia Bertrand); "Variations on a Business Theme" (Robert Gryder, Isabelle Blanco); "An Administrative Support Occupations Course" (Betty A. Kleen, Hilda Morrison); "Effects on an Internship Program on Male and Female Students" (Judith Lyles); "Business Communication Principles" (Nelda Spinks, Barron Well); "Computer Use in Business Courses" (Bettye Robinson, Robert Robinson); "Teacher Preparation" (Edward Zuber, Thomas Mize); "Intercultural Literacy in Business Education" (Donna Redmann, Bobbye David); and "Business and Education -- a Closer Relationship" (Janet Trelchel). Volume 2 presents: "Why Professional Organizations?" (Michael G. Curran, Jr.); "Making the Walls Come Tumbling Down" (June S. Atkinson); "Multimedia--Ready or Not, Here It Comes!" (Beverly Oswalt); "Issues and Trends Affecting Office Workers in Large and Small Organizations with Implications for the Business Education Classroom" (Donna Holmquist); "Computer Conferencing and Nominal Group Interaction: Alternatives for Problem-Solving Equivalency" (James L. Morrison); "What Topics Need To Be in Business Communication Classes" (Larry R. Honl, Larry G. Pagel); and "Employee Selection Criteria for College Graduates" (Walter Creighton, Bob Gillan). Research papers in volume 3 are: "Incorporating Multicultural Awareness into the Business Communication Curriculum" (Mary Jean Evers-Lush, Phyllis A. King); "Computer Teaching Labs Design and Administration" (John T. Jayne, Gwen Smith); "Preparing Graduates for the Transition to Work: A Taxonomy of Critical Skills" (Elwood F. Holton, III); "Business Education in the School Library" (Sandra C. Duling, Angele Brill); "Business Education Curriculum Guides for the 1990's" (Betty A. Kleen); "Business Teacher Education for the 21st Century" (Wanda L. Stitt-Gohdes); "What Does the Future Hold for Office Occupations?" (Donna J. Keenan); and "Major Actions Influencing Business Education" (James Calvert Scott, Dennis LaBonty.) (KC)

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Volume 1 Spring, 1991

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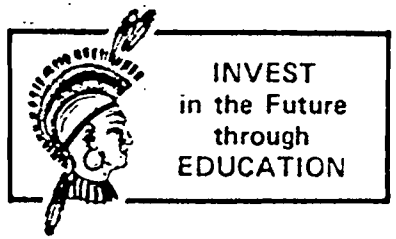

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LOUISIANA BUISNESS EDUCATION JOURNAL

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5. Center all primary headings. Place secondary headings at the left margin and underline them. Most manuscripts need both primary and secondary headings for clarity. Use double-space format.
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Volume 1, Spring, 1991

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Business and Education—
A Closer Relationship
Janet Treichel, Insert

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ECONOMICS EDUCATION

Dr. Bruce Stirewalt
Mississippi State University

Approaches to the serious problem of widespread economics illiteracy have, in the past, been isolated and largely ineffective. One organization, the Joint Council on Economics Education (JCEE), attacked this very difficult problem in its "Master Curriculum Project." Through the financial support of GM, Ford, and AT&T, the JCEE completed a document designed to establish a framework for teaching economics. That publication entitled, A framework for Teaching Economics: Basic Concepts was designed to provide workable guidelines for all future JCEE efforts. This Framework helped shape textbooks, television, films, tests, and other instructional materials that followed. Since then, the JCEE has published numerous materials designed to assist teachers as they build economics lessons into their curricula: Strategies for Teaching Economics, Grades 1-3; Strategies for Teaching Economics, Grades 4-6; Strategies for Teaching Economics, U.S. History; Strategies for Teaching Economics, World Studies; Strategies for Teaching Economics, Basic Business and Consumer Education.

This major project is mentioned here in order to demonstrate that the approach to economics education can be organized. This is one major evidence that something is being done about the problem and that business educators are in the "thick of the fight" to improve economics education. More about this a little later.

This article focuses on "Economics Education for Business Teachers." in relation to the following sequence of questions.

WHY teach economics?
WHAT is economics?
WHO teaches economics? (Who should teach economics)

Until these questions (which seem simple) **are settled, economics education will continue to "hit and miss"—will continue to be isolated and largely ineffective.**

WHY Teach Economics?

The results of many studies report on the illiteracy of most citizens in the area of economics. These studies point to a lack of understanding of principles of economics, the lack of ability to handle personal financial affairs, the lack of understanding of ramifications of political actions on the economy, etc. **All issues that face us individually or collectively are in part, economic issues.**

Why study economics? Why teach economics? A knowledge of economics is important if citizens are to effectively participate in a complex private enterprise economy.

Individuals have to deal with a multitude of economic problems affecting their own personal lives—how to spend their incomes and what to do with their savings. A knowledge of economics is helpful in this respect. Citizens should also understand the consequences of their economic actions. This much is expected by society.

As citizens, all persons have to make decisions on a wide variety of economic problems of local, state, national, and international significance and then express their views in the voting booth. These problems range all the way from voting on a school-bond issue to making up one's mind about foreign aid, poverty problems, or labor-management relations. Some knowledge of economics is essential if these decisions are to be made intelligently. In this respect, understanding economics is part of the basic fabric of a democratic society.

WHAT is Economics?

Economics is a behavioral science which offers an explanation on how individuals and societies try to satisfy unlimited wants with limited resources. We all want more than we have the capacity to command. Therefore, we are faced with "choice making," "decision making," and "trade offs." Economics is the process of arriving at a decision—not a decision.

Economics is not the same as personal finance. Although the consumer plays a vital role in the economy, an exclusive devotion to "wise buying" or how to open a savings account is not in itself "economics." A study of the behavior of the consumer is only part of the whole. Although many concepts of economics can be understood by reference to personal experience or through role-playing (e.g., being a consumer), real understanding of economics requires an ability to reason abstractly and to consider society as a whole rather than the individual's position in it.

Economics is concerned with all of the society and with the activities of the various groups and institutions it contains—consumers, businessmen, farmers, workers, savers, investors, corporations, and federal, state, and local government. It is a social science as well as being a behavioral science.

To have economic understanding does not mean that "facts" have been memorized. It means that certain "ways of thinking" about economics-related problems—a scientific method comparable to that involved in physics or chemistry, which permits a rational choice among alternatives—have been acquired. The real test of economic understanding is whether we have the ability to deal in a scientific, organized way with the economic problems as they arise. Thus the heart of economics

is the awareness of and ability to use a set of analytical tools, called economics theory, address specific issues.

Economics is not concerned merely with static situations—with how institutions are functioning at this moment alone—but with the dynamics of change and adjustment to change; for example, in economics one studies the ways in which prices are determined by supply and demand, the processes of growth, and the problems that are a result of the changes associated with growth over a period of time. Economics is not personal finance (consumerism), business, labor, or current events. It is the knowledge and understanding of principles that guide one in making wise decisions. Finally, rational choices among alternative lines of action can be made only in the light of clearly stated goals. Thus economic goals (such as growth, stability, efficiency, justice, security, and freedom) need to be identified clearly. They represent the value judgments of our society and of the people in it.

In its Framework, the JCEE identified 24 basic economic concepts and further specified some one dozen as being of fundamental importance. Space does not allow that listing here. A National Tack Force identified seven major areas of economics that it believes every high school graduate should understand. The list follows.

1. What economics is all about, why it is important, and how to think about economic problems.
2. The nature of the persistent economic problems faced by all societies.
3. The market economy of the United States.
4. Economic growth and stability.
5. The distribution of income.
6. The United States in the world economy.
7. Other economic systems.

WHO Teaches Economics? (Who should teach economics?)

Who teaches economics? Nationally, economics teachers have these characteristics: 61% over 35 years old, 67% male, 92% white, 57% master's degree, 84% have completed a course in economics, and 66% have 10 years or more teaching experience.

Who should teach economics? One can cite the PCBEE on "This We Believe About Business Education in the High School," "The Role of Business Education in Economics Education," "This We Believe About Free Enterprise," articles in the NBEA Yearbooks, and other sources and make a strong case to the business teacher to be the one best suited to the job. The JCEE also has recognized

the important role of business educators in economics education. They emphasize, however, that **the person who is best qualified to teach economics is the person with training and interest in the subject, a knowledge of appropriate methodology, and a willingness to work with young people**. Like other basic business subjects the content is different, but the method is the same—student centered.

In closing, the overriding need in economics education is not for laws or regulations to require it; not for more resources to teach it, not for new methodology. We have laws and regulations, we have the resources, and we have the knowledge of methodology. Our overriding need is to clearly establish WHAT is economics education and to develop an effective delivery system. It can be done. It requires cooperation of several agencies (public and private). Until this is done we will continue to have something of a "hit or miss" economics education—economics education that is characterized by "isolation" and "ineffectiveness."

INFORMATION SYSTEMS LABORATORY: ANALYSIS, DESIGN, AND IMPLEMENTATION

Michael W. Totaro, Judy Seymour, and Judy Edwards
University of Southwestern Louisiana

Whether in an academic or business environment, information must be processed and interpreted quickly for timely decision making. Since computers are a major component of business today, it is imperative that Colleges of Business stay current with industry and build an environment that meets the needs of the "real world." Business graduates should know how to input data and access information used to solve problems (Dileepan, 1988).

A computer laboratory is essential in preparing students to become proficient in using computers to fulfill needs of the business community. Students must have hands-on experience with software prevalent in the business environment.

Many factors must be considered when creating a computer laboratory for a College of Business. The myriad of alternatives may be overwhelming; therefore, the intent of this article is to provide a process to be used in evaluating these alternatives.

Although this process is designed for Colleges of Business, it can also be used in businesses and other academic environments. A three-phase process is presented in this article:

Analysis, Design, and Implementation.

ANALYSIS

Preliminary to the creation of a successful computer lab, a number of factors must be considered. First, obtaining the support of the administration is critical in approving major startup costs. Next, surveying successes and failures of other computer labs is imperative in allocating efficiently scarce resources (Render, 1987). Lastly, evaluating requirements of the environment is necessary in selecting appropriate resources.

A computer advisory committee should be established at the outset as a steering committee to work with lab personnel. The committee should be composed of faculty who are familiar with computers and business software. The committee will serve as a liaison among faculty, administration, and the lab director. The committee should survey faculty to determine software needs.

Parts of this analysis follow a microcomputer lab setup implemented in the authors' College. Evaluations should be made of all resources that can be utilized for creating a microcomputer lab in the College of Business.

Needs determinations should be made of both short-term and long-term resources.

Needs Determination - Short Term

Particular attention should be given to human resources, location of the lab, software, hardware, and equipment.

Human Resources. One of the most important decisions to be made is the selection of a director for the lab. A lab director should be employed before the lab is designed to assist in evaluating the long-term and short-term needs. The lab director will help determine the appropriate software, select the hardware to run the software, and plan the physical layout of the lab.

Since the job of the lab director entails a thorough knowledge of computers, networks, and software, a background in computer science is useful. A knowledge of business and business application software is essential. Therefore, the best background mix for the director is in business and computer science. The director must also have the ability to work with administration, faculty, and students and to recognize the needs of each group.

In addition to the lab director, appropriate lab assistants to monitor the lab should be a priority in planning. Sufficient funds must be allocated for these positions.

To insure appropriate lab assistants are selected, the following criteria are recommended: (1) communication skills and (2) computer skills. These criteria are listed in the order of importance.

Also, personnel to maintain the equipment should be anticipated. The authors cannot emphasize too strongly the need to have enough capable lab personnel to run a lab smoothly and efficiently.

Location. Careful attention should be given to the lab location. The most logical location of the lab would be in the building that houses classes for business students. It is highly recommended that the lab be located on the first floor for the following reasons:

1. It gives users, including handicapped, easy access to the lab.
2. It may provide an outside entrance to the lab for use during night and weekend hours. (Allows access to the lab without compromising building security.)

Software and Hardware. The decisions relating to the software and hardware will contribute to the success of the microcomputer lab. The lab configuration (stand alones versus a network) will be determined by the software selection. The relevance of this will be obvious later in the article where the advantages and disadvantages of each will be presented.

Both the operating system software and the application software should meet the needs of faculty and students. Faculty should be aware of the most widely used software in today's businesses. Selection of appropriate software will provide students with the necessary background for applications. Since software will be used in faculty research,

further considerations should be given to accommodate this area.

As previously mentioned, the software will determine the hardware that is needed. The efficiency and cost of hardware should be factors for consideration. Since technology continues to change, sound decisions on hardware at this point are critical.

The number of computers needed will be determined by the number of students in the College and, of course, by the availability of funds. Technical support to maintain these computers should be evaluated before computers are purchased. Timely maintenance of the computers will add to the efficiency of the lab.

Equipment. In addition to computers, the following equipment should be purchased for the lab: printers, tables and chairs, and blackboards (preferably chalkless). The lab and classrooms should have screens installed and mobile carts available for demonstrations. Carts, equipped with computers that have software installed and overhead projectors with liquid crystal devices, are valuable tools for teaching computer-related courses.

Needs Determination - Long Term

Evaluation of long-term needs is just as important as evaluation of short-term needs. Some factors to consider are lab usage, resources, maintenance costs, new technology, and ongoing evaluation.

As the lab demand increases, hours of operation should be increased. This will make it necessary to add personnel, such as an assistant director and additional lab assistants.

In addition, it may be necessary to expand the size of the lab due to increased usage. The original lab should be located in an area allowing expansion without creating an entirely new lab, i.e., computers may be added to the existing area. If another lab is created, it should be located in close proximity to the original lab to share resources.

This growth will increase the cost of running the lab; therefore, these costs must be recognized so that funds can be budgeted. Additional costs to consider are software updates, maintenance, and obsolescence of hardware.

As warranties expire on computers and printers, maintenance costs will increase. Maintenance contracts are often used. The lab director will handle the processing of maintenance contracts and will be responsible for the many problems not covered in these agreements. Possible options are a part-time maintenance employee or an assistant lab director with maintenance responsibilities.

Plans should be made for replacement of equipment due to obsolescence. For example, workstations may need replacement periodically due to rapidly changing technology (Neel, 1988). Besides changes in technology, computers and/or floppy-disk drives may need to be replaced due to wear and tear (McCarthy, 1988).

It may become feasible to connect to other computers on campus, such as a mainframe. This may save money on hardware, software, personnel and space within the College. (For example, students should be able to access programs on the mainframe that have greater capabilities.)

To keep abreast of new technologies, subscriptions to publications such as Word Perfect, PC World, Datamation, Byte, etc., should be purchased. A library for manuals and periodicals should be maintained in the lab for access by all users.

Evaluation of the lab must be a continuous process. Also, analyses of software and hardware should be ongoing due to changes in technology and business usage. After establishing needs, both short-term and long-term, it will be necessary to determine if these needs are being satisfied or if further evaluation is necessary.

DESIGN

A common mistake made by systems' designers is to proceed directly from the analysis phase to the implementation phase. This is similar to deciding on the type of house that you want to build (i.e., number of bedrooms, number of bathrooms, etc.) and to beginning construction without any blueprints. The lab design must be completed before actually configuring it. Important aspects to consider when putting together the lab design are (1) Physical Environment, (2) Software Selection, (3) Hardware Selection, (4) Network Topologies, (5) Network Operating System, (6) Configuring the Network, (7) Printing Facilities, and (8) Vendors.

Physical Environment

Physical layout and environmental control should be included in the physical environment of the lab.

Physical Layout. Options in a lab configuration considered in this article include stand-alone computers and networked computers. Stand-alone computers are self-contained PCs typically found in office and lab environments. Networked computers refer to PCs that are part of a Local Area Network (LAN). The physical layout of a microcomputer lab may be dependent upon whether stand alones or a network configuration is chosen.

The authors' lab is a LAN, and that physical layout is used. Although one room can be used, the lab was divided into two rooms separated by a see-through partition allowing the lab personnel to monitor both rooms. The primary room is equipped with file servers, printers, and workstations; it is used for operational purposes only. The secondary room is equipped only with workstations; it serves as a multi-purpose facility to be used for class instruction and seminars. When not reserved for these purposes, the secondary room is open for general use.

The file servers and printers are positioned parallel to a wall for access by lab personnel. Users are not permitted in this area. The users' computers are perpendicular to the servers and are placed back to back to protect wiring and save space. This

arrangement allows users to walk between the rows of workstations; thereby, users will not inadvertently disconnect the cables from the computers, possibly causing network errors.

A divider, either a counter or a wall, should separate the servers and printers from user workstations. The dividers are used primarily to protect both file servers and printers from damage by users. Printers are cleared periodically by the lab personnel, and printouts are placed in trays designated for each class. This system is more efficient than having students retrieve their own printouts from printers.

A room should be located near the lab for storing disks, software, manuals, and lab supplies. All original software should be located in a secured area accessed only by lab personnel.

Additional equipment or systems to be considered are auxiliary lighting, a halon-based fire extinguishing system, a supplemental air conditioning unit, and possibly a security system.

Environmental Control. Factors to be considered in environmental control are temperature monitoring, humidity monitoring, and air quality.

Most electronic devices have temperature thresholds; therefore, it is very important to know the thresholds for the selected equipment. For example, microcomputers generally have a higher tolerance to temperature extremes than do minicomputers and mainframes. A temperature recorder is one mechanism used for monitoring the temperature of the lab.

The circuitry of computers and peripherals, as well as the mechanical parts of these devices, must be protected from humidity. Ample air conditioning and heating are two absolutes in the lab.

Dust and dirt can cause irreparable damage to some devices in the lab; this is particularly true for floppy-disk drives. Hard disks, however, are typically encased in a sealed box that should prevent any penetration.

Software Selection

Software that must be selected are application and system software. Selection of the application software should precede any decisions regarding systems software and hardware.

Application Software. In the authors' College, the Computer Advisory Committee surveyed the faculty to determine who planned to use the microcomputer lab and anticipated software needs for classes, projects, and research. From this survey, software was ranked based on the frequency of requests, but major consideration was also given to software packages most widely used in businesses. Before purchasing software, input should be obtained from vendors and consultants (O'Connor, 1989).

Recommended software categories to select are spreadsheets, data base, word processing, programming languages, statistics, management sciences, and project

management (Render, 1987). Additional categories to consider are integrated software, syntax checking, communications, desktop publishing, and interactive case simulations (for example, a bank simulation program for use by finance students).

Criteria for choosing the right vendors for the software are user training, installation, support, and cost. Most software vendors provide educational discounts. Software can be obtained from public domain sources, shareware contracts, and donations.

As stated earlier, software is loaded onto mobile computer units for classroom instructional purposes. If network versions are ordered, separate purchases may be necessary for these stand-alone computers.

Realistic time objectives should be set for software orders. Expect more time than deadlines set by vendors (O'Connor, 1989).

After the lab has been established, the Computer Advisory Committee should survey faculty periodically to determine their software needs. These requests will probably consist of new software and updated versions of the existing software.

System Software. Selection of the system software is based on the application software chosen. This is an important point. Often, the operating system platform is decided before decisions on application software are made. This is dangerous as it restricts the selection of application software alternatives. For example, if Unix was selected at the beginning, you cannot consider DOS-based applications since these cannot run under Unix. (Some vendors offer "emulation" software that allow DOS-based programs to run under Unix.)

Hardware Selection

Hardware alternatives can range from stand-alone PCs to a local area network (LAN) to a minicomputer/mainframe setup. As with all alternatives, there are advantages and disadvantages that need to be compared.

Local Area Network (LAN). A LAN allows several computer users to share software, data, and peripherals. Software loaded onto one or more servers can be accessed by workstation computers connected to the server(s). The requested programs are loaded into the workstation's memory where they are executed. For example, if a user wishes to run Lotus 1-2-3, the appropriate command is issued whereby the network operating system transfers a copy to the user's workstation.
ability to have shared access to software was given as the most frequently reported current use of a LAN and the number one reason for installing a LAN (O'Connor, 1989). The ability to share access to printers was the second most popular reason for installing a LAN (O'Connor, 1989).

The combination of cost and manageability is probably the most important feature of a LAN. Only one piece of software and a site license, where applicable, needs to be purchased for a network. Software is loaded onto the file server to be accessed by networked workstations. In addition, the cost of software is lower, the security is better,

and control over the software is increased. By taking the software out of physical circulation, the liability of unauthorized duplication by users is reduced. Schools can be held liable as accomplices in cases of unauthorized duplication of software (McCarthy, 1988).

Using a LAN makes disk management much easier. A LAN eliminates maintaining a set of disks for each workstation and precludes having a backup copy of each program. (For example, WordPerfect 5.1 requires 12 disks. If the lab has 50 computers, 600 disks plus a backup for each disk must be maintained. This makes a total of 1200 disks for WordPerfect 5.1.)

Monitoring of software usage is another advantage of a LAN. This includes how frequently specific software packages are being used and the time spent by each individual user. Most LANs allow password assignments for individual users.

A LAN can also be used to connect the microcomputer lab with other computer resources on campus. Connectivity is easier with a LAN because you can bridge the network with other computer resources. This will allow **all network users** to access other computer resources on campus.

Although there are many advantages in selecting a LAN, there are some disadvantages. Currently, not all software is available for a LAN; therefore, it may be necessary to write customized programs to make packages functionally adaptable to the LAN. For example, a program can be created to automate access to a software package, which may otherwise be a complicated process.

Since the file server is a key component of the LAN, failure of the file server renders the network and printers useless. The reason for this failure is the software resides on the file server and printers are connected and accessed through the file server.

Obviously, a LAN is more complex than a set of stand-alone computers making installation more difficult. Furthermore, as a result of this complexity, the likelihood of network problems and errors is increased.

Stand-Alone PCs. Many computer labs consist of the more traditional stand-alone PCs possibly with a printer attached. In this configuration, application software is installed on each individual PC. Stand-alone PC may have a hard-disk drive, one or more floppy-disk drives, or a combination.

Advantages in selecting stand-alone PC are as follows:

- This type of setup is not as complex as a LAN.
- Since each PC is an independent workstation, there is no reliance on a file server to access programs and data.
- Since software was originally designed for stand-alone computers, more may be available for a stand alone than for a LAN.

Disadvantages in selecting stand-alone PCs are as follows:

- Software must be installed and maintained on each computer; this can be time consuming.
- There is little security on stand-alone PCs. This would allow unauthorized copying of the software and possible damage to the software.
- Funds may not be available to connect a printer to each PC;therefore, one or more PCs with printers may have to be designated to do all printing.
- For PCs with no hard-disk drives, it might be necessary to maintain a library of software disks to be checked out to each user. As a result, disks may be damaged or lost, making replacement costly.

Minicomputer/Mainframe. Another type of setup is a minicomputer or mainframe configuration. A minicomputer/mainframe-based lab is very similar to a LAN-based lab. Each is centrally controlled by one or more computers with workstations attached. Most minicomputer/mainframe installations have dumb terminals instead of intelligent workstations.

Advantages in selecting a minicomputer/mainframe are as follows:

- They provide greater processing power and speed.
- They provide greater memory and storage capacity.
- They provide access to more statistical and business simulation software.

Disadvantages in selecting a minicomputer/mainframe are as follows:

- The cost of setup and maintenance is significantly higher.
- Some business application software is not available.
- The user interface may be more difficult.

Network Topologies

The physical and logical connection of nodes (i.e., workstations and file servers) on the LAN is referred to as the network topology. Several topology alternatives from which to choose are bus, ring, star, and hybrid.

In this article, the authors will examine both bus and ring topologies. The **IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers) Local Area Network Standards Committee** has established three media access standards that correspond to these two topologies: CSMA/CD (Carrier Sensing, Multiple Access with Collision Detection), Token-passing bus, and Token-passing ring.

CSMA/CD Bus (IEEE 802.3). CSMA/CD stands for Carrier Sensing, Multiple Access with Collision Detection. This access method utilizes a bus topology, which is a

continuous cable with two endpoints. Each node "taps" into the network by connecting to the bus and transmits data across the network as needed. Whenever two or more nodes transmit at the same time, a collision will occur. All transmitting nodes are informed of this collision, and each will wait some random time before retransmitting. The most popular implementation of this access method is **Ethernet**. The data transfer rate is a variable 10 Mbs (Megabits per second).

Token-passing Bus (IEEE 802.4). A token-passing topology is different from the Ethernet topology just discussed. This configuration uses a data packet, or token, which functions as a network access flag. The token traverses the entire network effectively polling each node. If a node requires access to the network, the token grants exclusive access for some predetermined length of time or for a fixed amount of data.

An example of this implementation is **ARCNET** by Datapoint Corporation. The data transfer rate in a network using ARCNET is a constant 2.5 Mbs, which is considerably slower than Ethernet. Whether there is one user on the network or one-hundred users on the network, the data transfer rate is still 2.5 Mbs.

While other higher-speed networks have put Arcnet at a disadvantage, Datapoint Corporation has developed ArcnetPlus that is roughly eight times faster and supports more users (Klein, 1990).

Token-passing Ring (IEEE 802.5). A token-passing ring topology is functionally similar to the token-passing bus except that a logical ring structure is used. This topology was developed by IBM and is used in most IBM installations. The data transfer rate is 16 Mbs.

Network Operating Systems (Network OS)

A network operating system is the set of programs that controls the network. The network OS usually resides and operates on the file server. Many network OS alternatives exist in the marketplace. At this time, the two most widely used network OSs are Novell Corporation's **Advanced Netware (Versions 286 and 386)** and Microsoft Corporation's **LAN Manager**, which is an OS/2-based product. Both are used in LANs that are predominantly MS-DOS. Other contenders include Banyan's **Vines** and AT&T's **Unix**.

Configuring the Network

Hardware components of a local area network include the following: the file server, one or more user workstations, a network adapter card for the file server and each workstation, network cable, cable connectors, one or more network printers, and a tape backup system. Additional hardware components may be needed depending upon the type of network being configured.

File Server. It is essentially the "central" computer on the network. The file server does the following:

- Maintains all programs and data files utilized by network users.
- Loads and executes the **network OS** that controls the network.
- Allows all devices such as printers and disk drives to be accessed by all network users.

The file server must be capable of handling many tasks simultaneously. Factors to consider when selecting the file server include the following:

1. **Disk Storage.** Disk storage capacity and disk drive performance are the two most important factors to consider when evaluating disk drives.
2. **Central Processing Unit (CPU).** The file server should have a CPU capable of handling all network-related tasks and still provide an acceptable performance. Microprocessors that are well suited for file servers include the Intel 80386 and the Intel 80486.

Workstations. These computers are attached to the network thereby allowing the users to load programs (and data) from the file server into the workstation's memory for execution and processing. As far as a network user is concerned, the file-server drive is the same as a local drive in terms of accessibility. For example, the hard disk on a MS-DOS machine is referenced as drive **C**; the network drive would likely be referenced as drive **D**. Since workstations on a LAN use the file server's hard-disk drive as if it were a local drive, the need to purchase workstations with hard-disk drives is eliminated. To boot up the workstation, PROM chips supplied by the network OS vendor are usually available at a minimal cost. Since users may wish to
transport their data to other machines, workstations with floppy-disk drives are recommended.

Network Adapter Card. To connect a computer to the network, it must contain a network adapter card. The type of network card used is based on the chosen network topology (see the section on "Network Topologies"). Examples of network adapter cards include Ethernet, ARCNET, and IBM's Token-ring. A network adapter card is required for all file servers and workstations.

Network Cable. There are different types of access media available for local area networks; these media include twisted pair (i.e., regular telephone wire), standard coaxial cable (the same type used for cable TV), thin coaxial cable, and optical fiber cable.

Cable Connectors. Connectors vary from one configuration to the next. Types of connectors include BNC-type T-connectors and AUI 15-pin connectors.

Network Printers. Printers interfaced with the network are not special in any way except that they are physically attached to file servers and/or print servers.

Tape Backup System. Since all data are (presumably) on the hard disk of the file server, it is essential that backups of these data be made regularly. Since the file-server drive has a high storage capacity, the tape backup system should also be capable of storing huge amounts of data.

Printing Facilities

Due to recent advances in technology, many printer types are available. Factors to consider when selecting printers include cost, quality, speed, and durability. Three types of printers to be compared in this article are laser, dot matrix, and daisy wheel.

Laser. This type of printer uses a heat source to produce high-quality output. Advantages include speed, print clarity, graphic capabilities, and minimum noise. Laser printers are well suited for desktop publishing applications. Disadvantages are higher purchase and repair costs.

Dot Matrix. This type of printer uses tiny pins pushed against a ribbon to form characters. Advantages include lower cost both in terms of purchasing and repairs and the ability to print graphics. Disadvantages are lower print quality, slower printing of graphs, and higher printer noise.

Daisy Wheel. This type is similar to a typewriter with a hammer-like device that pushes against the ribbon to form characters. An advantage is superior print quality. Disadvantages are slower speed, inability to print graphs, higher noise, and cost.

Additional printer types are plotter, line, page, and color printers. A plotter printer is recommend as fund become available.

Vendors

Most application software may be purchased from retailers, distributors (including mail order), or directly from software companies. Once decisions on the type of software to purchase have been made, pricing will be the controlling factor in the selection of a vendor. Regardless of where the software is purchased, support must be provided by the software company.

Selection of a vendor for the network operating system software involves more than just price comparisons. Local technical support should be another guiding factor. Some network operating systems are available through mail order companies. Training is usually provided by vendors.

Factors that are important in selecting vendors for the computers, network hardware, and printers are location, price, warranty, technical support, and maintenance contracts.

Proposals from vendors should be compared before any decisions are made. A further consideration should be the stability of the company, i.e., will they still be in business in the near future.

IMPLEMENTATION

If the analysis and design phases were completed correctly, the implementation phase should be the easiest of the three. Implementation is merely the execution of the design. The most crucial element in this phase is testing. A thorough test of each

component in the lab should be completed. Once all hardware and software have been tested separately, a test of the integrated system should be done. Often, testing is bypassed by the implementors. As a result, problems begin to show up once the lab begins operating. It is far more difficult to correct a problem in a facility that is operating than in one that is not. The importance of testing cannot be overemphasized. Aspects considered are (1) Implementation of the Network, (2) Organization of Applications and User Groups, and (3) Laboratory Policies and Documentation.

Implementation of the Network

The primary phases in the implementation of the network include setup of the hardware, installation of the system and network software, testing of network system, and installation and testing of the application software.

Setup of Hardware. The LAN setup consists of the following steps:

1. Placing file servers, printers, and user workstations in specified physical locations in lab (see Appendix A for the layout at the authors' College).
2. Attaching printers to network (and any other network devices) to the file server computer(s).
3. Installing network adapter cards in file servers and workstation computers.
4. Running cable throughout the laboratory.
5. Connecting file server and workstation computers to the network cable.

Installation of System and Network Software. To run the hardware, both the system and network software must be installed. (A Novell-based LAN's system and network software are the same.) The vendor's accompanying documentation normally outlines steps necessary for installation. Some of the network operating systems include automated installation programs.

Testing of Network System. This phase basically entails bringing up file servers and workstations and testing login procedures required by the chosen network OS. Problems can range anywhere from network errors due to faulty cable and/or network adapters to improper installation of the network OS. If cabling and network adapters are functioning properly, the next step should be to consult the network OS documentation on troubleshooting software problems.

Installation and Testing of the Application Software. This, of course, may include packages such as Lotus 1-2-3, dBase III Plus, and WordPerfect. In the software documentation, you may find special installation instructions for networks. First, as you install each package, verify that the software will run on the user workstations. Next, if problems are encountered, verify that installation steps have been followed properly. Lastly, if problems persist, contact the technical support group of the software vendor (for example, Lotus Development Corporation).

Organization of Applications and User Groups

Before the lab system is implemented, careful thought should be given to how

application programs will be setup and maintained on the file server(s) and how user groups should be registered on the system.

Directory Structures. If tree-structured directories are supported by the operating system software, each package should be located in a separate subdirectory. A subdirectory of the root called APPS (for applications) will contain subdirectories for each application package used on the system. The subdirectory called WP51 (containing WordPerfect 5.1) would be a subdirectory of APPS.

User Registration. A logical approach should be employed for user registration. If possible, each user group should have its own subdirectory. As shown in Appendix B, a subdirectory of the root called USERS will contain subdirectories for each user on the system. For example, subdirectory BADM205 would be a subdirectory of USERS. Network management is easier if an hierarchal directory structure for faculty and related courses is used instead of a flat structure.

Laboratory Policies and Documentation

The Computer Advisory Committee should establish long-term policies relating to the overall direction of the lab. Long-term policies may include the determination of hardware and software enhancements. The lab director should establish day-to-day policies. These policies may include lab hours, faculty training and seminars, lab consulting, expected behavior of users, and facilities management.

An extremely important, and often overlooked, process is the compilation of documentation for lab administration, lab assistants, and users. It is important that a thorough evaluation be given to documentation because of the impact on the operations of the lab. This documentation should be in writing. Examples are objectives of lab, diagrams of configuration of lab, uniform guidelines on current lab procedures for lab assistants, and various lab procedures for users.

Training of lab assistants

Advance training of lab assistants to monitor the lab is a priority to insure a well run lab. It is imperative that lab assistants communicate effectively with users. Every effort should be made to reduce the likelihood of intimidation by lab assistants. Although important, computer application skills are secondary requirements because they can be acquired through training and experience. The major role of lab assistants is to keep the system and peripherals operating; they are not there to help users (students) with their class assignments. Guidelines for lab assistants should be in writing.

CONCLUSION

The establishment of a Microcomputer Lab for a College of Business is an involved process that should be approached in a logical way. Many decisions will be made requiring a thorough understanding of all resources and needs. Through this process of analyzing, designing, and implementing, sound decisions relating to efficiency and lower cost can be obtained. As a result, students will have an environment where they can acquire background on hardware and software needed to enter the job market. Ultimately, students will be able to use this knowledge to process and interpret information for timely decision making.

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UTILIZING COMPUTERS IN THE TEACHING OF KEYBOARDING

Cynthia Bertrand
Calcasieu Parish School Board

Our technology-oriented society has mandated increased computer usage in all business education classrooms. Keyboarding teachers ask questions such as, "How do we modify teaching techniques?" and "What changes to our student evaluation process need to be made when teaching keyboarding on the computer?" According to Dr. Ted Stoddard of Brigham Young University, "These same questions have been asked when teachers began to teach on the electric typewriter, then the electronic typewriter, and now on the computer." He feels there is no right or wrong answer.*

Teachers are hesitant to give up traditional methods of teaching and evaluation standards for new ones. A shift in emphasis possibly needs to take place. Because students in the workplace will have access to computer technology, the acquisition of skills such as critical thinking, organization of information, and decision making will be crucial to survival on the job. Technology allows students to center text automatically, check spelling, set formatting details, and check grammar styles effortlessly. Perhaps it is time for teachers to realize that technology is here, and we need to teach students to use it to its fullest. This is not to say that we need to abandon teaching the traditional concepts of center point, margin setting, tabulation, etc. There is a strong need for the teacher to constantly make students aware of these techniques which are performed automatically by the computer.

Whether to allow immediate error correction on production work or timed writings is another question keyboarding teachers have. Students are quick to learn the location and use of the backspace key. After several timed writings, students will know whether they can sacrifice some speed in order to correct errors as they go. Because work can be produced faster and more accurately through the use of the computer as opposed to the typewriter, speed and accuracy requirements may need to be adjusted upward to compensate for computer use.

There is no substitute for continuous teacher monitoring of keystroking, positioning, and eyes-on-copy techniques. Constant motivation and positive reinforcement from the teacher will produce "fantastic" results.

*Telephone conversation with: Dr. Ted Stoddard
Information Management Department, School of Management
Brigham Young University Provo, Utah

VARIATIONS ON A BUSINESS THEME

Robert Gryder and Isabelle Blanco

In Volume 1, Number 1, of the ASU Business Teacher, dated March, Donald J. Tate commented about the future of business education in Arizona. Dr. Tate remarked that --

> The future for business education in Arizona is bright, even though the emphasis on other courses is bringing about readjustments. Business education can, however, emerge stronger and more effective if we will work together. Concertedly, we must seek ways to improve our strengths. Relentlessly, we must seek ways to improve our programs.
>
> Several factors point to a bright future: an increasing school population: Arizona's expanding economy, which will demand larger numbers of better-trained office workers; the realization that the best future for many students, now aspiring to other vocations, lies in the business world.
>
> In the meantime, business educators must accept their responsibility for making their courses attractive to the superior student as well as to the less gifted. They must take a positive approach rather than a decry a temporary situation.

For twenty years, we have enjoyed both an increasing school population and an expanding economy.

Cook and Lanham reported their findings about factors for success in office work.

The 20 factors of greatest importance revealed in the 1970 study were the following:

1. Dependability
2. Accuracy in performing operations
3. Ability to follow instructions accurately and without repetition
4. Attendance, tardiness, and strict observance of break and lunch periods
5. Speed in performing operations — amount of acceptable work produced.
6. Capacity for remembering necessary details, figures, and instructions

7. Initiative and/or resourcefulness
8. Personal appearance — appropriate dress and grooming
9. Ability to maintain harmonious working relations with others
10. Physical fitness for the work
11. Ability to work under pressure or abnormal conditions, such as meeting deadlines, multiple assignments, and extra work
12. Industry
13. Personality — cheerfulness and/or charm
14. Neatness and orderliness and maintenance or arrangement of physical surroundings, such as desks, files, and floor
15. Does not lose excessive time in personal telephone calls, talking with fellow workers, going to the restroom, and other personal activities
16. Ability to make judgments of decisions quickly and accurately
17. Natural ability and aptitude and attitude for the job
18. Acceptability of work — is within acceptable work standards for the job
19. Ability to organize work
20. Ability to suggest improvements in work techniques and operations.

Dependability and accuracy cannot be overemphasized in preparing students for success in their chosen occupational cluster in today's classes.

In the March, 1980, Research Report 9, "New Directions for Business Education," published by the Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Jeanette Bieber, Editor, identified five issues that are critical for business educators. Included were:

*The Issues of Declining Enrollment

*The Issues of Increasing Costs

*The Image of Business Education

The fifty business education professionals meeting in Snowbird, Utah, also expressed concern for

*new directions for the curriculum,

*new directions for professionalism, and

*new directions for recruitment.

Declining enrollment and increasing cost are two dilemmas currently facing business educators.

An Offense and a Defense for Business Education, NABTE Bulletin 75, published in December, 1961, is an excellent publication worthy of re-studying.

Dr. John Rowe, editor of this publication, expressed his view by writing

> An even more productive economy, necessary for our nations survival, demands formally and technically prepared personnel on the secondary school and collegiate levels. Our expanding economy needs many more technically prepared personnel including accountants, personnel managers, marketing analysts, secretaries, typists and clerical workers. Are we aware of the contributions and achievements make in our specialized areas in business education? Are these accomplishments visible to the public? Are we telling our story in this ideological educational conflict? It is important to have the 'press' on our side, too.
>
> It we know what others are doing or saying, when we might plan a proper strategy to make our course known. We need to be more articulate in telling the story of business education. In so far as the 'press' is concerned our 'visibility' is practically zero. Offerings in science, math, and other general education subjects need to be emphasized and expanded but in so doing, we need also to emphasize our important work in the practical arts curriculum areas.

Enhancing our image of business education continues to be a major problem.

In November, 1981, Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Omega Pi sent a questionnaire to all active chapters of that organization. Perhaps the views expressed by Dr. A. L. Kaisershot and Dr. Lila Prigge are representative.

A. L. Kaisershot, Illinois State University:

Issue: Lack of people interested in business education (teaching)
- Lack of men going into business education and teaching in particular
- Should business teaching be made more attractive in order to keep teachers in the profession — as opposed to going into business because of higher salaries

Trends: Fewer people (students) taking shorthand at all levels
- More attention given to word processing
- Decreasing emphasis is being given to skills classes in business education and more to the basic business courses — especially those advocated by AACSB.
- More requirements (such as 100 clock hours of pre-clinical experiences) for all teacher education students.
- More work is being required of teachers (business teacher as well) in the area of working with the identified handicapped.

Lila Prigge, University of North Dakota:

The increase in the number of In-service Adult Education Programs in out state is an emerging trend. According to a study completed last year by the State Board for Vocational Education, the following are also trends in North Dakota.

Increased use of dictation at the typewriter
Increased use of microfilm and microfiche, especially microfiche
Increased use of computers and CRTs
Less use of shorthand
Increased use of word processing installations
Increased emphasis on telephone techniques
Reduced use of fluid, stencil and offset duplicators
Increased use of photocopiers

In Volume 10, Number 1, of the Arizona Business Education Association Journal, dated Spring 1991, a number of educators were asked to prepare a brief statement about the future of business education. Ten points of view were presented as representative of the many views about business. Included were statements from

* a high school principal
* a dean emeritus of a college of education
* a president of a state business education association
* a student teacher from an urban school
* an interim provost and vice president for academic affairs
* a director of a private business college
* an associate superintendent of a school district
* a classroom teacher in a rural school
* a dean emeritus and professor of marketing
* an interim dean in a college of education

Key statements were:

(1) Today's business world is becoming increasingly more sophisticated, as reflected in management theories, the technological revolution, and the concept of a global economy.

(2) It is imperative that we give priority to determining what it is we should be teaching in business education — the skills and content our students need for the 21st Century.

In summary, thoughts like becoming visionary instructors, engaging our

students in the learning process, meeting the challenges with enthusiasm, working with industry, becoming fully globally involved, making decisions that affect the curriculum, believing that the future of business education at all levels is bright and recognizing the shared responsibility of a productive citizenry.

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An Administrative Support Occupations Course for the 1990's

Dr. Betty A. Kleen and Mrs. Hilda D. Morrison
Nicholls State University

Today we hear much about our service economy. As the economy grows, the volume of clerical work to be done will expand. According to the 1990-91 Occupational Outlook Handbook, approximately 2.5 million persons were employed as general office clerks in 1988. The Handbook also notes the number of people employed as a secretary makes this title one of the largest occupational titles in the U.S. economy. The need for replacements within these job titles, coupled with the expansion of clerical work in the 1990's, will result in an exceptionally large number of job openings within the next decade.

Developments in office technology are expected to continue, and this will further change the work environment of the office employee. While the computer and related technologies may make certain tasks more automated, there will remain numerous tasks which are NOT easily automated. The 1990's office worker will be faced with multifaceted responsibilities. Automated equipment cannot substitute for the personal skills that are essential to the office.

High school graduates can qualify for many of these entry-level general office clerk and secretary positions if they have basic office skills. The Administrative Support Occupations (ASO) Course, formerly Clerical Practice, is designed to provide the skills that will be needed by the 1990's office worker. The course is designed to reflect a balance of technology and personal skills and includes a content that is comprehensive and up to date.

Louisiana's Administrative Support Occupations Competency-Based Curriculum Guide

In the summer of 1989, 13 business educators from across the state of Louisiana assembled together under a grant from the Louisiana State Department of Education to develop a competency-based curriculum guide for the secondary schools business course previously entitled Clerical Practice. As a result of their project, Bulletin No. 1866, Competency-Based Administrative Support Occupations, has been prepared for use by secondary teachers across the state.

The writing team was composed of ten secondary clerical practice teachers, two university faculty, and the state's Business Education Program Director. Secondary

teachers selected represented various geographical areas of the state and schools of varying enrollments. An advisory team representing business, industry, and labor was also selected to assist the writing team.

Prior to the initial meeting of the group, a bibliography was assembled and specific curriculum materials from other states and the NBEA recommended curriculum materials were reviewed and appropriate materials distributed to the writing team for their review.

In June the writing and advisory teams met in Baton Rouge. During this two-day meeting, members identified essential major competencies, general performance objectives, and needed course content. At the end of this meeting, each member of the writing team took one unit to complete. Most of the writing was done during the months of July and August.

The team met three days in August to do comprehensive editing of each unit. Once again the advisory team was present to review additional specific objectives developed, review and suggest student activities, and identify areas of overlap or omitted content.

Following the August, 1989 meeting, final editing of the entire guide was completed by the project director, and the guide was reviewed by personnel in the State Department of Education prior to presentation for approval by the Board for Elementary and Secondary Education during the summer of 1990. Final printing and distribution was done through the Vocational Curriculum Development and Research Center in Natchitoches.

What Does the ASO Course Include?

Content and structure of an Administrative Support Occupations (ASO) or clerical practice class can indeed differ from state to state, as the curriculum materials from other states revealed. The Louisiana business teachers who participated in the project endeavored to select competencies and content that are most appropriate for Louisiana students based on student background, course prerequisites, and business and industry needs.

ASO is a course designed to enable students to master the procedures and skills necessary for the operation of a modern office. Students study emerging technologies and concepts that will allow them to function effectively in a high-tech office environment. One year of keyboarding instruction has been established as a prerequisite for the Louisiana ASO course. The course may be taught as either a one-semester offering or a full-year course. Suggested grade level is 11 or 12.

Units for a one-semester or full-year course are listed as follows with suggested time allotments.

Unit	Two Semesters	One Semester
Job Orientation	3 weeks	2 weeks
Text Processing	3 - 4 weeks	
Communication	3 - 4 weeks	2 weeks
Telecommunications	2 - 3 weeks	1 week
Receptionist Duties	2 - 3 weeks	2 weeks
Records Management	4 weeks	3 weeks
Office Machines	4 weeks	3 weeks
Financial Recordkeeping	4 weeks	2 weeks
Database and Spreadsheet	4 weeks	
Mail and Shipping	2 weeks	1 week
Reprographics Systems	1 week	1 week
Pre-Employment Activities	2 weeks	1 week
Desktop Publishing	optional	optional

Specific Organization and Content of the ASO Guide

Each unit of the guide includes a list of competencies, specific performance objectives, learning activities, suggested subject matter, content outline, supplemental learning activities, sample tests and answer keys, bulletin board ideas, and list of supplemental materials including texts, simulations, practice sets, films, videocassettes, transparencies, and software.

Job Orientation, Unit I, covers a broad spectrum of the office and is designed to assist the student in identifying and explaining purposes and characteristics of a typical office, responsibilities of various personnel, and items important for all new office employees. Desirable character traits in working and getting along with others are also emphasized.

Unit II, Text Processing, provides students an opportunity to polish skills related to keying documents in appropriate formats, using appropriate computer hardware or stand-alone equipment. This unit may be omitted in a one-semester course.

Communication, Unit III, is designed to assist students in mastering correct basic language arts rules; composing and producing mailable business documents; and developing good listening, nonverbal, and oral communication skills.

Telecommunications, Unit IV, addresses the handling of incoming and outgoing business calls, identification of appropriate telecommunications media for distributing

voice, data, and image communications, and the features of local area networks.

Receptionist duties are addressed in Unit V. Content includes topics such as processing visitors, coordinating appointments and internal meetings, planning and scheduling business trips, and selecting and purchasing office supplies. Numerous human relation skills are polished as this unit is studied.

Unit VI, Records Management, familiarizes students with common filing methods and procedures in other phases of the total records management program. Management of records in paper, microimaged, and electronic format is included.

Office Machines, Unit VII, provides objectives and learning activities for transcription of mailable copy using a transcription machine. Also included are instructions for operation of an electronic calculator to perform common office financial activities.

Unit VIII, Financial Recordkeeping, addresses both manual and electronic processing procedures. Activities such as maintaining checking accounts, computing payroll, handling inventory and tax record responsibilities, and processing payables and receivables are included.

Database and Spreadsheet Processing, Unit IX, introduces database and spreadsheet processing. The guide contains a sufficient number of hands-on exercises so that the individual teacher does not have to spend extra time creating appropriate assignments. For a school whose students already have a basic introduction to these software packages, more advanced work could be assigned.

Processing incoming and outgoing mail efficiently is a key competency identified in Unit X. Mail classes, special services, and shipping methods are also addressed within the unit content and specific performance objectives.

Preparing and producing quality final documents through the use of various office reprographics systems are the major competencies in Unit XI, Reprographics Systems.

Students learn to present themselves effectively when seeking office employment when studying Unit XII, Pre-Employment Activities. Students study and prepare all documents related to applying for and obtaining employment and demonstrate appropriate interview dress, behavior, and skills.

An optional unit on Desktop Publishing is also included in the Guide. In addition to defining various desktop publishing terms and describing basic components of a desktop publishing system, students may actually produce selected documents using desktop publishing systems if available.

The first five units described in the preceding paragraphs provide an introduction to the office, office work, and basic skills. The remaining units address additional skill areas and provide materials to assist the student in preparing to obtain an office job. The materials presented within this Guide and the secondary Administrative Support Occupations course should also prepare the student who continues his or her education

Feature Article: Reprint Permission Granted

BUSINESS AND EDUCATION — A CLOSER RELATIONSHIP

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There has never been a time when business and education needed each other more than today. Educators have faced an onslaught of public criticism while business simultaneously have watched their positions in the world market erode partially because of the lack of a well-trained work force. For some time now, futurists have been documenting megatrends which signal a shift from an industrial age to an information age. This shift comes at a time when American businesses are facing a critical labor shortage. Businesses have an immediate and increasing need for employees who are technologically skilled and able to apply knowledge and information. This need correlates with the mission of business education programs which is to prepare future employees who will comprise a competent work force that will enable business and industry to be competitive in a global economy.

The expectations of business people for graduates are increasing at a time when many students' performance is declining. Business people expect high school and college graduates to be adequately prepared to enter the complex world of work, to have a broader perspective than yesterday's graduates, to think and make decisions, to speak and write with clarity and precision, to locate and use information, and to adapt and adjust to changing and emerging work requirements. A recent poll of personnel officers in 1,200 large U.S. corporations revealed that only 16 percent were satisfied with the education and training of new employees and only 36 were satisfied with the competency of new employees. Human resource officers in 500 of Americas largest manufacturing firms, 500 largest service firms, and 200 largest privately owned companies report that they typically have to interview seven or eight applicants to find one acceptable employee. Many of those who are hired require too much on-the-job training to become effective in their jobs.1 Clearly, the graduates many schools are producing frequently are not a good match to the employees business are seeking.

This year we witnessed the passage of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act of 1990 which promotes increased involvement between education and business. The Act authorizes $125 million for tech prep programs and $10 million for business-labor-education partnerships. Both of these provisions are aimed at fulfilling the needs for business for skilled employees and infusing

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resources into the schools to improve the quality of our educational programs.

Although business and education have not tapped the multitude of opportunities to work together for a common purpose, the two entities have succeeded in a number of joint ventures that have been mutually beneficial. Examples of cooperative efforts are student work-experience programs, staff-exchange programs, on-site training seminars provided by business educators, tuition-waiver programs for employees enrolled in business programs, and placement of graduate in jobs. Still other cooperative ventures include business professionals serving on education advisory committees and business educators serving as consultants to management. Formal school/business partnerships have been established in some big city school districts where large corporations are located. Through these partnerships, businesses have delivered needed services to schools, provided cash contributions, provided support for the educational staff, and even worked for more tax support for the schools. Some smaller school districts use an arrangement called adopt-a-school program where specific companies are matched with schools. These types of school/business alliances are most successful when they involve an exchange of human resources, services, and ideas. There is a natural linkage between the business world and business education that needs to be developed fully to capitalize on the benefits each can provide.

The evidence shows that many business people are concerned about the problems faced by education and sincerely want to assist in finding solutions. Business people can be sources of moral and political support, financial support, and ideas for improving education. Education is increasingly hamstrung by the taxpayer revolt, battered by public criticism of the quality of education, and thwarted by declining enrollments, thus, limiting the resources schools need to do their job. Businesses can be instrumental in making the needed changes by providing strong support — vocally and financially. Many businesses have already provided cash contributions for the purchase of equipment, or sponsored awards for competitive events or high achievement. This financial assistance has enabled business education departments to equip computer laboratories; conduct business teacher of the year contests; and offer scholarships for deserving graduates; send students to regional, state, and national meetings of student organizations; obtain certificates and prizes for student contest; fund consumer and educational research. Unlimited opportunities are available to businesses who want to make a difference in education; educators must locate these interested people and provide avenues for them to contribute.

Increasingly, school-business partnerships represent valuable components of the educational system. By providing work experience opportunities, loaning personnel, updating teachers, granting funds, and actively supporting public schools, the

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business and industrial communities make contributions that cannot be measured in dollars and cents. School and business working together to produce better students and better employees is a powerful idea—and the time is right!

While business can provide support to education, there are likewise many opportunities for education to contribute to the welfare of businesses. Some of these opportunities, however, will require adjustments in scheduling, delivery systems, and methodology, and business educators must be prepared to embrace these changes. Business education can provide students information for and about business, the private enterprise system, financial services provided by business, legal aspects of business, and management principles. Business education can offer students an understanding of the organization and operation of American business activities in the context of the global marketplace. Today, it is essential for students to be prepared to deal with the managerial styles of other cultures and the cultural diversity of the workplace.

Business educators can use their vast network to teach all students consumer economics, basic technology training, employability skills, and communication techniques. In addition, educators can train a cadre of highly skilled technology employees who are prepared to keep pace with emerging technological needs of business. Further, the business education community can help provide basic skills training to the large numbers of on-the-job employees who are not adequately prepared to function effectively. Many business educators can assist businesses by serving as consultants in such areas as technology, communication, and finance. As we approach the 21st century, business educators must accept the fact that the traditional teaching day 8 o'clock to 3 o'clock may be altered to include more evening programs. weekend colleges , and on-site training classes and seminars. In addition, educators and business people must both be attuned to emerging trends and demographics that are already impacting both the school and workplace and promise to dominate the efforts of both entities for years to come. Some of these trends:

1. The move away from blue-collar workers to information processors as robots assume mundane and dangerous jobs;
2. The decline of the white American-born, male-dominate work force
3. The dramatic increase of African-Americans, Hispanics, and immigrants to the extent that this group will comprise 57 percent of the growth of the labor force by the year 2000;
4. The continued trend of women in the work force that will place three-fifths of all women over 16 in the workplace;
5. The need to use senior citizens,retirees, and the physically challenged to fill vacancies;
6. The process of transporting employees to the work place which

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correlates with a society that is increasingly protective of the environment;

7. The increase of international trade as European countries open their doors to American products;
8. The use of superconductors which can lead to incredible savings in energy
9. The impact of the budgetary deficit and the overseas trade imbalance;
10. The burdens of the homeless and the failure of savings and loan institutions on an already overstretched and weakening economy;
11. The emergence of artificial intelligence which will enable a computer to manipulate symbols representing facts and objects in ways that imitate human thought;
12. The increased use of electronic mail, networking, telecommunications, and facsimile; and
13. The expanding need of adults for retraining and upgrading of job skills.

These trends point out graphically the immediate need for business and business education to form a partnership that will be mutually beneficial and, at the same time, allow each group the opportunity to make an invaluable contribution to the country's financial, economic, and social well being. Business people and business educators must do a better job of tracking trends to anticipate needs and prepare for the future.

The success of any venture between two groups depends on shared risks, shared goals, and shared rewards. The risks seem minimal when compared to the limitless opportunities available to business and business education when goals and plans are shared and support is offered to each other.. The rewards should be a more respected, supported, and competent educational system; a better trained and effective work force; and an internationally competitive economy.

The time is NOW for business education and business to develop closer working relationships designed to make a difference.

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1: American Vocational Association. "In Washington," Vocational Education Journal 65:21; September 1990.

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at the post-secondary level, either at the vocational-technical school level or in a university's two- or four-year program in administrative support occupations or office systems.

A sound competency-based ASO course in the business curriculum at the secondary level can provide students with the skills that will be needed by the 1990's office worker. Students who complete the course will have developed a balance of technological and personal skills essential for successful office employment.

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THE EFFECTS OF AN INTERNSHIP PROGRAM ON MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

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This study presents the results and discusses the significant findings between male and female intern students measuring preference ratings regarding work motivation and conflict management skills. The data were analyzed utilizing frequency percentages, t-Tests and Analysis of Variance. A probability of $P < .05$ was set as the acceptable significance level for each statistical test.

Findings of the study indicated that male interns acclimated to the business internship environment better than female interns. Male interns seemingly produced harmonious relationships with business organizations and females did not feel appreciated or accepted by business organizations to the extent that male interns did.

Background Information

A total of 94 intern students (43 male and 47 female students) were selected for testing from a population of approximately 3,000 interns enrolled in the National Executive High School Internship Program. Interns were placed in management/ executive level positions and were not expected to fill existing work slots, rather each received hands-on experience for what an executive's daily routine was like.

One of the objectives of the Executive High School Internship Program is to expose students to situations involving management conflict that were not experienced in the traditional classroom, thus, providing opportunities for interns to learn the implications for their behavior from others. It was expected that interns would acquire similar personal characteristics to those exhibited by successful sponsors and that their maturity would be accelerated.

Instrumentation

This study compared the preference ratings of work motivation needs and conflict management skills on two instruments: (a) Work values were measured on the need hierarchy concept originated and developed by Abraham Maslow, Work Motivation Inventory (WMI) (Hall & William, 1973). This assessment measured the needs which students considered to be important in making decisions about their work. (b) Conflict management was measured by a Conflict Management Survey (CMS) developed by Telemetrics International, 1973 and accessed conflict as a part of

a human condition. The test instrument was administered at the beginning of the semester, as a pretest, prior to the internship experience and the same instrument was administered in a similar fashion at the end of the internship semester as a posttest.

Analysis of the Data

The question answered in this study was "When categorized according to sex, are there differences on scores of the study instruments between male and female interns?" A significant difference was found between male and female interns on the Work Motivation Inventory (WMI), subcategory, Belonging and Affiliation. This need system reflects an individuals concern with social relationships and his/her preoccupation with being an accepted member of the work group or of the organizational family (Hall & Williams, 1973). Higher scores indicated a greater reliance on this need level. Following the internship experience, the mean gain score was -3.069 for males and 2.57 for females. Based on differences in test scores, it appears that females did not achieve as much acceptance in the business organization during their internship experience as males did. Males demonstrated a greater reliance on the subcategory, Actualization and self-expression to fulfil their work motivation needs; where an individual is concerned with testing his own potential, and preoccupied with challenging opportunities and chances to be creative.

Female interns were preoccupied with maintenance needs, and were primarily motivated by the nature of their environment and tended to avoid challenging opportunities. They were predisposed to dissatisfaction and were chronically preoccupied with non-task issues. Male interns, on the other hand, were primarily motivated by the demands of the task and had a high tolerance for poor environmental factors. Their ensuing behaviors were easily channeled toward the attainment of both personal and organizational objectives. Female interns were more likely to leave a situation they felt was hopeless, rather than being caught in an endless struggle which they felt they could not win.

The results of this data have several implications for education professionals. Not only does it raise serious questions about the current instructional patterns and curricula used in our public school systems that promote higher expectations in males than in females, but it suggest that our teaching methods devalues the female experience and encourages females to exhibit inferior characteristics in the workplace

The Conflict Management Survey (CMS), subcategory, Yield-lose Style of conflict management revealed significant differences between male and female

interns. This dominant conflict management style indicated that females reflected a greater concern for the effect of conflict on the well-being and durability of her relationship than the male interns. The Synergistic style of conflict management was demonstrated by the male interns which incorporates major importance to the goals of members and the relationship simultaneously. Differences were confronted in a problem-solving way and served primarily as symptoms of incomplete understanding and less than acceptable levels of commitment

The data revealed that female interns increased their overall scores on the CMS to a greater extent than did male interns (females = 11; males = 8). Therefore, it is necessary to analyze the global picture of this test to determine the implications of an internship experience on female students. Male interns began their internship experience with a higher level of perceived conflict management ability than intern female students. Following the internship experience, female students made notable gains in all areas of conflict and finished the experiment three points higher than males in the subcategory, Synergistic Style of conflict management. Therefore, exposure to business strategies in the workplace increased the female interns' perception of the appropriate methods to handle conflict and it can be concluded that female intern students changed their preferences of conflict management after their experience in the internship program.

Summary

The scores indicated that female interns had a greater reliance on solving conflict through self-sacrifice and by placing the importance of continued relationships above personal goals prior to their experience in the internship program. Female interns increased their conflict management skills to achieve a greater reliance on appropriate conflict management styles following their exposure in the internship program and to business organizational structures. School administrators, instructors and counselors should be aware of the perceived work motivation and decision-making differences between male and female students in order to design learning strategies which encourage females to be successful in the executive-business environment.

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BUSINESS COMMUNICATION PRINCIPLES: A STRATEGIC APPROACH

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Which approach to teaching certain Business Communication competencies produces the best results: (1) Teaching the generally accepted principles of business communication except the "Sequence of Ideas" principle for good news, bad news, and persuasive messages, (2) Teaching the generally accepted "Sequence of Ideas" principle without the other principles, or (3) Teaching the generally accepted principles including the "Sequence of Ideas" principle?

Background

A search of the literature in Business Communication reveals several principles that are commonly accepted as guidelines for preparation of business messages. These principles may not be absolute; nevertheless, they can serve to improve the degree of understanding between sender and receiver. Six major principles of business and organizational communication were identified through research conducted for development of a collegiate textbook, Organizational Communication: A Strategic Approach, Second Edition, (Wells and Spinks, 1989). These six principles are presented below:

1. Receiver Perception/You Attitude. The communicator should concentrate on how receivers will perceive messages, not on how senders can best express themselves. Messages should be approached from receivers' points of view, needs, interests, and problems; and not from senders' points of view, needs, interests, or problems.

2. Conversational Words. Communicators should speak and write naturally and not try to use formal, stilted, ancient, legalistic, or "big" words.

3. Semantics. Communicators should be aware that differences in meanings are attached to words by different people, and that these differences can cause miscommunication.

4. Logical and Psychological Approaches. Communicators should approach messages from psychological as well as logical viewpoints, since humans often respond to psychological factors more than to logical factors.

5. Conciseness. Messages should include everything that needs to be included, but nothing more.

6. Sequence of Ideas. Messages should be organized according to whether receivers will perceive them as good news, bad news, or persuasive.

Need for the Research

Obviously, it is important for businesspersons to be able to produce effective messages. However, it is equally true that Business Communication professors do not have unlimited time to devote to each important subject matter area in their classes. The following questions arise:

1. Is teaching principles of Business Communication, excluding the "Sequence of Ideas" principle, sufficient to enable students to produce satisfactory business messages?
2. Is teaching the "Sequence of Ideas" principle, without teaching the other principles of Business Communication, sufficient to enable students to produce satisfactory business messages?
3. Is it necessary to teach all principles of Business Communication, including the "Sequence of Ideas" principle, to enable students to produce satisfactory business messages?

Problem

The purpose of this research project was to determine which one of the following three approaches to teaching certain Business Communication competencies produces the best results:

1. Teaching the generally accepted principles of business communication except the "Sequence of Ideas" principle;
2. Teaching the generally accepted "Sequence of Ideas" principle for good news, bad news, and persuasive messages without the other principles; or
3. Teaching the generally accepted principles of Business Communication including the "Sequence of Ideas" principle.

Teaching the first five principles was being tested against teaching the sixth principle. Therefore, in accordance with the Diederich method, "Receiver Perception/You Attitude," "Conversational Words," "Semantics," "Logical and Psychological Approaches," and "Conciseness" principles were assigned a possible 10 points each, for a possible grand total of 50 points. The "Sequence of Ideas" principle was assigned a possible grand total of 50 points (Diederich, 1974).

Research Design

This research project was completed by the following research design:

1. Students in three Business Communication classes at a medium-size state

university were pretested to determine their initial abilities in the Business Communication competencies being studied. The test used involved an assignment taken from a college level textbook, Organizational Communication: A Strategic Approach, Second Edition, (Wells and Spinks, 1989), and results were recorded on a variation of the Diederich Analytic Scale (Diederich, 1974), as prepared by the researchers following a thorough search of the literature pertaining to the subject. For pretest scores, the tested principles were assigned points according to the following plan:

"Receiver Perception/You Attitude"	0 - 10 points
"Conversational Words"	0 - 10 points
"Semantics"	0 - 10 points
"Logical and Psychological Approaches"	0 - 10 points
"Conciseness"	0 - 10 points
"Sequence of Ideas"	0 - 50 points

2. Students in Class A received instruction in five of the generally accepted principles of Business Communication: (1) "Receiver Perception/You Attitude," (2) "Conversational Words," (3) "Semantics," (4) "Logical and Psychological Approaches," and (5) "Conciseness" (Wells and Spinks, 1989).

3. Students in Class B received instruction in the generally accepted "Sequence of Ideas" principle for business messages (Wells and Spinks, 1989).

4. Students in Class C received instruction in all six principles of Business Communication, included in the experiment (Wells and Spinks, 1989).

5. Students in the three classes were posttested to determine their final abilities in the Business Communication competencies being tested. The test used involved the same assignment used for the pretest (Wells and Spinks, 1989), and results were recorded on a variation of the Diederich Analytic Scale (Diederich, 1974), as prepared by researchers following a thorough search of the literature pertaining to the subject. For posttest scores, the tested principles were assigned points according to the following plan:

"Receiver Perception/You Attitude"	0 - 10 points
"Conversational Words"	0 - 10 points
"Semantics"	0 - 10 points
"Logical and Psychological Approaches"	0 - 10 points
"Conciseness"	0 - 10 points
"Sequence of Ideas"	0 - 50 points

The research design is illustrated below:

Class A	Pretest	IMone* Posttest
Class B	Pretest	IMtwo**Posttest
Class C	Pretest	IMone* Posttest IMtwo**

*IMone: Instruction Module One—the six generally accepted principles of Business Communication being studied, excluding the "Sequence of Ideas" principle.

**IMtwo: Instruction Module Two—the generally accepted "Sequence of Ideas" principle for business messages.

6. Analyses of Variance and "t" tests were employed to determine the following:
   a. The significance of difference among means of three pretests;
   b. The significance of difference among means of three posttests; and
   c. Significances of differences between means of pretests and posttests of Classes A, B, and C.

7. Conclusions were drawn concerning teaching some of the generally accepted principles of Business Communication

Findings and Analysis

Pretests and posttests from all three classes participating in the study were evaluated by two qualified Business Communication professors having a combined forty-one years of Business Communication teaching experience. Each test paper was evaluated, and results were recorded on an evaluation form derived from the Diederich Analytic Scale (Diederich, 1974).

A table was constructed for each class participating in the study, and the total score from each evaluation form was recorded in the appropriate table. For validity purposes, scores of the two evaluators were averaged. Average score columns were totaled, and an average score for each class was derived.

The Minitab statistical analysis software package was used on the University's IBM mainframe computer to perform the following analyses:

1. An analysis of variance among means of pretests for Classes A, B, and C;

2. An analysis of variance among means of posttests for Classes A, B, and C;

3. "t" tests of significances of differences between means of pretests and posttests for Classes A, B, and C; and

4. A "t" test of significance of difference between means of posttests for Classes B and C. [NOTE: Positive results were obtained in both Classes B and C.]

The analysis of variance among means of pretests of the three classes resulted in an F ratio of 1.59. An F ratio table indicated that this ratio was not significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that significant differences in abilities to prepare messages required by pretests did not exist among the three classes.

The analysis of variance among means of posttests of the three groups resulted in an F ratio of 44.51. An F ratio table indicated that this ratio was significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that significant differences in abilities to prepare messages required by posttests did exist among the three classes.

The "t" test of significance between means of pretests and posttests for Class A resulted in a F ratio of 1.28. [NOTE: A "t" test performed with the Minitab statistical program results in an F ratio rather than a "t" value.] An F ratio table indicated that this ratio was not significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that no real, additional abilities were gained to prepare messages required by posttests.

The "t" test of significance between means of pretests and posttests for Class B resulted in an F ratio of 94.25. An F ratio table indicated that this ratio was significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that real, additional abilities were gained to prepare messages required by posttests.

The "t" test of significance between means of pretests and posttests for Class C resulted in an F ratio of 64.81. An F ratio table indicated that this ratio was significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that real, additional abilities were gained to prepare messages required by posttests.

Since positive results were obtained in both Class B and Class C, a "t" test of significance between means of posttests of these two classes was performed to determine if significantly better results were obtained in one class or the other. This test resulted in an F ratio of 6.27. An F ratio table indicated that this value was significant at the 95 percent (.05) level of confidence. Therefore, one can be 95 percent certain that Class B students did possess greater abilities to prepare acceptable business messages than Class C students possessed.

Taken at face value, this would imply that teaching the "Sequence of Ideas" principle alone may produce better results than a combination of the other five principles and the "Sequence of Ideas" principle. However, when the lower pretest scores of Class C are taken into account, raw data reveal that differences in improvement between the two classes were very slight. Class B scores improved an average of only 1.08 percent more than Class C scores.

Conclusions

After thoroughly examining results of this research project, researchers have arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Teaching the six generally accepted principles of Business Communication being studied, excluding the "Sequence of Ideas" principle, does not result in significant improvements in students' abilities to produce satisfactory business messages.

2. Teaching the generally accepted "Sequence of Ideas" principle without teaching the other five principles of Business Communication does result in significant improvements in students' abilities to produce satisfactory business messages.

3. Teaching all six of the generally accepted principles of Business Communication, including the "Sequence of Ideas," principle does result in significant improvements in students' abilities to produce satisfactory business messages.

4. No additional competencies in the preparation of business messages are gained from teaching five of the principles of Business Communication in addition to the "Sequence of Ideas" principle.

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INTEGRATING COMPUTERS INTO BUSINESS COURSES

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The question is no longer WILL we include computers in business classes but HOW will computer instruction and applications be integrated into the curriculum and WHAT specific computer instruction or applications will be included in the individual courses within the business curriculum.

COMPUTER INTEGRATION INTO BUSINESS COURSES

How computers are integrated into the business curriculum is determined by one of two teaching options: teaching computer technology as a separate course or teaching specific computer applications in individual courses. The choice is determined by the goal of the course. Is the goal to teach the computer technology itself or is the goal one of teaching the course by use of computer technology? In most courses beyond Computer Literacy, the goal is to integrate the use of computer applications into existing business courses. The choice is often only limited by the number and type of computers purchased for use in the classroom.

Selecting the Courses and Defining Applications. In prior planning, courses are determined which will include the microcomputer and the specific computer applications to be used in each course are defined. Entire courses are being taught with textbooks which have accompanying software applications, some of which are: Automated Accounting, Database Applications, Information/Word Processing, Keyboarding, Record Keeping, and Office Practice. In other courses, the computer applications are limited to specific skills or knowledge. In Basic Business, Records Management, Accounting/Record Keeping/Bookkeeping, traditional methods of instruction using manual methods of applications should be provided and supplemented with computer software applications. Students may first be taught the accounting cycle using the manual system and be given practice in applying these concepts by using a practice set simulating transactions for a small business. Most business courses are currently supplemented by use of computer assisted instruction in the form of software applications for a portion of the course, rather than being taught entirely by computer applications.

Almost every business course lends itself to some type of computer application. This necessitates the continuous examination of the curriculum concerning the

content of each course and the technology currently used in businesses. The general rule of thumb is "if it's done in business, teach it".

WHAT COMPUTER APPLICATIONS ARE INTEGRATED INTO BUSINESS COURSES?

Computer Terminology. Computer terminology should be taught in ALL courses in the business curriculum. Each term should be updated deliberately and consistently when teaching any course reflecting computer technology. Examples of this effort include: "key" or "input" data into the computer; "data" is input to the computer; "information" is processed data; and "output" can be derived in several forms such as softcopy on the CRT, hardcopy from the printer, saved to disk, etc.

Computers find immense usage in all of the following business courses: Accounting/Bookkeeping, Record Keeping; Basic Business; Business Communications; Computer Literacy; Information Processing (Word/Data); Machine Transcription; Keyboarding/Typewriting; Records Management/Database Management; Secretarial, Office Procedures (COE); and Computerized Shorthand.

Accounting/Bookkeeping. Accounting is now fully automated which makes the computer a necessary component of accounting instruction if students are to meet the expectations of the business world. Most small and medium size businesses adapt their accounting system to off-the-shelf software.

It is necessary that the manual accounting methods be used until the student has completed the steps in the basic accounting cycle and the student has an understanding of accounting theory and concepts. This is usually a first semester course. It is possible to use a textbook which supplements the first course content with accounting applications for use on the computer. The same information can be processed by the student manually and on the computer showing a comparison of the methods.

There are many software programs, modules, simulations, and end of chapter problems for Payroll, Accounts Receivable, Accounts Payable, General Ledger, etc., which teach students computer applications and give meaning to concepts. It is important that students realize that computerized accounting data is input from source documents which result in automatic posting to accounts and can be extended into automatic generation of financial statements. Students need to see the effects of source document input, automatic posting to accounts, and automatic generation of financial statements.

Basic Business. In Basic Business classes, many instructors use computer applications, modules and simulations, which are supplementary to texts. Many such applications are available. One example is a four-part series of 16 lessons for use in Basic Business and Consumer Economics that can be taught by use of the computer. Morrison.

Publishing companies offer computerized programs which contain units on banking, interest, loan amortization, budgeting, payroll, and income tax (tutorial on 1040A). Computerized activities in Basic Business, as well as those included in other courses, have the same benefits to students such as: the learner has a sense of control, is actively involved, gets immediate feedback, and has a high level of expectation about individual ability to succeed.

Business Communication. Executives surveyed indicate that communication skills are most important in any career. U.S. News and World Report recently reported that 65% of the country's businesspersons are unable to express themselves clearly in writing. Software programs that point out weaknesses in communications are used in business communication classes. A student keyboards the first draft into a terminal, runs the programs, and receives from the computer an analysis of the draft with suggestions for revision. After considering the analysis, and editing this first draft, the student returns to the terminal, calls up his file and makes the necessary changes. The final copy of the assignment is printed and submitted for grading. Instructor comments are a meaningful addition to the computer application printout. Students retain their diskettes for revision purposes. When papers are returned to students, changes can be readily made by powering up the computer, calling up the file, making the revisions, and printing the changed and edited copy.

Write Right and Grammatik II are two comprehensive computer programs. These programs edit for subject-verb agreement, the use of personal pronouns, incorrect punctuation, and syllabic intensity. Students may also use word processing software to compose, edit and revise letters. Many word processing programs check spelling, sentence arrangement, and format.

Computer Literacy. There are numerous Computer Literacy books on the market. Many provide a supplementary computer diskette that can be used to familiarize students with the content of the course, terminology, and computer applications. Computer Literacy classes most often include the use of integrated software containing word processing, spreadsheet, database, graphics, and telecommunications. Some include desktop publishing. Computer Literacy will become a byproduct of use of the computer in a few years as students are now using computers at the kindergarten level.

Post secondary and college level computer information systems topics include a general history of information processing; computer terminology; the information processing cycle of input, processing, output; methods of communication, electronic and telecommunications; information processing functions of recording, coding, sorting, calculating, summarizing, communicating, storing, and retrieving; hardware; software; desktop publishing; scanners; facsimile;

decision-making programs; and integrated systems.

Information Processing (Word/Data/DeskTop Publishing). A merging of the term DATA and WORD became information processing and has moved beyond keyboarding and input of data, to include desktop publishing, telecommunications, scanners, and facsimile. The most important point to emphasize is that data is entered into the system one time, saved to files, and moved about within the computer system as necessary. It is less costly to businesses to merge files in an information management system. Desktop publishing is now included on Word Perfect version 5.1 which indicates a trend for information/word processing.

It is also necessary that students experience the use of transfer programs which are used to transfer files between types of computers. This is acccomplished by linking computers and using software transfer programs. Another important development which is often taught is transfer of files into other software programs such as, from word processors to desktop publishers.

Integrated software packages which include: a word processor, spreadsheet, database, graphics and telecommunications, are being used in information processing to teach the entire course. Desktop publishers and other software are available for the energetic teacher. Texts, software, and documentation are often provided in one packaged course. Supplementary handouts are often prepared by teachers, as additional explanation is helpful to students.

Data Processing. The microcomputer system can provide the basis for data processing in the curriculum including data entry, programming, printer control and manipulation, storage, retrieval, and computer operations. Software programs are readily available from textbook publishers, with accompanying content and documentation which include course objectives, projects, and tests for students. Terminology and computer use should be the focus of this class. A sufficient amount of terminal time outside of class should be possible for each student as lab time.

If the choice is to teach BASIC programming, structured logic should be stressed for transfer of learning. Word processing and integrated software programs are often included in introductory classes.

Information/Word Processing. Texts with accompanying diskettes have been available and are used in most schools. This course has been under used in most business education programs. Word processing courses now receive additional emphasis and give way to a course which can be the reference point for using computers in all business classes. Sharing of computer time within the areas of machine transcription, office procedures, records management, etc., is essential. Sharing of labs and cooperation planning the use of software and equipment is a must.

The teaching of word processing classes with computers should include: storage and

retrieval of data; revision of files to include adding, deleting, merging, and updating files; manipulation and rearranging of files to include paragraphs and graphics within a document; importing of files from other software; customizing form letters; and report generation from files. All of these functions are available on integrated software packages. Some software now contains an accompanying desktop publisher, or one is included in the word processing program.

Records Management/Data Base Management. The paperless office is in reality loaded with paper, but supplemented by much data on disk as the cost for electronic storage and retrieving has become cost effective. Businesses find computers reliable as the electronic age settles in. Some organizations are advertising a totally paperless office; but more realistically the goal of most organizations is simply to have less paper in the office and increased employee productivity. What many information systems need is a way of generating less data that is not used.

Manual and electronic filing procedures need to be examined and compared. Different types of electronic storage media are also important. Students are interested in procedures for utilizing a micrographic storage medium in conjunction with electronic storage. Document retention procedures are more important as electronic filing continues to increase.

To teach computerize records management, some teachers, teach the basic filing rules, give each student a simulation exercise which includes sorting, coding, indexing, cross-referencing, and arranging a set of names manually. After completing the simulation exercise, the general filing procedures using the computer are introduced, which eases the transition to the computer. The same exercise, with appropriate instructions, is assigned on the computer and the simulation data is input at the CRT. Upon completion, a printout is made for the instructor. Reactions of students have been positive and enthusiastic and teaching is more interesting.

Secretarial/Office Procedures (COE). Textbook publishers offer material for secretaries and office procedures classes which can be used with or without computers. Business teachers recognize that computer applications are especially helpful in the assignments given in the office procedures class. A word processing program is a necessity and should be used for rough draft, revision, etc. Simulations which are now computerized contain activities to supplement most texts and can be purchased separately.

When developing word processing applications for the office procedures class, begin with needs assessment, goal setting, and stating objectives. Competencies such as correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, numerical form, proofreading, maintaining a good attendance record, work with interruptions, work under time pressure, meeting deadlines, carrying out originator's instructions by revising previously typed work, and edit material are important.

Strategies to carry out these competencies should include: student-operated word processing centers, schools contracting with outside firms to use equipment in return for operator help, and creation of electronic communication networks within an educational system. Other strategies, include designating a word processing center as an attractive physical area within the office procedures classroom and creating office procedures manuals modeled after local businesses.

Office procedures should stress the language arts skills, production typing of business reports and letters, electronic mail, filing, penmanship, resumes, and job seeking and job retention skills. Completion of job application forms and writing of resumes that may be used by the students in seeking jobs are an especially important by-product of the office procedures class.

Dictation/Machine Transcription. Computers should be available for a portion of the work in the Machine Transcription classes. Transcription rates should be developed equal to those that business require, at least 25 WPM. As with transcription of shorthand notes, machine-transcription classes will profit by the use of computers in the revision and production of final copy. Word processing applications are necessary for rough draft editing and final copy. These programs are already available and cause no additional cost in hardware and software. The practice is invaluable and particularly relevant.

Keyboarding. Because word processors and typewriters are still used in schools and business offices, some experts argue that the keyboard and correct fingering techniques should be taught first on the typewriter or word processor, while others argue that keyboarding should be taught on the computer. Nonetheless, the basics of teaching keyboarding/typewriting are much the same. Teachers who teach on the typewriter often follow the text in presentation of lessons; computerized keyboarding uses similar format. Terminology should be updated to include computer terms even if the course is taught on the typewriter. Machine parts and computer components are taught as needed. Special programs for timed writings on the alphabet and number keys are available which help develop speed and accuracy.

It is suggested that basic keyboarding classes include a discussion and orientation of the differences between the typewriter keyboard and the computer keyboard with its special function keys. Accuracy is a concern of those hiring business students. Students should be taught to key data rapidly and to correct errors using the backspacing method, while maintaining a high production rate. Ten keypad operation should also be taught.

Alphabetic keyboarding and microcomputer keypad operations can be taught solely with the use of software. Keypad operations can be included in any one of several business courses. Likewise, software programs are readily available for teaching formatting of letters, memos, reports, tables, and forms. Software can be used to

develop speed and accuracy as well as to evaluate the student's keyboarding skills. These programs are available at a reasonable cost. They adjust to the student's skill level so that the student has instant feedback and constant reinforcement. The student can learn at an individual rate. In keyboarding, it is particularly important that touch keying be taught. Terminology of the computer should be included, such as, "input" of data, and data is "keyed" rather than typewritten. An update of classroom terminology to include new computer terms is very important. Some educators suggest that after students have learned proper formatting, they should be allowed to make their own decisions about which format appears attractive on the page.

One school that teaches touch typing not only takes advantage of what a computer can do, but also retains a classroom atmosphere. Students meet as a group in the computer laboratory for the first half of the semester and concentrate on building a touch-keying skill. For the second half of the semester, students are taught in the typing laboratory to key business letters, manuscripts, reports, tables, interoffice communications, etc. The class has exceeded expectations.

All students need a touch system skill for keyboarding. Without it they become frustrated—especially when equipment can respond faster than they can key. Many students will enter jobs as data-entry operators, information/word processing specialists, administrative assistants, and receptionists, and will begin using standalone computers and remote terminals. Students will interact with electronic technology, and most will use a keyboard to gain access to the power of the computer in order to increase productivity. To increase productivity in the office is the goal of many employers.

Most educators agree that advanced courses should include computers. Schools use keyboarding classes to include word processing. Keyboarding II should also develop word processing concepts and basic computer literacy concepts as the computer is used. Advanced courses should also include advanced word processing skills such as mail merge, production typing, longer reports and documents using a spelling dictionary, and search and replace features. Desktop publishing is also important.

Shorthand. Shorthand transcription lends itself to computer applications. Gregg now has a text Computerized Shorthand. Notes should be transcribed on diskettes, saved, and used for revision until the letter is mailable. Editing requirements are made easier. The word processing applications will greatly interest students of shorthand. Turn around time can be greatly increased as production rates are heavily stressed in business. Transcription on the microcomputer reinforces the word processing software applications and promotes the interest of students. Most WP applications include a dictionary for checking spelling, a

thesaurus, programs to correct grammatical errors and writing style. There are also specialized vocabulary spell checks for the legal and medical areas.

Alphabetic shorthand, speedwriting is gaining in popularity as students realize its value in notetaking.

CHANGING BUSINESS EDUCATION TO KEEP PACE WITH COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY

Using the computer in business education courses is absolutely necessary. A concerted effort must continue to be made by business education teachers and school administrators to incorporate computer instruction and applications as rapidly as possible. Students who do not have the opportunity to learn through the use of computers will definitely be penalized.

Student learning is generally easier and faster when computers are used in business courses. Instant feedback is provided and many of the programs provide constant reinforcement—more than any teacher can provide. Students enjoy using computers. When computers are instructional tools, the students sense that their education is up to date.

Using computers also enhances the role of the business teacher. It frees the teacher of the routine drudgery. Teachers must necessarily sharpen their organizational skills because the organization for instruction becomes more complex. There is more to teach in the same amount of time. When computers are utilized, teachers must spend more time analyzing learning difficulties and prescribing learning activities to remedy the problems. Computers assist teachers in evaluating students performance, managing students records, and preparing instructional materials.

Computer managed instruction (CMI) is helpful in a variety of tasks, such as, generating tests with several arrangements of the same tests and answer keys to match, creat crossword puzzles and class exercises. Even copiers make transparencies of computer output.

As computer technology progresses, so must business education. Some schools use: computers in every classroom, a few computers in each classroom, and shared labs for all courses. The goal is a computer on every desk in the classroom, including a terminal on the teachers desk for student class records, which act as remote terminals to a larger system for the school district that is a remote terminal to the state department of education.

Libraries contain micro labs. Students in some schools will likely check out portable micros from the library, software can sometimes be checked out. Students often have their own computer and software.

Computer instruction should be chosen to further the educational objective of the course being taught. Integrating computer instruction and applications into the business education program has not and will not be cheap or easy. Businesses expect students to come to the job with computer skills.

Instructional Resources:

RIGHT WRITER — LIST PRICE $95.00 + QUANTITY DISCOUNTS AND SITE LICENSES
RIGHT SOFT, INCORPORATED
#813-952-9211

GRAMMATIK II — LIST PRICE $89 + QUANTITY DISKETTES AND SITE LICENSES REFERENCE SOFTWARE, INC.
#415-541-0222

WRITER'S WORKBENCH
#1-800-828-UNIX

26[illegible].50 (2) MICROPACE
145.00 (6) MICROCOMPUTER KEYBOARDING/FORMATTING APPLICATIONS
79.50 (2) ALPHABETIC KEYBOARDING
42.50 (1) MICROCOMPUTER COMPUTER KEYPAD OPERATIONS
#513-527-6900
#1-800-431-1288

TEACHER PREPARATION: WHAT'S MISSING?

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One of the most important facets of teaching is student discipline. An old educational adage states that, "Before you can teach school, you must first hold school." This old adage is no less (nor more!) true today than when the unknown author first uttered it. Wynne's article, (cited in Ryan & Cooper, 1988) noted that, in 16 of the last 17 Gallup polls, prior to 1986, discipline was the major problem facing the public schools. In 1986, drug abuse became the principal concern, and discipline fell to second. Even with the attention of the nation's media focused on drugs, parents usually designated discipline as their primary concern about public schools (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990; Johnson, Collins, Dupuis, & Johansen, 1991). This is not likely to change as formal education has always had discipline as one of its major problems (Noll, 1989; Katsiyannis & Prillaman, 1989).

While discipline problems are not much different today than they have ever been, Hall (1988) stated that teachers consider today's students more difficult to control. Hall noted that the number and severity of current disciplinary problems radically curtail quality teaching and learning time in classrooms, and the effects of these incidents are felt throughout society.

Today, the terms "burnout" and "stress" are common place reasons experienced educators give for leaving the profession (Spring, 1989). The disruptive effects of discipline problems on experienced teachers are even more unsettling to student teachers (Reed, 1989; Spring). De Zarfa (cited in Reed) noted that how student teachers are trained and how well these beginning teachers handle discipline problems in the classroom will be a major factor in their career development and longevity.

Educators in America's schools have struggled over the years with the problem of classroom control, apparently without much success. Even though the use of the old disciplinary mainstay, corporal punishment, was upheld by the Supreme Court in Ingraham v. Wright (1977), (430 U.S. 651, 97 S.Ct., 401(1977); Ryan & Cooper, 1988), current trends in student disciplinary techniques are moving away from corporal punishment. Most educators are astute enough to realize that using corporal punishment does not accelerate intellectual development. Ball (1989) noted that studies completed by the National Education Association and the Committee to End Violence Against the Next Generation found that incidents of violence and vandalism increased in schools that used corporal

punishment as a disciplinary method. However, in spite of the evidence, some educators have continued applying corporal punishment under the guise of discipline (Ball).

Modern classroom management methods have drawn on the research findings of psychological theorists, such as Skinner (behaviorism) and Hull (drive reduction), in the development of instructional and disciplinary techniques and programs. Noll (1989) noted that these theoretical models consist of "non-interventionist" types, such as Harris' "I'm O.K. You're O.K." and Gordon's "teacher effectiveness training," as well as "interventionist" methods, such as Axelrod's "behavior modification" and Canter's "assertive discipline" (Johnson et al., 1991). Separating these competing theories are the "interactionist" theories exemplified by Glasser's "schools without failure," Dreikurs' "discipline without tears," and including reasoning concepts, such as Raths' and Simon's "values clarification."

These various theories, alone or in combination, have been presented as alternatives methods of student discipline. Also, procedural applications, such as time-out, on-campus suspension, and parental involvement, have been suggested as alternative and/or conjunctive practices to control the behavior of students (Tingstrom, 1989; Johnson et al., 1991). While many of these disciplinary models and theories may work well in clinical situations and sound great in pedagogy, their effectiveness for answering the discipline problems confronting every-day teachers in every-day schools has yet to be shown (Creton, Wubbels, & Hooymayers, 1989). In view of the lasting nature of disciplinary problems in schools (Kritsonis & Adams, 1987) as evidenced by the literature, it would appear that something is obviously amiss between professional training and classroom application.

Since all states have standards for teacher certification (Alexander & Alexander, 1985), and since education, through definition, deals with behavioral development, some exposure to studies in the area of controlling human behavior must be assumed in the curricula leading to teacher certification. However, the evidence shows that discipline is one of the major problems faced by today's classroom teachers (Gallup & Elam, 1987, 1988, 1989; Elam, 1990; Newman, 1990; Reed, 1989). Newman stated that:

Field experiences and student teaching offer a taste of the real world, but after graduation new teachers must literally teach themselves to teach in order to survive. Education professors rarely talk about discipline, but out in the schools it becomes the first and often the only priority. (p. 58)

Reed concurred, noting, "Student teachers have had previous discussions about discipline in their courses. However, it is not until they are actually in class-

rooms for extended periods of time that the issue of discipline becomes real" (p. 60).

In Louisiana, this phenomenon may be accounted for in part by analyzing the universities' course requirements for teacher certification as mandated by the Louisiana State Department of Education. An examination of course requirements of 11 Louisiana college and university teacher preparation programs revealed that only one university required a course that contained the word "discipline" in the course title. One semester hour of credit was required in a seminar dealing with discipline.

Problem

Student discipline, viewed by many teachers as a major problem in schools, may not be adequately addressed by teacher preparation programs in the state, and as a result, teachers may begin their careers ill-equipped to resolve discipline problems.

Research questions

The study was driven by the following research questions:

1. How do teachers perceive the teacher preparation programs with regard to discipline instruction;
2. How are teachers acquiring the disciplinary methods they are using;
3. What methods are teachers using now to cope with disciplinary problems;
4. How do teachers believe teacher preparation programs could be im proved?

Procedure

To address the research questions, a survey of Louisiana teachers was conducted. A survey questionnaire was developed to collect data pertinent to the research questions.

From the 1989-90 Louisiana School Directory a systematic random sample of schools was selected by choosing every tenth school from the list of public schools until a total of 166 schools was selected. The principal of each school was contacted by mail and asked to participate. Three questionnaires were included in the request.

The cover letter asked the principal to select three teachers whom she or he considered to be among the best disciplinarians in the school. The principal was requested to ask these teachers to complete the questionnaire and return it to the researchers. Each request included stamped and addressed return envelops for this

purpose.

Of the 166 principals contacted, 111 ~~districts~~ schools responded with completed questionnaires representing 333 teachers. No attempt was made to contact non-respondents.

The questionnaire consisted of 32 statements with responses arranged on a five-point Likert scale. The scale ranged across Strongly Agree—Agree—Sometimes Agree—Disagree—Strongly Disagree. The responses from the completed questionnaires were analyzed by determining a response frequency. For analysis, Strongly Agree and Agree were collapsed into an Agree response while Disagree and Strongly Disagree were collapsed into a Disagree response.

Data

How do teachers perceive the teacher preparation programs with regard to discipline instruction?

Teachers indicated that they were not adequately prepared to handle discipline when they began teaching. Only about one-fourth of teachers indicated that they were prepared while over one-half responded that they were definitely not prepared. Approximately one-fifth of the responding teachers were ambivalent about the efficacy of the discipline preparation. These data are presented in **Table 1**.

Table 1

Teacher perception of teacher education programs

Statement	Agree	Sometimes Agree	Disagree
Adequately prepared to handle discipline	26.4%	18.4%	55.2%
Relied heavily on techniques learned in college	11.2%	21.6%	67.2%
Relied more on "common sense"	87.2%	8.0%	4.8%
Preparation not sufficient to handle discipline	63.2%	15.2%	21.6%
Theoretical discipline training was removed from "everyday" classroom events	72.8%	20.0%	7.2%

The disciplinary training provided by current teacher preparation programs was considered to be insufficient by almost two-thirds of the teachers responding. Only 21.6% believed that their preparation programs were inclusive enough to prepare them to handle classroom discipline. This perceived lack of training sufficiency may be related to the dearth of required/available courses on discipline in the certification process.

Teachers indicated that the discipline techniques presented in the preparation courses were not applicable to "every day" events in the classroom. Only 7.2% of the respondents thought that the theoretical techniques and models considered in the preparation programs were workable in the classroom. Almost three-fourths of the responding teachers indicated the perception that those techniques and "ivory tower" concepts were not workable in the classroom.

Teachers overwhelmingly relied more on "common sense" than on techniques that they had learned in college classes. This suggests that teachers perceive theoretical models of discipline as being in disagreement with their conceptions of effective discipline models.

How are teachers acquiring disciplinary techniques?

If teachers did not agree that they were using discipline techniques learned in college classes, then the source of these disciplinary techniques would be relevant. In fact, the data were supportive of the notion that teachers acquired discipline techniques from a variety of sources as depicted in **Table 2**.

Table 2

Sources for acquiring disciplinary methods

Statement	Agree	Sometimes Agree	Disagree
Techniques learned in college	15.2%	18.4%	66.4%
Methods learned from colleagues	76.8%	16.0%	7.2%
Experience	93.6%	5.6%	0.8%
Workshops/inservice	57.6%	25.6%	16.8%

Teachers indicated strongly that the techniques learned in college classrooms were not the techniques which they were using in practice. Two-thirds of the teachers responding indicated that they did not use these methods. Only 15.2% believed that the methods used in classrooms were learned in college while an additional 18.4% were somewhat unsure (Sometimes Agree) where they learned the techniques they used.

Colleagues provided guidance in disciplinary matters for many teachers (76.8%). The impact of colleagues or mentors was strongly supported as only 7.2% of responding teachers Disagreed that they relied heavily on techniques learned from other teachers. Mentoring or collegiality did not provide as strong an impact on the acquisition of disciplinary skills as did the actual experiences of the teachers. Experience, said 93.6% of the teachers, is still the best teacher. Less than 7% Disagree or even Sometimes Disagree that experience had provided them with the majority of the disciplinary methods they used.

Inservice and/or workshops proved beneficial to slightly more than one-half (57.6%) of the teachers. About another fourth (25.6%) indicated that some workshops and/or inservices were useful in developing a repertoire of disciplinary tools. Only 16.8% of the respondents found inservice and/or workshops to be insignificant in preparing a classroom disciplinary regimen.

How are teachers coping with discipline now?

Obviously teachers are using some methods to cope with discipline problems in the schools today. Further, given the indicated rates of success, these methods appear to be less than adequate for teacher comfort. Some of the more common methods of discipline were queried. The results are shown in **Table 3**.

Table 3
Ways teachers cope with discipline

Statement	Agree	Sometimes Agree	Disagree
Paddle	51.2%	22.4%	26.4%
Use sarcasm	24.0%	26.4%	49.6%
Remove student from classroom	91.2%	6.4%	2.4%
Involve parents in discipline	95.2%	4.0%	0.8%
Keep students busy	74.4%	20.8%	4.8%
Use techniques my teachers used	37.8%	46.4%	16.8%
Use method learned in college	13.6%	30.4%	56.0%
Discipline as I would my own children	65.6%	24.8%	9.6%
Discipline as other teachers in my school do	52.8%	28.8%	18.4%

The use of corporal punishment with a paddle was acceptable to over one-half (51.2%) of the teachers surveyed while another (22.4%) would Sometimes Agree that paddling was an appropriate disciplinary measure. Just over one-fourth of the respondents indicated that paddling was not appropriate.

Slightly more than one-half (24.8% Agree and 26.4% Sometimes Agree) of the respondents indicated that sarcasm could be an effective means for maintaining discipline. The other one-half indicated that sarcasm was not an acceptable method for dealing with student discipline problems.

Teachers almost unanimously (91.2%) responded that removing disruptive students from the classroom was an acceptable and effective method of discipline. Less than 10% of teachers questioned the efficacy of removing disruptive students from the classroom. Keeping students "busy" was considered an effective preentative measure. Almost three-fourths (74.4%) of the teachers Agree that keeping students busy was an effective method and another 20.8% would Sometimes Agree that this was an effective technique.

Only 13.6% of the teachers Agree that they utilized a disciplinary method that they had learned in college. In fact, the majority (56.0%) Disagree that they used a method learned in college. Only about one-third (30.4%) Sometimes Agree that they were employing a method learned in their college studies.

Another source of discipline training, cited by teachers, included their public school teachers. While 37.8% of the teachers Agreed that they employed some techniques used by their former teachers, another 46.4% felt that they may have been influenced by these experiences and responded that they Sometimes Agree. Only 16.8% responded that their former public school teachers were not an influence in their choice of disciplinary methods.

Teachers indicated some tendencies to discipline students in the same manner they disciplined their own children. About two-thirds (65.6%) used similar techniques for students. Another one-fourth sometimes found these methods useful. Less than 10% Disagree with using the same methods for students as they used with their own children.

The responding teachers overwhelmingly Agree with the concept of involving parents in the disciplinary process. The need to involve parents was selected by 95.2% of the teachers. Of the remaining respondents, 4.0% Sometimes Agree with parent involvement and only 0.8% Disagree.

How do teachers believe preparation programs could be improved?

Teachers tended to want more directive instruction in preparing for discipline management. They seem strongly inclined toward interactive and realistic training experiences during their teacher preparation training. The results are illustrated in **Table 4**.

Table 4

Teacher perceptions of ways to improve teacher education programs

Statement	Agree	Sometimes Agree	Disagree
Devote more time to role-playing, modeling, and direct involvement	88.8%	8.0%	3.2%
Devote an entire course to discipline	85.6%	7.2%	7.2%
Teach at least two discipline management methods	93.6%	4.0%	2.4%
Focus discipline management programs on the "real world"	99.2%	0.8%	0.0%

The respondents Agreed (88.8%) that more time should be devoted to role-playing and modeling in a learning environment with direct student involvement. A majority of the teachers (85.6%) Agree that an entire course should be devoted to discipline management methods. Further, 93.6% Agree that at least two discipline management techniques shoul be taught in teacher preparation programs. Finally, all teachers Agree that discipline mai agement programs should focus on the "real world" of education.

Conclusions

1. Teachers do not believe that college programs are adequately preparing teacher with discipline training.
2. Teachers tend to acquire discipline techniques more from colleagues and their own experiences rather than from college preparation programs.
3. Teachers use a variety of coping and preventative techniques which include paddling, keeping students busy, removing disruptive students, and parental involvement to facilitate classroom management.
4. Teachers indicated a need for extensive disciplinary training in preparation programs that include:
   a. more time devoted to role-playing, modeling, and direct involvement with students in the learning environment;
   b. an entire course devoted to discipline;
   c. the teaching of at least two discipline techniques;
   d. a focus on the "real world" of education.

Implications

The responses of the teachers surveyed indicates a general dissatisfaction with the content and methodology of disciplinary management training in current teacher preparation programs. At the present time, it appears that beginning teachers are entering the classrooms and then beginning a period of on-the-job training in disciplinary management If teacher preparation programs are going to meet their training obligations, changes mus be made in the disciplinary management training component, and these changes must include practical experience as well as knowledge base training.

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INTERCULTURAL LITERACY IN BUSINESS EDUCATION-- DO WE HAVE A CHOICE?

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A new challenge has surfaced for business educators demands immediate action. This compelling challenge involves providing opportunities in business education classes for students to acquire a degree of intercultural literacy—an awareness of cultures in terms of their customs, values, social mores, attitudes, issues, politics, and economics. At the secondary level, this issue has been largely ignored due to the overflow in the business education curriculum. This, however, does not relieve the need to address the issue of international literacy.

Why Is This Need So Urgent?

Several factors demonstrate the urgency for intercultural literacy to be included as part of our curriculum from K through life. In the international setting, a common thread for success lies in recognizing cultural differences that results in developing better business and personal relationships. The economic factors that dictate this need are influenced by international trade, foreign investment, employment trends, and technological advancement.

International Trade. The volume of international trade expressed in dollars has expanded from $200 billion to over $2 trillion in the last twenty years. The extent of the United States' interdependence on world commerce is evident by the fact that approximately one-third of the profits of the United States' firms are generated by international business (Sterkel, 1988). In fact, some of the leading companies in America earned more than half their profits from their international operations (Harcourt, Krizan & Merrier, 1987). In terms of the global market, the United States' current share is between 15 and 20 percent, and imports account for over 20 percent of the products sold in the U.S. (Harcourt, et al., 1987).

Foreign competition abroad and at home has forced Americans to become more culturally sensitive. Economists have pointed out that the United States no longer maintains dominance in some areas such as service exports (e.g. banking). In other areas where the U. S. has traditionally been dominant, such as agricultural trade, the U. S. position is slipping. Its share of the world gross national product is also declining. Estimates put 80 percent of U.S. industry in direct competition with foreign firms. The effect of this competition is illustrated in the fact that the annual sales of the 50 largest U.S. companies are not increasing as fast as the 50 largest foreign companies. (Harris et

al., 1987, p. 25). In light of the foregoing, several American firms are now training their employees to be global employees because language or intercultural mistakes can jeopardize millions of dollars in negotiations and purchases, sales and contracts, and customer relations. Essentially these mistakes can weaken both productivity and profitability (Harris et al., 1987).

The urgency for intercultural literacy is that the United States is no longer economically self-sufficient nor the unquestioned leader in the world market. It currently shares that leadership with Europe and Asia.

Foreign Investment in U.S. Property and Industries. America's "turf" is no longer limited to the North American continent; it has been invaded by investors from other lands. The growth of foreign investment in the United States has roughly paralleled that of the United States' investments abroad. The extent of foreign investment in American businesses is cause for alarm for some business people. For example Japan's investment in this country has reached sufficient proportions to be referred to as "the Japanization of America" (Russell, 1989, p. 68). Case in point: a $7.5 billion proposed buyout of Hollywood's MCA, Inc., by a huge consumer-electronics Japanese firm recently grabbed headlines across the country (U. S. News, 1990). However, the British were the most prolific acquirers of U. S. businesses between 1978 and 1987. They brought almost seven times more U.S. companies than the Japanese (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990).

Because of the extent of investments across national boundaries, business education students have a very good chance of being employed with a firm involved in international business. Knowledge of other nations is therefore essential to students' initial employment and career progress.

Employment Trends. It is predicted that by the year 2000, nearly one out of three jobs in the United States will owe its existence at least partly to international trade (Wilkinson, Wilkinson, & Vik, 1986). For every billion dollars' worth of exports in the international market, approximately 25,000 new jobs are created. From 1986 to 1990, nearly 5 million new manufacturing jobs were developed (Vik, Wilkinson, & Wilkinson, 1990). One out of 6 U.S. manufacturing jobs is dependent on international trade, while 4 out of 5 new manufacturing jobs are a result of international trade (Harris & Moran, 1987); and more than 100,000 Americans and their families work abroad (Sterkel, 1988). It is evident from these facts that international trade is indeed influencing the trends in employment.

Technological Advances. Increases in population bring increases in the world market which will dictate more international communication. Technological advancements have also made the communities of the world closer by increasing the speed and volume of international communication. In Megatrends 2000, telecommunication and computers are cited as the driving forces behind the movement toward a single worldwide information network, giving us the "capability to communicate anything to anyone,

anywhere, by any form—voice, data, text, or image—at the speed of light" (Naisbitt & et al., 1990, p. 6).

As telecommunication and computers continue to make our world more compact and interdependent, business will become more international business, both domestic and abroad. As the world moves toward a single global economy/community, effective communication skills and cultural sensitivity will be crucial to people as they interact with each other. More than ever before these skills will be required to maintain the delicate balance needed for world peace or harmony.

What Are Examples Of Barriers To International Communication and Sensitivity?

Business or personal relationships with people from other countries demand the awareness that they are different from us. These differences increase the possibility of misunderstandings that are likely to be detrimental to a business and/or personal affiliation. Delicate areas requiring knowledge and preparation for productive relationships with individuals from other cultures include basic value differences, language, and nonverbal communication.

Basic Value Differences. Stereotypical thinking associates all Americans with being wealthy, preferring youth to age or experience, reaching important decisions too quickly, and being friendly only on the surface. While these characterizations are incorrect for all American, we advocate some values that are distinctly different from those of other countries.

Americans believe that every individual is important, that each person can become what he/she wants to become, that we can change our environment to improve conditions, that time should be managed effectively, and that competition is desirable. These are only a few of the characteristics making up the American culture.

Eastern cultures, however, have different basic values. These cultures hold that the group (family, clan or tribe, and nation) is of far greater importance than the individual, that we should adjust to the environment rather than change it, that family and school relationships are as important as ability when seeking employment, that signed agreements can be changed, and that competition is looked upon with disfavor because it destroys harmony (Sigband and Bell, 1986).

When different cultures meet, misunderstandings that derive from he different values can and do occur. An example of the Asian working for minimum wages who listed his hourly wage as $24.50 on a loan application illustrates this situation. The Asian listed the combined hourly wages for himself and all the members of this family; the loan officer believed that the wage listed was a complete misrepresentation of the facts. Actually, the situation arose because of emphasis on the group in one culture and on the individual in the other culture (Gomez, 1988).

Language. Differences in language threaten and handicap effective communication. Few Americans speak or read a language other than English, whereas many Oriental, European, and South American business people have made a point of learning English (Andrews and Andrews, 1988).

Effective communication across cultures often requires a translator; yet, some words in one language have no exact translation in another. American advertisers have encountered this difficulty in using slogans. Two illustrations of this problem are: (1) "Fiera," a Ford truck sold in developing countries, translates into Spanish as "ugly old woman." (2) "Body by Fisher," General Motors' slogan for car bodies, literally translated becomes "Corpse by Fisher" (Pearce, Figgins, Golen, 1988).

Learning basic words and sentences in other languages could provide more harmonious business relationships. High priority terms to be learned might include please, thank you, good morning, good afternoon, yes, and no.

In written communication, writers are advised to use common terms and short sentences. Technical terms and slang should be avoided. Slang expressions which should not be used includes "the bottom line;" "do you read me?" "safe as Fort Knox;" "keep a low profile;" "a ballpark figure;" and "Y'all" (Harcourt, et al., 1987, p. 423).

Knowing the language of another culture or a sincere effort to learn commonly used words and expressions gives an advantage to the business person trading with those from other lands.

Nonverbal Communication. Many disagreements and even insults result from differences in interpretation of body language among cultures. Varied interpretations appear in many areas including gestures, greetings, eye contact, voice usage, time, and dress.

In intercultural relationships actions or gestures often speak louder than words, and, as Axtell points out, "often say the wrong things" (1990, p. 41). Examples include: (1) In this country a nod of the head means "yes;" shaking the head side to side means "no." In Bulgaria and Greece, the exact opposite meaning is attached to these gestures. (2) The circle made with the thumb and forefinger means "okay" in the United States, but in Brazil this gesture is considered vulgar and obscene. Not knowing the meaning of this gesture in Brazil, a young computer salesman for a Northeastern state used the gesture as a signal that everything was okay and endangered his sale. Only profuse apologies saved this business transaction. (3) Beckoning someone with your forefinger insults the Middle and Far Easterner. In their cultures, beckoning is done by holding the palm down and waving the fingers or the whole hand. (4) The "thumbs up" gesture almost everywhere simply means "okay," but in Australia, it is considered a rude gesture (Axtell, 1990).

The manner of greeting others is a crucial element in building good intercultural relationships. The informal Americans refer to their bosses by their first names;

in Germany, however, first names are NEVER used without invitation (Axtell, 1990).

The most common greeting worldwide is the handshake; in the U. S., we like a firm, pumping handshake. In France such a handshake is considered impolite. Other types of greetings include the namaste in India (bending with palms together below the chin) and the wai in Thailand (hands in prayer position at the chest and bowing slightly) (Harcourt, et al., 1987).

Spanish people perceive direct eye contact as rude, and think women who return a man's gaze are not respectable. Far Eastern cultures also perceive eye contact as unnecessary (Sigband, et al., 1986). The Japanese feel that the less eye contact, the better. Axtell (1990, p. 42) states that "What a Westerner considers an honest look in the eye, the Oriental takes as a lack of respect and a personal affront."

Americans, who live in a no-contact society, guard very carefully their personal space. We like to have a distance of about 12-14 inches between us and the person with whom we are conversing. Nearness while conversing is preferred by the Middle Easterner, the Arab, and the Latin American. Peoples from these cultures will consider Americans snobbish if they back away to preserve the 12-14 inches distance (Axtell, 1990; Gomez, 1988).

The amount of office space allotted to executives in this country makes a statement about their prestige. In some other cultures, the higher the executive in the organization, the smaller the office becomes (Himstreet and Baty, 1987). The rationale for this is that you do not need much space to think.

Time, a priceless possession in the U. S., is regarded with more flexibility in other cultures. In Mexico, for example, a business person may be kept waiting for half an hour or more. In India, the more time that passes before a reply to a letter is written, the more important is the topic for discussion; in this country "right away" may mean two or three months (Pearce, et al.,1988). In Africa, people may arrive for appointments several hours late (Himstreet, et al., 1987). These differences in the perception of time can be a hazard in business and personal relationships when persons are unaware of the diversities.

Americans identify themselves by the way they dress—often conspicuously or unsuitably for the climate. Conservative colors provide the safest business dress in a culture different from the U. S. Business dress in India is less formal than in Europe. Americans can adjust to different ways of dress when they understand the reasons for a given style of clothing. For example, the Arab and Moslem burnoose keeps sand out of one's hair and the Indian sari permits freedom of movement (Sigband, et al., 1986). Women executives should be especially careful to dress and to act conservatively since women's rights are not as well received in many parts of the world as they are in the United States.

The differences between the cultures in the U. S. and in other countries can be destructive to business relationships. An awareness of the differences will allow the businessman to minimize the effects on business transactions and encourage more agreeable and profitable relationships.

Do We Have A Choice?

No! Because many differences in culture continues to separate nations, the need for efficiency in international literacy is more evident than ever before. In the last couple of decades, the world economy has become more integrated and interdependent; consequently, Americans no longer have the luxury of time or distance to justify a lag in international competency. The business education teacher can and should address this new challenge by providing the opportunities for students to develop the necessary skills to succeed in the international market.

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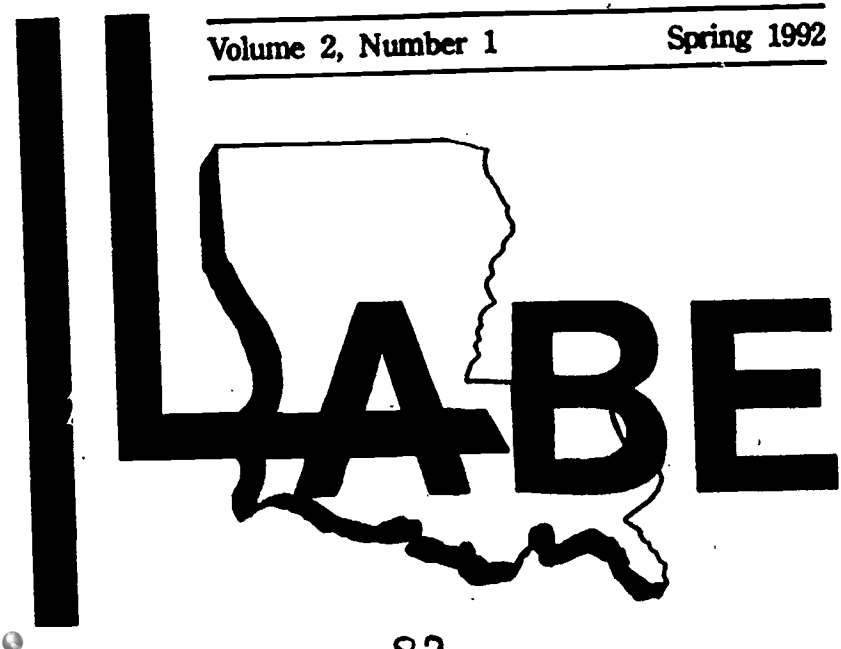

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EDITOR'S NOTES . . .

In January 1992, I assumed the challenge of editorship of the Louisiana Business Education Journal from Dr. Bettye Robinson, who was unable to complete her term. Articles from the current NBEA President Dr. Michael Curran and NBEA Past-President Ms. June S. Atkinson were invited under my editorship. The other manuscripts presented in this issue were accepted through blind review under Dr. Robinson's editorship.

This second issue of your journal contains articles on a variety of topics, beginning with Dr. Curran's discussion of the importance of membership in your professional organization. June Atkinson provides hopes for improving student achievement through tech prep and the integration of academic and vocational education. The latest trends in multimedia and its effects on business education is presented by Beverly Oswalt. Donna Holmquist identifies issues and trends affecting the secretarial profession. A pilot study conducted by James L. Morrison examines the dynamics of collaborative problem-solving using computer conferencing. Larry R. Honl and Larry R. Pagel identify the competencies needed for effective business communications. Employee selection criteria used for college graduates by leading businesses and industries are detailed in Walter Creighton and Bob Gillan's study. Also, abstracts are presented of recently completed dissertations and theses of Louisiana business educators.

Sincere thanks is extended to all authors for their contributions to this issue. Appreciation also is extended to the editorial review board and associate editors. Acknowledgement must be given to Sandra Cash of Louisiana State University for her patience in keying the journal and to Mark Holden for his graphics expertise. Sincere appreciation goes to our advertisers for their support. Finally, I want to provide a special thanks to Robert "Barry" Blair who served as my right hand in performing all the various tasks involved in publishing your journal.

Donna H. Redmann, Editor

JOURNAL PROFILE

Journal Description

The Louisiana Business Education Journal is published annually by the Louisiana Association of Business Educators. This refereed journal includes articles on various aspects of business education dealing with research, theory, trends and issues, curriculum, teaching methodology, technology, and personal/professional development. Each issue contains approximately six to ten articles, as well as, abstracts of doctoral dissertations and master's theses completed by Louisiana business educators. The first issue of the journal was circulated in Spring 1991.

Circulation/Readership

The journal is distributed to all LABE members as part of membership dues and sent free of charge to the NABTE (National Association of Business Teacher Education) institutions throughout the country. The LABE membership is comprised of business teachers, administrators, supervisors, teacher educators, college and university students planning to become business teachers, and those interested in business education. Membership is concentrated at the secondary level.

JOURNAL SUBSCRIPTION

Subscription is part of LABE membership dues. Subscription rates are $10 for both non-LABE members and for institutions/libraries. For a subscription, please make your check payable to LABE and mail it to the editor at the following address:

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CALL FOR PAPERS

The Louisiana Association of Business Educators invites business educators to contribute articles for publication in the Louisiana Business Education Journal, a refereed publication. Manuscripts should deal with topics of interest to educators at both the secondary and post-secondary levels. Submission of manuscripts dealing with practical topics are encouraged, as are research based or theoretical papers. Abstracts of doctoral dissertations and master theses completed by Louisiana business educators are welcomed. Occasionally, invited authors' papers will be published.

Manuscripts will be selected through a blind review process. Manuscripts should not have been published or be under current consideration for publication by another journal. Five copies of the manuscript, including a title page and an abstract, should be submitted to the editor along with a diskette copy using WordPerfect 5.1. The manuscripts should range from 6 to 10 double-spaced typed pages of 12 pitch type-size, including tables and references. Manuscripts must be prepared using the style format in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Third Edition, 1983 (ISBN 0-912704-57-8). The title page is to include the title of the manuscript and the running header. The following information on each author needs to be included on the title page: full name, position title, place of employment, city, state, zip code, and telephone numbers.

Submission deadline is December 1, 1992. Acceptance notification will be March 1, 1993. Publication date will be June 1993.

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Louisiana Business Education Journal
Vol. 2, No. 1, Spring, 1992

WHY PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS?

Michael G. Curran, Jr.[1]

Why professional organizations? Members of vocational education advisory committees, who are professional business persons, business owners, craft persons, and workers stress the need for belonging to and participating in their respective professional organizations.

Insurance agents would not think of operating independently without active membership in their national professional organization. Accountants relate that they cannot function or hope to succeed without active membership and participation in their national organization. Craft persons and workers all relate the importance of active participation in their respective professional organizations.

Professionals in business use their organizations as a means to get the latest information and trends concerning their given profession, for obtaining tips and techniques for personal and professional improvement, and as a monitor and watchdog of key legislation affecting the profession. Business persons whose success is controlled by client supply and demand must stay on the cutting edge of their profession. By their own admission, if they do not keep current they will lose clients.

The same is true for business educators. Business educators must have the latest information about curricula developments which in turn helps them meet the needs of business and industry. Personal and professional improvement is a necessity for business educators.

---

[1]Dr. Michael G. Curran, Jr., is the President of NBEA and an Associate Professor in undergraduate studies at Rider College, Lawrenceville, New Jersey.

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However, the administrative structure of secondary schools, including the tenure provision, does not promote educational professionalism; some business educators choose not to belong to professional organizations because they don't see the need for active participation.

I get letters from nonmembers stating that dues are too high, membership services are too few, and that some teachers just don't see the importance of belonging to the National Business Education Association. I love to respond to those letters. In fact, business educators can no longer afford NOT to belong and actively participate. For less than the cost of a cup of coffee a day, business educators have access to the latest legislative information affecting business education, curricula developments, and tips and techniques in our Forum and Keying In publications. Indeed, by participating in our credit card, life insurance, or tax-sheltered annuity programs or by purchasing publications at the member rates, one can save far more than the cost of our membership.

Many other professions demand and receive dues far in excess of our reasonable fee. For example, dues for the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) are over three times greater. In comparison, NBEA is one of the best professional bargains one can find. In addition to the low cost of membership, your professional organization provides the vehicle for educators to network, exchange ideas, share problems and solutions, and to make friends. Also, resource publications, which are provided to members for a nominal fee, assist educators in keeping on the cutting edge.

Professionalism is a term that educators hear in the first education course which begins to develop them for teaching. Various disciplines treat professionalism differently. Unfortunately, to some teachers professionalism may mean joining the local, state, or national education association that merely provides their union representation. Ironically, teachers are often forced to join unions or at least pay representative costs for contract negotiation and legal protection. It is sad that some of us don't equate the same importance to our

professional organization that represents our legislative, curricular, and association interests.

I would submit professionalism cuts much deeper than that. An integral part of the definition for professionalism is leadership. In the April 1992 issue of the Business Education Forum, Dr. Janet M. Treichel, NBEA Executive Director, characterizes educational leadership in the following manner.

"Leaders are innovative.
Leaders have a sense of urgency.
Leaders are able to communicate.
Leaders relate well to all kinds of people.
Leaders are competitive.
Leaders demonstrate personal integrity.
Leaders are trustworthy.
Leaders delegate to others.
Leaders listen to the mavericks, and
Leaders don't mind being different."

Professionalism is lubricated by desire and willingness to work to be the best one can be. Professionals in leadership roles are not afraid to pursue betterment for the organization even at the risk of personal criticism by those holding minority opinions.

The teaching profession as well as the medical professional depends upon self-development for the profession to remain viable. In fact, John Adair stresses in his book, Developing Leaders (1988), that self-development enhances professionalism. He also maintains that self-development is nine-tenths motivation.

The connection between leadership and professionalism was quantified in a research study completed by Donna Holmquist (1990) at Nebraska State University-Lincoln where 63 leaders in business education were interviewed, seeking information in more than a dozen categories. The study found that "those individuals who have become involved professionally find it to be a very satisfying experience, even

though it takes extra time and effort to do the job properly. It helps an individual develop communication skills, learn more about the profession in which he/she is working, keep up-to-date in the field, and develop self-confidence and leadership skills which are necessary qualities of a successful teacher." (p. 2)

Generally, the perception of leadership and professionalism go hand in glove. An individual in a leadership role is generally considered a professional and an individual who people perceive as a professional is usually considered a leader. Professionalism demands a mixture of leadership skills, desire, humor, and a touch of humility.

"Leadership is often discussed or analyzed in terms of leadership qualities. Some of these qualities, such as intelligence, energy, initiative and enthusiasm are more universal than others. . . . A leader, then, is the kind of person with the appropriate knowledge and skill to lead a group to achieve its ends willingly." (Adair, 1988)

But what constitutes professionalism? An individual who epitomizes the strengths of his/her chosen profession and belongs and actively participates in professional associations is deemed a professional. In business education, that may take the form of belonging to and participating in a city, county/parish, or state business education association; like the Louisiana Association of Business Educators.. Participation can extend beyond the state level; involvement may be at the regional, national, or even at the international level. At each of these levels, there is the opportunity to serve on or chair committees critical to the operation of the association. Generally, committee responsibility includes activities related to the association operation, professional development, public relations, membership, research, and a host of other activities. Activity at any one of these levels is important for development of professionalism in business education.

There are five regions (Southern, Eastern, Western, North-Central and Mountain Plains) that comprise the National Business

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Education Association. Louisiana is a member of the southern region, referred to as the Southern Business Education Association (SBEA).

Collectively, if all the special interest groups within Business Education speak with one **BIG VOICE**, we will be far more successful than if we are splintered and isolated. In the best of times there are dozens of reasons why it is important to be active in one's professional organization. In lean times, times of budget cuts, reductions in staff, larger classes, and technological advancements, national membership is all the more crucial.

Why Professional Organizations? Perhaps, to endure, improve, and prevail. I welcome the opportunity for each of you to become involved.

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MAKING THE WALLS COME TUMBLING DOWN

June St. Clair Atkinson[1]

Does a week pass when education does not get criticized? Over the past two years, we have heard:

- Students know how to add, multiply, subtract, and divide, but they don't know when.
- Students can read, but they do not know how to comprehend, evaluate, and synthesize.
- Education is out of touch with what business and industry says it wants.
- The high school curriculum is geared toward students who say they want to go to a four-year college and major in medicine and law.
- Students who are not white, Anglo-Saxon Americans have a hard time fitting into school.
- . . . and the list continues.

Certainly, the state of education does not call for a celebration. Nevertheless, there is hope. Two initiatives included in the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act provide hope for improving student achievement--tech prep and integrating academic and vocational education.

Both of these efforts are directed at improving student achievement for effective participation in the workplace and for life-long learning. Each initiative requires structural changes in schooling and extensive collaboration among educators, businesses, and

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administrators. Each requires a change in attitude and activity. Integrating academic and vocational education is an integral part of the tech prep movement.

What is tech prep? Many definitions exist, and others are now evolving. You find some agreement among different definitions, especially since Carl D. Perkins II gave structure to this movement. One of my favorite definitions of tech prep is that it is courses of study that combines rigorous academic and vocational education courses that prepare students for future occupations in agriscience, business, health care, industrial and technical, and consumer services. Tech prep programs help students make a "seamless" transition from one level of schooling to another.

Students do not have to repeat that which they already know. Students take academic courses that give them options beyond high school rather than taking courses that lead them to dead ends. They also take vocational and technical courses that are relevant and up to date.

As with tech prep, you find many definitions and strategies for integrating academic and vocational education. Key words in most definitions are: connections, reinforcement, coordination, application, and blurring. Integration is a two-way street. Academic education uses workplace or occupational examples to teach subject matter, and vocational-technical programs reinforce academic skills in their content. While many models do exist, three broad categories are common--reinforcement, coordination, and the thematic approach.

Reinforcement, for example, requires a business teacher to apply reading, writing, and mathematical skills within the context of what is being taught. Likewise, academic teachers use workplace examples to teach communication, science, social studies, and other academic skills.

Coordination requires academic and vocational education teachers to work together in identifying commonalities, objectives, and

classroom strategies. A business teacher and an English teacher, for example, may be teamed to teach the same students. It could be a group of teachers coordinating all the course requirements that a student would take within a school year.

The thematic approach requires reinforcement and coordination. With this model, a theme is chosen such as communication in the workplace or the global economy. All teachers prepare classroom activities around these themes. Frequently, teachers do work in teams, and much collaboration is necessary.

Both tech prep and integrating academic and vocational education are based upon four foundations: Career guidance, curriculum alignment, collaboration, and extensive staff development.

Tech prep requires that students be guided into taking certain courses at the 9th through 14th levels of instruction. The courses chosen should give students great flexibility in changing their minds. It is ironic that those students who say that they want to go to a four-year college are given a course of study to follow during high school. Yet, when students say they are interested in pursuing careers that require less than a four-year college degree they are given catalogs of all courses offered within the school. They receive little guidance and no help in putting together a course of study that would prepare them for the workplace.

At the heart of tech prep is a course of study that has been developed with input from academic and vocational teachers and business/industry personnel for major occupational clusters. This course of study also serves as a base for determining integration efforts and collaboration that is needed to take place among the faculty.

Another major component of these two movements is curriculum alignment. Curriculum alignment requires both vertical and horizontal adjustment of content within courses. It requires a school system to identify program outcomes. These outcomes serve as a base for determining what is taught at each level of schooling and within

each content. In other words, when the curriculum is aligned, you will find very little unnecessary duplication of content matter. The same skill is not taught year after year. Instead, there is a sequence and a progression of learning.

Curriculum alignment requires collaboration, which means that administrators must develop a structure that will allow teachers to work together in preparing course objectives and activities and for helping develop program outcomes. Neither tech prep nor integration of academic and vocational education can be successful by having teachers isolated from each other. They must talk, work together, and plan collaboratively.

While we find pockets of integration taking place, we do know that teachers feel that they need extensive staff development to make these initiatives work. Such staff development may include visitations to business and industry by academic and vocational education teachers. It may also include inservice training about raising the expectation levels about what students can achieve. It requires that time be devoted to teachers developing creative ways to integrate curriculum.

For too long, secondary and postsecondary schools have taught subject matter using an industrial model. Students go from class to class without being shown how these classes are connected. Tech prep and integrating academic and vocational education require teamwork, not just individual efforts. The whole point of both of these efforts is to make the walls come tumbling down between vocational and academic education so that students can be prepared for the workplace.

Schools and teachers who have tried tech prep and integrating academic and vocational education like the results they are getting. With academic and vocational teachers joining hands, we can make the artificial walls of educating our youth come tumbling down.

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MULTIMEDIA--READY OR NOT, HERE IT COMES!

Beverly Oswalt[1]

Signaling a new era in classroom instruction, the State Textbook Committee unanimously recommended Tuesday that Texas become the first state in the nation to adopt a videodisc curriculum for students. (Stutz, 1990)

--The Dallas Morning News
August 22, 1990

From an end-of-the-decade perspective, every teacher and every student will be using multimedia applications in a variety of ways, across all grade levels and disciplines. (Bruder, 1991)

--Thomas Graves, Manager
Educational Technology & Multimedia
IBM Corporation

Multimedia is the newest buzzword in education. Its advocated use in the classroom brings a broad based concept that will not just add more use of media to the instructional day. Rather, it brings an entirely different learning and presentation platform. It threatens to create a new paradigm altering pedagogy.

Multimedia Defined

Multimedia (short for multiple media) is the use of various forms of media to present an idea or concept. Film, graphics, music, text, sound, video, animation, still images, speech, or newsreels are combined with a computer to tie the components together. These

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multimedia programs are typically available on videodiscs or CD-ROM disks.

The impact of a multimedia presentation is greater than the impact of any of the media used alone. Because of the nature of multimedia, it offers a nonlinear approach to presenting information. This approach, coined hypermedia, allows for stacks of information to be fused together in one seamless presentation. It allows for a student in a learning mode or a teacher in a presentation mode to take off on different paths of exploration. Multimedia is designed to allow the user to think creatively and explore almost limitless diversions of learning/presentation tracks.

The hypermedia approach creates a vastly different learning/presentation environment from textbooks. Textbooks are created in a linear fashion with predetermined objectives. Multimedia, through its nonlinear approach, allows learners to forge their way through the learning process based on individual progress and curiosity. Have you ever read a children's book that allows the reader to create the ending of the story? Multimedia presentations work similarly. They allow the user to forge a different path every time a subject is explored.

For example, if a student were studying Boston, MA, the student may want to learn more about Paul Revere. The student can read about Paul Revere's famous ride and hear a voice depiction of the cry, "The British are coming. . ." The student may then want to view the Old North Church, at which time the program shows a full-motion video of the interior and exterior of the church. The student may have heard of the Boston Tea Party and may want to explore the history of the event with a full-motion video taken from movie clippings of the event. As a child's mind wanders, he can explore multiple aspects of a subject.

Multimedia involves all of the senses. The process tends to get the student and teacher totally involved in the learning process by turning a traditional instructional format into an informational format

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with a great deal of responsibility being placed on the learner. Multimedia brings to life the adage so often quoted: "Tell me, I forget. Show me, I remember. Involve me, I understand."

One interviewer found the following comments from educators and industry people who have used multimedia:

- It reaches all the senses which enhances learning.
- It encourages and validates self-expression.
- It gives a sense of ownership to the user.
- It creates an active rather than passive atmosphere.
- It fosters communication.
- It makes sense.
- It is a lot of fun! (Bruder, 1991)

Equipment Requirements

The Multimedia Personal Computer Marketing Council was recently formed by Microsoft Corporation and ten IBM-compatible companies. Through this group, a base-level Multimedia Personal Computer (MPC) system standard was announced. The minimum requirements are an MS-DOS machine with at least an 80286 microprocessor (10 Mhz or faster); minimum 2 MegaBytes of RAM memory; 4-bit or 8-bit VGA graphics adapter with VGA monitor; 3.5-inch floppy drive; and a 30-megabyte or larger hard disk drive. Three additional multimedia requirements include: CD-ROM drive; a special audio subsystem that allows for sound input, audio mixing, and stereo playback; and systems software compatible with the applications programming interfaces (APIs) of Multimedia Windows, a version of Microsoft Windows 3.0 with multimedia extensions that make it easy for developers to add sound, high-quality still images and animation to their CD-ROM titles. (Salpeter, 1991)

If you already have the base-level requirements of the MS-DOS machine, you may purchase multimedia upgrade kits to turn your system into a Multimedia PC. Tandy Corporation sells a Multimedia Upgrade Kit for less than $900. (Salpeter, 1991) MediaVision sells a

Multimedia Upgrade Kit which includes a CD-ROM drive, a sound card, plus software needed to set up multimedia under WINDOWS. The kit also includes three CD-ROM disks. The MediaVision kit is available through PRODIGY (JUMP Computer Express) for $779. (Prodigy BBS, 1991)

MultiMedia Programs

Windows on Science is a videodisc-based science program that was adopted in Texas in 1991 by 65 percent of the school districts. Fifteen districts bought the program for their science curriculum requiring teachers to use the videodisc-based program as their sole instructional platform. The remaining districts bought the program in addition to a textbook. (Industry News, 1991)

ComputerVisions: The Electronic Instructional Media System for teaching Computer Literacy is an instructional package developed by South-Western Publishing Company to present computer literacy concepts through the use of multimedia. The package includes four laserdiscs, a Teacher's Resource Guide, and presentation controlling/lesson planning software for Macintosh or IBM (or compatible) PCs. *ComputerVisions* was initially developed in response to the 1992 call for proposals for computer literacy textbooks in Texas which required publishing companies to respond with electronic instructional media systems (EIMS) instead of traditional textbooks.

Bookshelf for Windows has an illustrated encyclopedia, a dictionary, a thesaurus, a world atlas, two dictionaries of quotations, and a world almanac. You will be able to hear dictionary entries pronounced, view animated illustrations from the encyclopedia, or listen to selected quotations read by their authors. Another program is Multimedia Beethoven: The Ninth Symphony, a music education program. Also, Desert Storm, an MPC version of a Warner New Media/Time magazine current events disc, is available. Other programs to look forward to are an interactive, narrated atlas of the United States, a music appreciation program for secondary students, and a series of multimedia travel guides. As MPC systems are

purchased for use in educational classrooms, developers will target the educational market specifically. (Salpeter, 1991)

IBM recently introduced a new logo and family of multimedia products called ultimedia (IBM-eze for the ultimate in multimedia solutions) (Bishop, 1991). In October, two new ultimedia products were announced. The IBM Customized Summary prepared on October 7, 1991 describes the programs as follows:

> 1) Columbus: Encounter, Discovery and Beyond provides material pertaining to Columbus, his life and voyages; the world in 1492; art, culture, science, and technology during the Renaissance period; and The New World.
>
> 2) The Illuminated Books and Manuscripts is an ultimedia program that deals with five major text works in different literary genres: Ulysses (poetry); Hamlet (drama); Declaration of Independence (political treatise); Black Elk Speaks (novel); and Letter From Birmingham Jail (personal letter).

Potential Application in Business Education

To give you a better idea of multimedia and its potential application in business education, sit down with me at my new 386/25 dtk microcomputer running Multimedia WINDOWS and let me demonstrate EXPLORE--a multimedia presentation for Junior Executive Training (JET).

The opening screen for EXPLORE creates a collage of still action photos taken of people at work in business and industry. The collage builds one picture at a time but is completed in 45 seconds. When the word EXPLORE air brushes across the screen we are given the option to start the program or read instructions about how the program operates. Since we are familiar with this program, we'll select START. The next screen shows a menu from which to select a lesson. Today, we are going to explore Marketing.

We touch Marketing on the touch-screen. In two seconds the screen lights up with a full-motion video of the grand opening of a new store, complete with celebrities and flood lights. Then a window opens in the middle of the screen and welcomes you to the EXPLORE Marketing session. One second later 3-D buttons appear one at a time on the screen with choices such as advertising, retailing, sales, direct marketing, and consumer behavior. Since it's close to Christmas and we are interested in consumer behavior, we touch that button.

Two seconds later a full-motion video begins of a film clip taken from a closed circuit camera that was set up of an interaction between a sales clerk and a disgruntled customer. After watching the film clip and hearing the interaction of the clerk and customer, we are asked to rate the clerk's handling of the customer. Since the film clip cuts off prior to the clerk taking decisive action, we are asked also to choose the action we would have taken in this situation. We talk it over and choose the option--Do not give a refund.

Next, a meeting is shown in which the manager is "chewing out" the employee for not giving the disgruntled customer the refund. At this point we realize we made the wrong choice. We are given the opportunity to touch a button to see what the clerk actually did in this situation. The clerk chose to give the customer a refund, albeit reluctantly. This session reminds us of the age-old marketing philosophy--"The customer is always right!"

EXPLORE is an imaginary multimedia program. However, the nonlinear design that allowed us to pick and choose the path we wished to follow was very realistic. The use of sound, still images, full motion video, and graphics were also realistically applied. It is hoped that EXPLORE gave you a feel for multimedia and the immense possibilities that exist for classroom application of the programs in business education.

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Ready to Jump on the Multimedia Wagon?

Some educators are reluctant at this point to jump on the multimedia wagon because of the infancy of the technology. However, the new MPC standards should speed the development process and standardize the programs available in the near future.

The technology is here, and Texas has begun requiring this technology as a presentation platform for instruction. Can other states, including Louisiana, be far behind? Ready or not--here comes multimedia!

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ISSUES AND TRENDS AFFECTING OFFICE WORKERS IN LARGE AND SMALL ORGANIZATIONS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR THE BUSINESS EDUCATION CLASSROOM

Donna Holmquist[1]

For the past 36 years, a secretarial seminar has been offered to secretaries in and around the metropolitan area of Omaha, Nebraska, by the University of Nebraska at Omaha. The attendance at these seminars has been steadily increasing, and the number of large and small businesses that are represented has also increased. In an effort to identify who the attendees were and what their needs were, a study was conducted to identify issues and trends that are affecting the work situations of the secretarial profession in the Omaha vicinity. The purpose is to provide business educators with a picture of the secretarial work force and a better understanding of what their students can expect to experience when they enter the work world.

The Survey

The study was conducted over a period of three years. A secretarial seminar was presented each spring from 1988-1990 in Omaha, Nebraska. Secretaries from large and small organizations within Omaha and from the surrounding area attended the seminars and were asked to complete a questionnaire. An average of 133 questionnaires were completed by secretaries each of the three years. Business teachers and business students also attended the seminars and participated in the survey. However, only the responses of the secretaries were used for this project. The questionnaires from the

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three years were evaluated in an effort to identify some of the issues and trends that were affecting the working environments of the large and small offices.

Findings/Results

Profile of Today's Secretary

The secretary has been in his/her present position for almost five years and may hold a supervisory position. Four-and-a-half employees report to the secretary who has become an administrative secretary. The secretary primarily uses a dedicated word processor produced by IBM and is most familiar with WordPerfect or a special company word processing program. The secretary divides his/her time at work in the following way: Letters/memo = 41 percent; filing = 15 percent; data processing = 36 percent; other = 8 percent. The secretary is more likely to use a Dictaphone than to use shorthand; if he/she does use shorthand, it is most likely to be Gregg. The secretary does not presently use electronic mail although this trend is becoming much more popular each year.

The secretary wants to have an understanding boss and professional co-workers; he/she would prefer limited supervision with decision-making opportunities and a variety of tasks. The secretary likes to work with the public and enjoys challenging tasks, appreciation of a job well done, using technology, and learning new things.

If the secretary had the option to change things, he/she would request greater responsibility, fewer last-minute deadlines and telephone interruptions, increased status with more pay, and equality in the workforce. He/she would prefer having only one boss, more room for advancement, and fewer interruptions.

The secretary has numerous goals. Included in these goals are the following: to become a Certified Professional Secretary; to obtain a degree; to be an excellent secretary and be the best he/she can be; to learn more computer skills; to become a corporate or administrative

secretary, or obtain a managerial position. The secretary has received several years of college education.

Specific Responses

1. Job titles were as numerous as were the respondents. Very few had the same job title. Some examples were: Executive Secretary, Medical Secretary, Senior Stenographer, Personnel Secretary, Administrative Secretary, Legal Secretary, Assistant Secretary, Stenographer, Administrative Assistant, Receptionist, Secretary Specialist, Conference Secretary.

2. The average number of years in the present position was 4.96.

3. Twenty percent of those who attended the seminars held a supervisory position while 80 percent did not.

4. Of those who were in supervisory positions, the average number of employees who reported to each was 4.5.

5. The respondents were asked to name the brands of microcomputers they used. In all three years, IBM led with an average of 31 percent of those used. Many other brands were named, but the percentage of each was small compared to IBM or IBM compatible.

6. The programs used the most often were WordPerfect, Lotus, and WordStar; a multitude of others were listed including special company programs.

7. Letters and memo writing took an average of 41 percent of the secretaries' time. Thirty-five percent of their time was spent on data processing, and 15 percent was spent on filing. Other miscellaneous activities took the remainder of the day.

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8. The percentage of letter/memo transcription that is done using a Dictaphone was 32 percent while the amount of time spent using shorthand was 15 percent. Gregg shorthand was used by 74 percent of the respondents, Speedwriting was used by 19 percent, and another type of note taking was used by 7 percent.

9. There was an increasing number of secretaries who were using electronic mail in their offices. In 1988, 17 percent were using it while in 1990, 63 percent were using it.

10. When asked what the three most satisfying factors about their jobs were, the respondents indicated the following as top priority items:

    Working for an understanding boss
    Having professional co-workers
    Having limited supervision
    Having decision-making opportunities
    Working with a variety of tasks
    Working with the public
    Receiving appreciation for a job well done
    Handling challenging tasks
    Learning new things/using technology
    Attaining self-satisfaction with achievement

11. When asked what three things they would change about their jobs, the respondents indicated the following as top priority items:

    Receive more responsibility
    Limit last minute deadlines
    Limit number of telephone interruptions
    Raise status
    Receive more pay
    Receive equal treatment
    Report to only one boss
    Allow more room for advancement

Reduce number of interruptions
Allow for more flexible scheduling

12. The secretaries indicated that, while most were happy with their jobs, many had set higher career goals for themselves. Some of the responses were to:

    Become a Certified Professional Secretary
    Obtain a degree
    Be an excellent secretary
    Be the best that I can be
    Learn more computer skills
    Become a corporate secretary
    Become an administrative secretary
    Reach a managerial position

13. The level of education of the attendees was:

High School	40%
1-2 Years of College	35%
3-4 Years of College	12%
More than 4 Years of College	2%
No Response	11%

Conclusions

1. Secretarial positions have no standard position title.

2. Employers tend to send their secretaries to seminars even though the secretaries may not be in administrative positions.

3. The computers which are used often in offices are the IBM brand or IBM compatible.

4. There are a multitude of word processing, data base, and spreadsheet programs which are being used in offices.

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5. The secretary still spends the greatest part of the day producing letters and memos and working with data processing. Filing duties continue to require a significant portion of the secretary's time.

6. Machines are used twice as often as shorthand for purposes of transcription. Most secretaries who use shorthand use the Gregg system; the majority of the remainding respondents are using Speedwriting.

7. Use of electronic mail is increasing in offices.

8. Secretaries are basically satisfied with their positions and generally have similar suggestions for improving their jobs.

9. Secretaries are looking at higher goals both inside and outside of their organizations.

Recommendations

1. Teachers should stress a generic type of training on computer programs with emphasis on decision-making skills since it is impossible to know what specific computer programs students will use in an office.

2. Students should become proficient in producing letters and memos and in working with data processing; they need to be competent in the use of filing rules, the machine transcriber, some type of shorthand, and electronic mail.

3. Teachers should emphasize the fact that high school business training must be reinforced with workshops, seminars, and additional schooling for a student who wants to advance to a higher position in an office hierarchy.

4. Students should be encouraged to strive constantly for improvement and to reach continuously for higher goals.

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COMPUTER CONFERENCING AND NOMINAL GROUP INTERACTION: ALTERNATIVES FOR PROBLEM-SOLVING EQUIVALENCY

James L. Morrison[1]

Business administrators today are attempting to direct resources towards facilitating group participation and group cohesion in order to increase general productivity and maximize individual self-actualization. An integral part of this effort is that of establishing a conducive climate in the workplace for encouraging employees to apply reasoning and communication skills for arriving at solutions to antagonistic problems often associated with a competitive marketplace. With computer technology enhancing individual ability to generate large quantities of data, More and Laird (1985) believe that there is a need for employees to participate more in collaborative problem-solving efforts which put additional emphasis upon an ability to explain, interpret, and synthesize ideas into documented proposals.

Short (1976), concluded that attitudes associated with the interaction process vary according to the medium selected to assist. Short cautions that those in the business community should not assume that technological fixes to improve communication and problem solving will automatically be accepted by subordinates since such use may have an adverse effect upon individual perceptions as to self-worth and value to an organization.

Along this same line of thought, Short continues by suggesting that the critical factor in building an individual's self-esteem is that of having an acknowledged social presence while interacting with others.

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Short labels the existence of social presence as a basic human need that impacts upon one's ability to gain respect among members of a peer group. This reality for personal attention is a dimension to worklife that Short implies is fundamental for maintaining employee loyalty and morale. Morely and Stephenson (1975) also suggested in their research that computer technology may inadvertently place a greater emphasis upon "task completion" at the expense of self-respect and social presence.

In our role as business educators, it is our responsibility to prepare students with the necessary knowledge and skills required to work effectively within a business environment. The inclusion of alternative mechanisms to assist our students in refining their problem-solving skills has taken on increased significance as today's technology advances unrelentingly. Therefore, the focus here was to gain insight as to the similarities and differences among competing problem-solving mechanisms, specifically in this instance, between computer conferencing and face-to-face interactive workgroups.

Asynchronous and Concurrent Exchanges

The intriguing factor examined here is individual reaction to solving a problem utilizing an intimate face-to-face communication strategy whereby exchanges are concurrent as compared to relying upon computer technology in which exchanges are independent of time and place. The distinguishing feature of a computer conference is that communication occurs asynchronously in that delays between entering a comment and receiving feedback during an electronic debate may be minutes, hours, or days. Therefore, during a computer conference, comments are entered by keyboard from personal computers into a centralized data system any time during the day. These keypads are connected to a network that sequences and stores messages that may be read at the convenience of the participant. Individuals in the conference may access some or all comments, respond to the initiator, ask/respond to questions of others, or compose individual comments to be viewed by others.

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However, a nominal workgroup consists of participants who interact with one another in a face-to-face discussion. Characteristic of a nominal workgroup is that an individual is required to study the problem assigned and to propose a solution as s/he takes a turn providing input. As is also characteristic of a computer conference, individuals in a nominal workgroup are required to think through possible solutions before entering into face-to-face dialogue with others. Therefore, communication between individuals is conducted in "real time" in that both oral communication and body language are factors during exchanges. In addition, one receives immediate feedback to ideas and formulates responses with some degree of spontaneity. Therefore, computer conferencing is designed to be less intimate than face-to-face exchanges. Comments keyboarded at a personal computer are generally considered on their own merit rather than by the status of the initiator. During a computer conference, words keyboarded may be carefully selected and edited before being transmitted to the group whereas words utilized during face-to-face exchanges may not be altered once they are stated. The essence here is the delineation between a distributed scheme for communicating whereby individuals may be located at different sites and that of face-to-face whereby participants are in one setting.

Experimental Design

The intent here was to undertake an initial step for analyzing problem solving skill-building based upon two rather diverse strategies in which individuals enter into a collaborative effort for arriving at an informed decision by using either an impersonal technical scheme or a very personal nominal workgroup in which face-to-face exchanges occur. It should be noted that a secondary purpose was to become familiar with the parameters of a computer conference in order to proceed to advanced stages of study. The sample for the pilot study consisted of 21 undergraduates enrolled in a course in consumer economics at the University of Delaware. Each individual had completed a basic introductory course in computing prior to enrollment in this course. The sample was divided into two groups with 11

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individuals randomly selected to a nominal workgroup and 10 assigned to participate in a computer conference.

Upon reading a series of articles from journals within the discipline of economics, participants were given the charge to identify three parameters that were to be included when performing an analysis as to the merits of protecting consumers from unsafe products in the marketplace by means of federal intervention. Students were requested to participate in an open discussion either during a computer conference or in face-to-face workgroup formats.

At the conclusion of a two-week period in which there were no formal class meetings, each member of each workgroup was to forward by electronic mail to their instructor her/his decision. Each student had the right to agree or disagree with the group decision during this process. The students were evaluated according to the number of parameters they successfully identified as a result of their readings and exchanges. In addition, a questionnaire was distributed to each student at the conclusion of the pilot study for identifying perceptions as to personal experiences encountered during the problem-solving activity.

Results of Experiment

In performing a t-test on the mean outcome scores of members in each of the two groups, there was no significant difference (t-.3778; prob .7097) determined, supporting the contention that students performed equally well in solving the problem assigned. With the exception of one student in each workgroup, students identified at least two of the three parameters as a basis for their analysis. In support of this finding, there was also no significant difference (t-.0394; prob. .9690) in perceptions of participants in terms of degree of helpfulness reported. Based upon a 5-point rating scale in which a rating of 1 depicts extremely helpful and a 5, no help whatsoever, each workgroup had very similar mean perception scores (1.80 for computer conference; 1.81 for nominal workgroup).

Finally, in terms of providing feedback as to their perceptions of collaborating during problem-solving activities, there were no significant differences between the two workgroups in responses relating to having to deal with repetitive comments; making/contributing comments; using readings identified by others; being influenced by others; determining importance of comments made; and maneuvering within discussion group. It was interesting to note that respondents indicated that they generally did not find it necessary to interact with their classmates outside of the computer conference or the nominal workgroup.

Increasing Capabilities to Think Critically

Since the sample size was relatively small during the pilot study, it is appropriate to proceed with great caution in examining the outcomes of the pilot study. However, as a first step in learning about the idiosyncracies of computer conferencing when compared to the more traditional face-to-face discussion group, several perceptions revealed by the participants are worth noting. Participants in the pilot study indicated that they did not require any specific preparation beyond that of a brief orientation for either problem-solving method.

In view of this observation, there may be no need to spend considerable effort in designing intensive preparatory programs for familiarizing individuals with problem solving routines. However, there does appear to be a need for classroom instructors to become sensitive toward having students learn skills such as clarifying differences, integrating different perspectives into a positive proposal, and expressing disagreement without rejecting--but have these skills acknowledged and practiced when they are actually required during a debate.

Another interesting observation is that a social presence and a corresponding degree of self-respect may also be maintained during a computer conference. Students indicated that being able to communicate by means of electronic mail directly with their instructor on demand made them feel comfortable and enabled them to proceed

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with less fear in the problem-solving process. They indicated that making personal contact with their instructor during a time of need enabled them to gain the confidence required to continue to interact with others when confusion arose as to what to do next.

A second dimension to a computer conference--and to some degree in the nominal workgroup--is the reduced need to rely upon the instructor for leadership and guidance. The students indicated that a "bonding" resulted since participants perceived themselves as having to rely upon others because of the severe time constraints (a two-week period) placed upon them during the problem-solving activity. Therefore, a new kind of social presence appears to be evolving which also appears to impact upon the image a contributor has about his/her own value to a new kind of workgroup.

Finally, data from this pilot study appears to support the contention that it may not be appropriate to focus upon comparing the effectiveness of one problem-solving strategy to another, but more importantly, to getting students to gain experience in each on the basis that different kinds of situations may require different mechanisms for arriving at an informed decision. Therefore, it may be of greater value to have students become capable of "shifting their mental capacities" according to the dimensions of the problem under study. This flexibility appears to be helpful in terms of an increasingly diverse workforce having varying cultural backgrounds--and the likelihood of becoming part of different work teams as old problems are resolved and new ones emerge. The similarities in perceptions reported by individuals in the two diverse workgroups in the pilot study may be providing a signal that students may already possess a degree of flexibility--and what is actually required is an opportunity to experience different problem-solving formats for refining those debating skills required to capitalize upon the potential of collaborative work designs for enhancing both individual and group productivity.

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Louisiana Business Education Journal
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WHAT TOPICS NEED TO BE IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASSES--WHAT AND HOW MUCH?

Larry R. Honl and Larry G. Pagel[1]

Are business students provided the background needed to meet the communication demands placed on them? Or does business and industry need to provide additional training to enhance the skills needed to overcome any deficiencies? This study identified the content that business trainers and members of the Association for Business Communication (ABC) believe must be provided to students prior to graduation. Based on that information, business communication instructors should be able to add, delete, or expand curriculum content and prepare prospective employees to be effective communicators.

Role of Business Training

By understanding the role of training in business and industry, business communication instructors can appreciate the need to review curriculum to meet the needs of students who enter these companies. Training is big business, as supported by the following statistics and statements (Oberle, 1989, pp. 31-62):

- Business educates more people each year than all educational institutions combined.
- The number of individuals who receive formal employer sponsored training each year is 35.5 million.
- The total hours of training each year is 1.2 billion.

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- The total dollars budgeted for formal training in 1989 by U.S. organizations was $44.4 billion.
- Formal learning of all kinds involves 77 million people annually and costs $304 billion.
- In 1988, 1 out of every 3 Americans was a student or a trainee.

Types of Employees who are Provided Training and Type of Training

Executives, technical, and managerial employees are given more opportunities to participate in training programs while office/administrative employees are given the least. Those receiving this training have probably already had extensive education prior to being employed at their company. This is changing as workers who never before received much formal training are "invading" corporate classrooms learning how to communicate (Carnevale, 1988).

Two-thirds of training programs in business and industry include programs to improve communication skills. The top four types of training include management skills/development, supervisory skills, technical skills/knowledge, and communication skills. As we break down the types of communication skills provided in the communication classification, interpersonal and listening skills are heavily emphasized. The other areas that are taught in training rooms across the United States are word processing, speaking, writing, and conducting business meetings.

The emphasis of business and industry training programs is in communication skills. These training programs are provided because employees are weak in this area. This perceived weakness indicates the lack of depth and instruction of key communication skills needed by students. This research indicates that our communication courses should emphasize key areas of communication to provide the appropriate background needed by students when they enter the business environment.

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Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the emphasis various components should be given in the business communication curriculum. Another purpose was to determine if there was a difference between ABC members and business trainers in the emphasis given to these key topics.

Methodology

Two hundred questionnaires were sent to a random sample of members of the Association for Business Communication (ABC) as identified in the 1989 Directory of Members of ABC. Also, 200 questionnaires were sent to the coordinators of training of companies as identified in Business Week (April 14, 1989). Usable returns totalled 140 for ABC and 41 for business trainers (after a follow-up letter and questionnaire to both groups). One reason the number of returns was lower for coordinators of training was that some companies have a policy of not responding to questionnaires.

Data collected included demographic data as well as the participants' perceived importance of the emphasis to be placed in teaching 22 competencies at the beginning and/or advanced levels of instruction. These competencies were developed by selecting the common topics discussed in the top five textbooks used by ABC members (Ober, 1987). Participants were first asked to indicate the level of instruction (beginning or advanced) at which the competencies should be taught; then they were asked to indicate the degree of emphasis that competency should be given at each level of instruction.

A second part of the questionnaire asked the participants to project the emphasis that should be placed on these same competencies in three to five years. A seven-point Likert scale was used to identify the participants' perceived degree of emphasis to be placed on the competencies. The Likert scale included the following units of measurement: 1 for least emphasis, 4 for average emphasis, and 7 for greatest emphasis.

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Analysis and Discussion

Table 1 shows the business trainers' present and future mean rankings of the 22 competencies to be taught in the beginning business communication course. Competencies such as English fundamentals, report writing (both informational and analytical), and memorandums show a decrease of greater than 1.0 in mean values from present to future emphasis. This indicates a major change in emphasis from what is being taught now to what should be emphasized in the future.

Table 1

MEAN RANKINGS OF COMPETENCIES IDENTIFIED BY BUSINESS TRAINERS FOR THE BEGINNING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

Competency	Present Mean	Future Mean
English fundamentals	5.487	4.000
Listening	5.436	4.872
Letter writing	4.846	3.846
Report writing (informational)	4.667	3.615
Writing principles (editing, revising, formatting)	4.564	3.641
Internal communication (meetings, interviews, telephone)	4.487	3.667
Memorandums	4.128	2.846
Composition development	4.077	2.564
Presentations	4.026	3.436
Communication theory	3.949	2.949
Group communication (meetings, simulations, and case study)	3.462	2.743
Editing via terminals	3.359	2.718
Employment communication (resume, application letter, and interview)	3.154	2.538

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Technology (software writing analysis and electronic mail)	2.923	2.795
Report writing (analytical)	2.692	1.641
Nonverbal training	2.590	2.487
Computer graphics development	2.231	2.179
Research (statistical analysis and data gathering)	2.154	1.513
Telecommunications	2.154	1.769
Report writing (procedures, manuals, directives, and abstract)	1.923	1.718
International communication	1.897	1.103
Dictating	1.641	1.308

Table 2 identifies the business trainers' present and future mean rankings of the 22 competencies to be taught in the advanced business communication course. Competencies such as report writing (both informational and analytical), writing principles, and nonverbal training show a decrease of greater than 1.0 in mean values. This again indicates a major change in present teaching to future emphasis.

Table 2

MEAN RANKINGS OF COMPETENCIES IDENTIFIED BY BUSINESS TRAINERS FOR THE ADVANCED BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

Competency	Present Mean	Future Mean
Presentations	5.128	4.744
Listening	4.333	3.410
Report writing (analytical)	4.205	2.487
Report writing (informational)	4.128	3.051

Group communication (meetings, simulations, and case study)	4.026	3.462
International communication	3.282	2.513
Writing principles (editing, revising, formatting, etc.)	3.128	2.051
Internal communication (meetings, interviews, and telephone)	3.051	2.692
Letter writing	3.000	2.487
Nonverbal training	2.974	1.718
English fundamentals	2.846	2.205
Research (statistical analysis and data gathering)	2.744	2.282
Technology (software writing analysis and electronic mail)	2.538	2.231
Report writing (procedures, manuals, directives, abstract)	2.385	2.026
Computer graphics development	2.385	2.051
Telecommunication	2.333	1.897
Composition development	2.282	1.487
Communication theory	2.077	2.564
Employment communication (resume, application letter, interview)	2.000	1.128
Memorandums	1.949	1.462
Editing via terminals	1.949	2.051
Dictating	1.102	0.590

Tables 1 and 2 identify the highest and lowest competencies which should receive the most emphasis and the least emphasis, respectively, in future beginning and advanced communication classes. These rankings were indicated by business trainers. As shown in Tables 1 and 2, competencies such as listening, presentations, English fundamentals, and letter writing will continue to be important in the future. In spite of the current emphasis on the global community, the respondents placed very little emphasis on international communication

for the beginning business communication course. Dictation skills had the lowest ranking for both beginning and advanced courses.

Table 3 shows the ABC members' present and future mean rankings of the 22 competencies to be taught in the beginning business communication course. Academicians ranked the top six competencies in the same order for both present and future emphasis.

Table 3

MEAN RANKINGS OF COMPETENCIES IDENTIFIED BY ABC MEMBERS FOR THE BEGINNING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

Competency	Present Mean	Future Mean
Writing principles (editing, revising, formatting, etc.)	5.990	5.076
Letter writing	5.324	4.790
Memorandums	4.914	4.381
Employment communication (resume, application letter, interview)	4.657	4.190
English fundamentals	4.524	4.048
Listening	4.190	3.590
Composition development	4.162	3.724
Communication theory	4.143	3.657
Report writing (informational)	4.095	4.048
Presentations	3.629	3.638
Internal communication (meetings, interviews, and telephone)	3.390	3.143
Nonverbal training	3.200	2.781
Editing via terminals	3.181	3.276
Report writing (analytical)	3.105	3.362

Group communication (meetings, simulations, and case study)	2.819	2.876
International communication	2.819	2.981
Technology (software writing analysis and electronic mail)	2.676	2.819
Research (statistical analysis and data gathering)	2.190	2.419
Computer graphics development	2.029	2.181
Telecommunication	1.981	1.943
Report writing (procedures, manuals, directives, abstract)	1.876	1.905
Dictating	1.838	1.619

Table 4 shows the ABC members' present and future mean rankings of the 22 competencies to be taught in the advanced business communication course. Within the top ten competencies, academicians made only minor changes in present to future emphasis. Business trainers were more likely to change emphasis from present teaching to future emphasis.

Table 4

MEAN RANKINGS OF COMPETENCIES IDENTIFIED BY ABC MEMBERS FOR THE ADVANCED BUSINESS COMMUNICATION COURSE

Competency	Present Mean	Future Mean
Report writing (analytical)	5.267	4.390
Presentations	5.152	4.340
Research (statistical analysis and data gathering)	4.695	4.105
Report writing (informational)	4.495	3.743

Group communication (meetings, simulations, and case study)	4.343	3.867
Writing principles (editing, revising, formatting, etc.)	4.171	3.648
Report writing (procedures, manuals, directives, abstract)	4.019	3.419
International communication	3.743	3.295
Internal communication (meetings, interviews, and telephone)	3.667	3.133
Communication theory	3.657	3.305
Nonverbal training	3.629	2.905
Employment communication (resume, application letter, and interview)	3.400	2.781
Listening	3.295	2.838
Letter writing	3.133	2.657
Computer graphics development	3.095	2.924
Memorandums	2.943	2.676
Technology (software writing analysis and electronic mail)	2.895	1.981
Editing via terminals	2.848	2.657
Composition development	2.648	2.467
Telecommunication	2.600	2.610
English fundamentals	2.257	1.838
Dictating	1.886	1.657

Tables 3 and 4 identify the competencies which should receive the most emphasis and the least emphasis in present beginning and advanced communication classes. Writing principles were most highly emphasized by ABC members for present beginning business communication, while report writing was most highly emphasized for the present advanced course. Dictation continues to be the least emphasized in both the present and advanced classes according to the ABC group of respondents.

For the future beginning and advanced business communication classes, the ABC respondents had a slightly different approach toward

what competencies should be emphasized. Writing principles, letter writing, and memorandums were ranked first, second, and third, respectively, for the future beginning course. Whereas report writing, presentations, and research were ranked first, second, and third, respectively, for the future advanced course. Those competencies that were ranked the lowest were almost identical for both the future beginning and the future advanced business communication class.

CONCLUSIONS

Based upon the mean rankings by ABC members and business trainers, the following conclusions can be made.

1. Oral presentations should be given heavy emphasis in the advanced business communication course now and in the future as determined by both ABC members and business trainers.

2. Writing principles and letter writing should be given heavy emphasis in the beginning business communication classes now and in the future as determined by both ABC members and business trainers.

3. English fundamentals should be given heavy emphasis now and in the future in a beginning business communication class as determined by business trainers.

4. Listening instruction should be given heavy emphasis now and in the future in both beginning and advanced business communication courses as determined by business trainers.

5. Dictation should be given very little emphasis in both the beginning and advanced business classes as identified by both ABC members and business trainers.

6. Telecommunication instruction should be given very little emphasis in the beginning classes now and in the future as identified by both ABC members and business trainers.

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7. Report writing (procedures, manuals, directives, and abstracts) should be given very little emphasis now and in the future in the beginning business communication class as identified by ABC members.

8. English fundamentals instruction should be given very little emphasis in both our present and future advanced business communication classes as determined by ABC members.

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EMPLOYEE SELECTION CRITERIA FOR COLLEGE GRADUATES

Walter Creighton and Bob Gillan[1]

What selection criteria do leading businesses and industries consider the most important in job applicants who are college graduates? How do post-secondary business educators rank the same criteria? Knowing and understanding the criteria for which companies are looking improves a business-related college graduate's chances for securing employment. It also helps educators prepare students to successfully apply for available jobs.

Survey

To determine how businesses and industries might rank various selection criteria, 250 companies were randomly selected out of the top 1,000 that regularly hire college graduates (Connor, 1987). Those companies reporting as not hiring business related graduates were eliminated; leaving 125 companies to be the sample population. Each company's contact person was sent a questionnaire consisting of 12 selection criteria. Of the 125 companies in the sample, 70 questionnaires were returned (56%).

To compare how post-secondary business educators might rank the criteria, a sample of 125 NBEA representatives were selected from the total population of NBEA representatives listed in the December, 1989, issue of the Business Education Forum journal (Stein, 1989). Of

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[1]Dr. Walter Creighton is an Associate Professor in the Division of Business and Dr. Bob Gillan is an Assistant Professor in the Division of Education at the University of Northwestern Louisiana in Natchitoches.

the 125 representatives surveyed, 94 or 75.2% were returned and used in compiling the data.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections. In the first section, the respondent was asked to rate the importance of each criterion concerning a prospective college graduate employee by selecting from the following scale: 1-NOT IMPORTANT, 2-SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT, 3-IMPORTANT, 4-VERY IMPORTANT. In the second section, the respondent was asked to rank order the importance of the 12 items (criteria) with 1 being most important and 12 being least important.

Selection Criteria

To facilitate discussion, the selection employment criteria will be grouped into the following related functions: interview, work experience, grade, and general.

Interview

As with almost all related research, using good grammar and communications skills ranked highest on both sections of the questionnaire by both employers and NBEA representatives. To help improve these two important skills, students should practice and rehearse their interviewing style with someone who can critique their performance (Himstreet & Baty, 1987).

In interviewing, a good rule is to avoid extremes when planning the attire for an interview (Himstreet & Baty, 1987). The employers and NBEA representatives rated appropriate attire from important to very important (See Table 1.).

"Your resume is both a vehicle of communication and a demonstration of how you communicate" (Iacocca, 1987). A study confirmed that the submission of a resume for a new college graduate was essential or important (Harcourt, Krizan, & Gordon, 1987). While employers deemed that a well-structured resume and well-written cover

letter were important, rating them 3.0 and 2.9, NBEA respondents rated them very important, 3.6 and 3.7, respectively. Other major differences in ranking were also evident. Employers ranked the resume criteria as seventh and the cover letter criteria as ninth, whereas NBEA representatives ranked them third and fourth, respectfully. (See Table 1.)

Table 1

INTERVIEW CRITERIA

CRITERIA	EMPLOYERS 1-4	EMPLOYERS RANK	NBEA 1-4	NBEA RANK
GRAMMAR/ COMMUNICATIONS	3.8	1	3.96	1
APPROPRIATE ATTIRE	3.4	4	3.83	2
WELL STRUCTURED RESUME	3.0	7	3.6	3
WELL WRITTEN COVER LETTER	2.9	9	3.7	4

Work Experience

Work experience related to the job that the applicant is seeking was rated between important and very important by both groups of respondents and was ranked second by employers. General work experience was rated 2.9 by both employers and NBEA representatives, and ranked sixth and eighth respectively. (See Table 2.)

Table 2

WORK EXPERIENCE CRITERIA

CRITERIA	EMPLOYERS 1-4	RANK	NBEA 1-4	RANK
JOB RELATED	3.3	2	3.36	6
GENERAL EXPERIENCE	2.9	6	2.90	8

Grade Point Averages

Grade point averages continue to be important to prospective employers and were also perceived to be important by the education-oriented NBEA representatives. Grade point average in a student's major field was rated 3.1 by both groups and ranked third by employers and fifth by NBEA representatives. The employers rated the importance of the overall grade point average as 2.9, NBEA representatives as 2.8. This criterion was ranked fifth and seventh, respectively. (See Table 3.)

Table 3

GRADE POINT AVERAGE CRITERIA

CRITERIA	EMPLOYERS 1-4	RANK	NBEA 1-4	RANK
IN MAJOR	3.1	3	3.1	5
GENERAL COURSE WORK	2.9	5	2.8	7

General Criteria

Should a student join a fraternity, sorority, or a non-social organization such as the Society for Advancement of Management? While participation in these organizations probably improves campus life, this research found that its importance as a selection criterion was low. Participation in social/non academic organizations was rated only somewhat important by employers and by NBEA representatives. Both groups ranked this criterion eleventh. Participation in school-related, non-social organizations was rated higher, 2.5 and 2.7, respectively, and ranked eighth and ninth in order of importance. (See Table 4.)

Does attending a university accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) give a graduate an edge in obtaining a job after graduation? Some universities such as Harvard and Yale have "name" recognition that helps in securing jobs. Others recruit by pointing out that they are AACSB accredited while many schools of business choose not to belong to the AACSB or seek another accreditation body. Both groups rated attending an AACSB accredited institution as only "somewhat important" and both ranked this criterion tenth in order of importance. (See Table 4.)

Many times education seems to be second to athletic endeavors, but both groups rated the importance of participating in athletics the lowest, 1.5 for employers and 1.45 for NBEA representatives. It was also ranked last by both groups. (See Table 4.)

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Table 4

GENERAL EMPLOYMENT CRITERIA

CRITERIA	EMPLOYERS 1-4	RANK	NBEA 1-4	RANK
SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS	2.0	11	2.12	11
ACADEMIC ORGANIZATIONS	2.5	8	2.7	9
ATTENDED AACSB SCHOOL	2.0	10	2.03	10
ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION	1.5	12	1.45	12

Conclusions

This study found that employers and NBEA representatives were generally very close in their views of the levels of importance and ranking of the criteria studied. Interviewing skills, especially communication skills, gaining job-related work experience, and maintaining good grades were perceived as important to very important criteria and ranked highest. Athletic participation, attending AACSB schools, and participation in social organizations were perceived as only somewhat important or less, and ranked the lowest of the criteria.

The data gathered in this study should help guide business educators in determining which criteria to emphasize in their preparation of students to seek employment after graduation.

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Managing the Learning Process in Business Education

by Calfrey C. Calhoun and Bettye White Robinson

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--Dissertation Abstract--

FACTORS INFLUENCING TRAINING AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT CERTIFICATE PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

Cyndi Gaudet[1]

The objectives of this doctoral study were to: describe training and human resource development (T&D/HRD) certificate programs in the United States, compare the demographic characteristics of certificate programs among academic groupings, and to determine the perceived degree of influence of various factors on the development of T&D/HRD certificate programs.

A researcher-designed questionnaire was administered to the population of U. S. institutions offering T&D/HRD certificate programs identified by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) 1990 Academic Directory. An 84.2% rate of return was received from the respondents in this study.

Findings indicated that T&D/HRD certificate programs are more likely to be located in communities with an industrial base consisting of business services, finance, insurance, banking, or manufacturing. Almost two-thirds of the institutions offering T&D/HRD certificate programs offer graduate credit for program participants. When comparing the academic groupings of T&D/HRD certificate programs, more programs were found in business departments than in other departments.

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Most (59.4%) T&D/HRD certificate programs emphasize trainer roles and competencies equally. Factor analysis was used to determine the perceived influence of 53 factors that impact the development of T&D/HRD certificate programs. The top three factors perceived as having the most influence were: changed work environments, career development, and clientele of certificate programs.

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--Dissertation Abstract--

FAMILY SUPPORT FOR PERSISTERS AND NON-PERSISTERS IN LOUISIANA'S ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Geraldine Hargrove Holmes[1]

The role that family involvement and the effect that home efforts have on improved student achievement for children is well documented in the literature. The purpose of this doctoral study was to determine whether family support should be considered when planning adult basic education (ABE) programs. The objectives addressed were: demographic characteristics, level of family support, and relationship of family support among selected variables. A statewide random sample of 197 adult basic education students was surveyed (82.7% response rate).

Persisters (students who either completed the ABE program or were continuing their instruction when the study was conducted) and non-persisters (students who had dropped out of the ABE program) were studied. Variables examined included: selected demographic characteristics; persistence in ABE program; the most important reason for entering the ABE program; employment status; and psychological, family responsibilities, and financial family support subcomponents.

The majority of Louisiana ABE students were single black females living with their mothers. Most of the students who had dropped out of the ABE programs did so for financial reasons, and a large percentage of the students were unemployed. The average age of the students was 28 years and their average family income was slightly

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[1]Dr. Geraldine Holmes is an office occupations instructor at Folkes Technical Institute in Jackson, Louisiana.

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above the national average poverty threshold. No significant relationships were found among gender, race, employment, and all of the reasons given for entering the ABE program except one. A significant relationship was found between persisters and non-persisters on the variable, "Get a job." Persisters were more likely to give this reason for entering the ABE program than were non-persisters.

The results of the study indicate that focusing on education to enhance career opportunities could be a determining factor in keeping adults in an educational setting. Ideas and suggestions were given for more research directions and for planners of ABE programs.

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--Thesis Abstract--

PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION RESEARCH HELD BY SECONDARY BUSINESS EDUCATORS IN LOUISIANA

Norma G. Thurston[1]

The purpose of this master thesis was to determine the perceived value of business education research as indicated by secondary business educators in Louisiana. The objectives were to: (1) characterize teachers by time spent reading journals, journals read, professional memberships, degree held, research courses completed, and teaching experience; (2) assess the opinions of teachers toward the value of research; (3) determine whether solutions to selected issues in business education could be provided through business education research; (4) determine if differences existed between the opinions of teachers toward research by whether the teacher completed a thesis and degree held; (5) determine if there was a correlation between teacher opinions of research and degree held, teaching experience, research courses completed, time spent reading journals, professional memberships, and whether the teacher completed a thesis; and (6) determine if selected variables explained a significant proportion of the variance in teacher opinions of research.

A response rate of 71% was achieved after two mailings to 265 randomly selected business teachers. Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients were calculated. Regression analysis at the .05 level was used to determine if selected variables explained a significant proportion of the variance in teachers' opinions of research.

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[1]Mrs. Norma Thurston is an office occupations instructor at Baton Rouge Regional-Technical Institute in Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

The majority of teachers read at least one research journal per month, but spend very little time doing so. The majority of teachers are members of at least one professional organization and have graduate degrees.

Teachers perceive research to be valuable to them and place priority on research results. Teachers neither agree nor disagree that there is a lack of practical application of research, that they are prepared to read and use research findings, that research literature is too complex, and that experience is of more value than research.

None of the variables are related to teacher opinions toward research, and none of the variables explain a substantial proportion of the variance in teacher opinions toward research.

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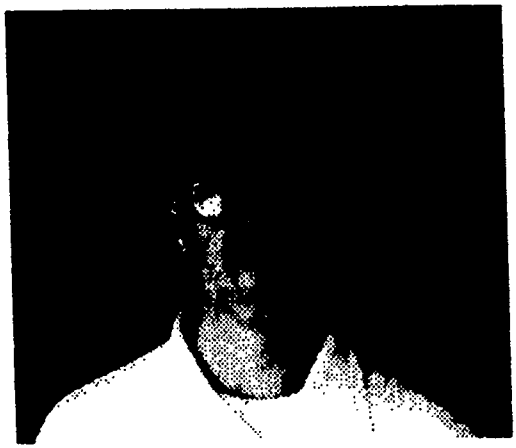

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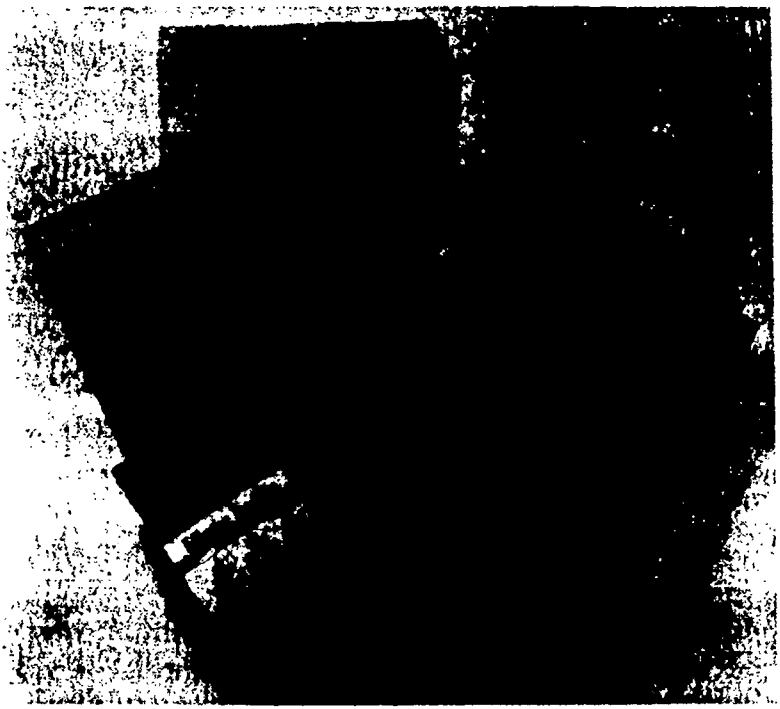

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EDITOR'S NOTES . . .

The manuscripts presented in this issue were accepted under a blind review process, with each manuscript being read by three reviewers from the Journal's editorial review board.

This third issue of your Journal contains articles on a wide variety of topics, beginning with Mary Jean Evers-Lush and Phyllis A. King's discussion of the importance of incorporating multicultural awareness into the curriculum. These authors also provide relevant activities that focus on developing students' multicultural awareness. Next, John T. Jayne and Gwen Smith offer some suggestions for designing and administering computer teaching labs that will allow educators to take full advantage of the improvements in computer-aided instruction.

Of interest to those of us concerned with preparing graduates for the school-to-work transition, Elwood F. Holton, III presents a taxonomy of critical skills that provides educators and new employees with a practical framework to both understand the process and to plan a successful passage. The necessity of including an information literacy component that develops students' research skills is elaborated by Sandra C. Duling and Angele Brill. These authors provide methods that can be utilized in business courses. Next, Betty Kleen describes the development and content of a single comprehensive curriculum guide that can serve as a foundation for a business education curriculum.

Turning our focus to the future, we present Wanda Stitt-Gohdes report of a survey of business education teachers from the Southeastern region of the country, and the respondents' perceptions of what business teacher preparation programs will be like in the year 2000. The future of the office environment is treated by Donna J. Keenan. Examining

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employment trends and projections, she provides insight into what the future may hold for office occupations. The last article, that of James Calvert Scott and Dennis LaBonty, identifies major actions and challenges that have the potential to influence the configuration and direction of business education.

Sincere thanks is extended to all authors for their professional contributions to this issue. Appreciation also is extended to the editorial review board and associate editors, Mary Virginia Weber and Theresa Zimmer. Acknowledgement must be given to Sandra Cash of Louisiana State University for her patience in keying the Journal and to Mark Holden for his graphics expertise. Sincere appreciation goes to our advertisers for their support. Finally, I want to provide a thanks to Carol Blanchard who performed various tasks necessary for publishing your journal and to Becky Tassin who provided her expertise as a proofreader.

Donna H. Redmann, Editor

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JOURNAL PROFILE

Journal Description

The Louisiana Business Education Journal is published annually by the Louisiana Association of Business Educators. This refereed journal includes articles on various aspects of business education dealing with research, theory, trends and issues, curriculum, teaching methodology, technology, and personal/ professional development. Each issue contains approximately six to ten articles, as well as, abstracts of doctoral dissertations and master's theses completed by Louisiana business educators. The first issue of the journal was circulated in Spring 1991.

Circulation/Readership

The journal is distributed to all LABE members as part of membership dues and sent free of charge to the NABTE (National Association of Business Teacher Education) institutions throughout the country. The LABE membership is comprised of business teachers, administrators, supervisors, teacher educators, college and university students planning to become business teachers, and those interested in business education. Membership is concentrated at the secondary level.

JOURNAL SUBSCRIPTION

Subscription is part of LABE membership dues. Subscription rates are $10 for both non-LABE members and for institutions/ libraries. For a subscription, please make your check payable to LABE and mail it to the editor at the following address:

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CALL FOR PAPERS

The Louisiana Association of Business Educators invites business educators to contribute articles for publication in the Louisiana Business Education Journal, a refereed publication. Manuscripts should deal with topics of interest to educators at both the secondary and post-secondary levels. Submission of manuscripts dealing with practical topics are encouraged, as are research based or theoretical papers. Abstracts of doctoral dissertations and master's theses completed by Louisiana business educators are welcomed. Occasionally, invited authors' papers will be published.

Manuscripts will be selected through a blind review process. Manuscripts should not have been published or be under current consideration for publication by another journal. Five copies of the manuscript, including a title page and a 50-100 word abstract, should be submitted to the editor along with a diskette copy using WordPerfect 5.1. The manuscripts should range from 6 to 12 double-spaced typed pages of 12-pitch type size, including tables and references. Manuscripts must be prepared using the style format in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Third Edition, 1983 (ISBN 0-912704-57-8). The title page is to include the title of the manuscript and the running header. The following information on each author needs to be included on the title page: full name, position title, place of employment, city, state, zip code, and telephone numbers.

Submission deadline is March 31, 1994. Acceptance notification will be June 15, 1994. Publication date will be Summer 1994.

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INCORPORATING MULTICULTURAL AWARENESS INTO THE BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM

Mary Jean Evers-Lush[1]
Phyllis A. King

Abstract

North Americans historically have perceived themselves as the core of any communication process; and the business curriculum was designed to reflect this attitude. In this global economy, it is incumbent upon educators to recognize the omission of information and take steps to include a multicultural awareness component in the business communication curriculum. Educators must ensure that students are prepared to enter the workforce with the ability to interact successfully with persons of diverse nationalities. Specifically, relevant activities focused on developing students' multicultural awareness must be incorporated into the business communication curriculum.

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Dr. Phyllis A. King is an Associate Professor in the Department of Office Administration and Business Education at Southeastern Louisiana University, Hammond, Louisiana.

Historically, when dealing with other countries, North Americans perceived themselves to be the core of any communication process; and the business curriculum was designed to reflect this attitude. Little effort was made to include information about unfamiliar cultures and procedures because they assumed the rest of the world was obliged to adjust to their standards. After all, the U.S. was the world's champion exporter; in 1991, the U.S. dominated the international markets (Eiben, 1992, June).

Reasons for Incorporating Multicultural Awareness into the Business Curriculum

The primary reasons for incorporating multicultural awareness into the business curriculum are the extent of overseas business operations, technological advances, and cultural ignorance.

Overseas Business Operations

Some U.S. corporations not only export from the U.S. but also produce goods and services in foreign countries (Eiben, 1992, June). U.S. companies derive large percentages of their revenues from overseas operations (Eiben, 1992, June). Specifically, Table 1 shows 9 of the top 50 U.S. exporters which derived at least 25% of their revenues from overseas operations in 1991 (Eiben, 1992, June). Additionally, figures provided by Eiben (Fortune, 1992, June) indicate that 25 of the remaining 50 companies derived between 10% and 23% of their revenues from overseas operations during 1991. Eiben (1992) states that "U.S. exports have increased every year since 1985 . . . ."

Table 1

U.S. Exporters that Derived at least 25% of Their Revenues from Overseas Operations in 1991 (Eiben, 1992, p. 95)

Company	% of Sales	Company	% of Sales
Boeing	60.9	Archer-Daniels-Midland	30.3
Sun Microsystems	49.3	Compaq Computer	29.0
Intel	40.4	Motorola	25.8
Caterpillar	36.4	Ethyl	25.4
McDonnell Douglas	32.9		

As indicated above, U.S. international business operations are considerable. Carlock (1991) suggested that

> the world is now an international society . . . [and] movement toward an international society is evident when we look at what is happening in the United States. Almost one-third of all U.S. corporate profits are now generated through international corporate business; and, increasingly, other countries are locating their business firms in America (p. 3).

Additionally, Collins noted (cited in Carlock, 1991) that at least 1,177 businesses in this country, which employ approximately 81,300 U.S. workers, are owned by Japanese companies.

Technological Advances

Technological advances have provided opportunities for even Third-World countries to assume trading postures in the world marketplace. Impressive European economic alliances

are forming (Scott, 1992). Where once there was essentially only one language in the Soviet Union, the former USSR is now 30-plus independent states and nations, each with its own cultural, business, and language stance.

Cultural Ignorance

While today's technology allows for electronic language interpreters, one must realize that "language barriers are really not the issue . . . . A greater problem lies in the lack of understanding of other cultural nuances" (Haight, 1991, p. 3; Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, 1992). For instance, a successful California entrepreneur, Louis Griggs, reinforced this position when he stated

> I'm not competent when dealing with foreigners. If I'm ignorant of their cultural differences, I don't know what they're thinking, what they're doing, what their values are. I don't know how to negotiate with them. They have all the power because they've studied my way and speak my language (cited in Inman, Ownby, Perreault, & Rhea, 1991).

When designing today's business curriculum, therefore, educators no longer can assume that U.S. principles are the norm. Today's global economy mandates that educators inventory their attitudes and provide a multicultural awareness for their students as it relates to both interpersonal and business relationships (Policies Commission . . ., 1992).

Additionally, Inman et. al. (1991, p. 19) noted that "competition in the global marketplace is increasingly fierce, and the necessary new skills must include an understanding of the culture, the customs, and the values and practices of all players in the game." Inman et. al. (1991, p. 19) also noted that ". . . the political, social, and economic developments

around the world, as well as the widely accepted standards of excellence of the [American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business] AACSB, point to the need for understanding people of all cultural and language groups." In the 1974 American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) Accreditation Council Policies, Procedures, and Standards, business schools were urged to include a "domestic and world-wide dimension." AACSB standards were revised in 1980-81 to mandate that "every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum."

The Business Communication Curriculum

Traditionally, the business communication curriculum centered on a student's ability to write effective memos, letters, and reports and to communicate well orally with colleagues and others. This is no longer sufficient; now educators must infuse multicultural awareness into the business communication curriculum.

Definitions

Before these issues can be addressed, a solid understanding of both international communication and culture must be established.

International Communication

Driskill, Ferrell, and Steffey (1992) state that understanding a culture requires four essential skills: awareness, open mindedness, empathy, and adaptability. Combining these four skills through written, oral, and nonverbal channels ensures that the receiver correctly interprets the sender's message which, in turn, results in effective international communication.

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Culture

Samovar and Porter (1991) identified culture as social rules which provide structure and serve as a common blueprint for all of life's activities. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (1992) defines culture as "The totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought" (p. 454). Perhaps a more appropriate definition is that culture consists of structured social norms and protocols which are acceptable to and practiced by businesses in a country or region.

Existing Approaches to Infuse Multicultural Communication into the Business Curriculum

Wurzel and Holt (1991) propose six interrelated conceptual approaches to multicultural education. The Single Group/Ethnic Studies Model provides specific information about the culture, literature, and history of a group, while the Human Relations Training Model seeks to lessen conflict between groups and individuals. The Social Reconstructionist Model deals specifically with issues of class, gender, and race in relation to political, historical, and contemporary inequities. The Historical/Reflective Thinking Model examines instances of intercultural conflict from an historical perspective to deal with group relations.

Two remaining models would be most appropriate for business communication. First, the Intercultural Communication Model "examines differences in values and assumptions, and cognitive-perceptual, verbal and nonverbal processes in human interaction" (Wurzel & Holt, p. 287) to improve intercultural understanding. Second, the Global Education Model "underscores the need to learn about world cultures in the context of an increasingly interdependent world" (Wurzel & Holt, p. 287).

The above models show that attempts are being made to provide delivery systems which incorporate multicultural awareness into the business curriculum. Becker (1991) reminds us that

> "improved understanding of key issues such as food, energy, pollution, defense and security, resource use, and human rights, for example, probably requires an approach that goes beyond the treatment offered within a single discipline . . . . Students are likely to be interested in events happening now that have a clear relevance to their own concerns" (p. 80).

Educators must make classroom activities relevant to students' interests in order to stimulate their curiosity about other cultures.

Haight (1991) proposes several objectives for an international module to be included in a traditional business communication course (Table 2).

Topics and Suggested Classroom Activities

To incorporate multicultural awareness into the business communication curriculum, several areas must be addressed. Educators must introduce students to the protocol, customs, and etiquette of other cultures; to the impact of nonverbal communication; and to the dangers of the abuse of the components of language usage.

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Table 2

Suggested Objectives for Including an International Module into a Traditional Business Communication Course (Haight, 1991, p. 6)

[Students will:]

1. Develop increased awareness of relativity of linguistic "correctness" from one culture or social setting to another.

2. Acquire knowledge of the rhetorical pattern of another culture for correspondence of positive information, negative information, and persuasive information.

3. Acquire knowledge of the format and diction common to the correspondence of a country unlike that used in the United States.

4. Apply the rhetorical pattern and conventional choices of information of another country or culture in correspondence of positive, negative, and persuasive information.

5. Investigate the norms, values, beliefs, and social structure of a single country or culture that affect the presentation of information in business communication and relate the findings in a formal report.

6. Present the findings of the formal report and information related to but unsuitable for the formal report to the class.

Protocol, Customs, and Etiquette

Facts about protocol, customs, and etiquette, as well as examples of acceptable and unacceptable behavior may be found in such references as Do's and Taboos Around the World (Axtell, 1990) and Letitia Baldrige's Complete Guide to Executive Manners (Gelles-Cole, 1985). These examples will acquaint students with multicultural nuances and help them to conduct successful international business negotiations.

Food. Axtell (1990) offers examples of differences in customs regarding food preferences. For instance, delicacies in Saudi Arabia and China are sheep's eyes and bear's paw soup, respectively. Axtell (1990) also suggests that refusal to eat what is offered by one's host is considered a serious breach of etiquette and possibly could result in loss of business.

Gifts. U.S. protocol generally prohibits offering or accepting gifts. That may not be the case in other countries, however. In either event, it is important that students know and understand the rules (Axtell, 1990). They must be exposed to situations which demonstrate acceptable and unacceptable gift giving and receiving.

Students must understand the need for caution when admiring a certain object (i.e., furniture, animal, or automobile). Open admiration of an item likely will result in the host immediately presenting the item to the admirer. In some Asian and Middle Eastern countries, refusal of the gift would be considered an insult by the host. Additionally, the host would expect a gift of equal value in return (Axtell, 1990).

Punctuality. Students must understand that individuals in different cultures have varying perceptions of and tolerance for punctuality in both business and social situations. Japanese, German, Scandinavian, and British executives are

least tolerant of lateness; Middle Eastern executives tend to extend business meetings much later than U.S. business executives anticipate (Axtell, 1990). Axtell (1990) relates an example of a Mexican executive's laissez faire attitude toward keeping a scheduled social engagement. Even though the Mexican executive originated the appointment and was in the U.S., he employed his cultural perception of being fashionably late.

Educators may address these topics through innovative classroom activities. For instance, students can develop and implement a multicultural awareness week, with each weekday being dedicated to addressing one of the above topics. To help students appreciate cultural culinary differences, a multicultural luncheon, where students research and prepare ethnic recipes, can be planned and served. Additionally, students can present role-play scenarios which they have written to emphasize both acceptable and unacceptable gift-giving situations as well as discrepancies in acceptable punctuality standards.

Nonverbal communication often has greater impact on business negotiations than the spoken word (Huseman, Lahiff, & Penrose, 1985). Therefore, students must be familiar with discrepancies in perceptions of the meanings of nonverbal gestures from culture to culture. Such scenarios would emphasize difficulties that often arise during international business communication.

Nonverbal Communication

Educators must make students aware that nonverbal communication (i.e., hand gestures or body language) may have a negative impact on business negotiations. The classic U.S. "okay" sign, made by forming a circle with the thumb and forefinger, may have a completely different meaning in other cultures. For example, "the same gesture may mean zero, as in France; money, as in Japan; or a vulgarity, as in Brazil"

(Himstreet, Baty, Lehman, 1993, p. 101). In Columbia, the "okay" sign, when placed over the nose, signifies that the person in question is homosexual (Axtell, 1990, p. 45).

In Japan the less eye contact the better. "What a Westerner considers an honest look in the eye, the Oriental takes as a lack of respect and a personal affront" (Axtell, 1990, p. 42). Obviously, such errors could have serious ramifications in the outcome of business negotiations.

Again, this issue could be incorporated as part of a multicultural awareness week. Students would research meanings of nonverbal gestures for both Americans and other cultures and present their findings in a panel-discussion format. Another alternative would be to have individuals of varying nationalities discuss cultural norms for their country of origin. "American business is one of the worst offenders in language proliferation" (Axtell, 1990, p. 151). Axtell (1990, p. 152) notes the seven deadliest sins of international misunderstanding: local color, slang, humor, jargon, officialese, vocabulary, and grammar.

Language Usage

International business negotiations are tenuous at best. Even the slightest misinterpretation can lead to communication breakdown among executives of differing nationalities. Clear understanding of all parties must occur for successful ventures. Specifically, using slang, jargon, or officialese can be disastrous to business negotiations. Particular attention should be given to use of vocabulary and grammar during international business negotiations. U.S. executives should familiarize themselves with "local color" within the foreign markets in which they deal. Also, what is humorous to U.S. executives may be offensive to foreign executives. Therefore, students must understand that they must become familiar with the language, customs, and culture of various countries and know that the

misuse of any of the above items is to be avoided in business communication. Have students "brainstorm" to identify U.S. words and phrases which confound and confuse individuals in other cultures.

Summary

Today's global economy mandates that U.S. businesses have personnel who possess a multicultural perspective and who are able to interact successfully with persons of diverse nationalities. Educators must ensure that students are prepared to accept this challenge.

Specifically, relevant activities focused on developing students' multicultural awareness must be incorporated into the business communication curriculum. Such activities may include planning and implementing a multicultural awareness week; developing a marketing plan for a foreign country; and introducing multicultural scenarios through role-playing activities, showing videos on cultural nuances, conducting library research, and conducting personal interviews with international business persons.

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COMPUTER TEACHING LABS DESIGN AND ADMINISTRATION

John T. Jayne and Gwen Smith[1]

Abstract

In today's society, computer-aided instruction is a fast-growing tool in both the education and business arenas. Few schools are fortunate enough to be on the leading edge of information technology possessing both the expertise and funds to take full advantage of computer benefits in the learning process. Most institutions are still in the early stages of effective computer utilization in the laboratory teaching environment. Since 1984 Louisiana State University in Shreveport (LSU-S) has had computer teaching labs where thousands of students have learned basic skills mostly in the use of spreadsheets. The machines used in the earliest teaching labs were 8088 XT dual floppy disk machines. Recently, a new state-of-the-art teaching lab was installed at LSU-S. During the lab's design and installation, some techniques and insights were developed that may be useful to others.

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Improvements in information technology over the last few years have opened exciting opportunities that had been economically prohibitive. Hardware breakthroughs such as inexpensive, fast memory, high-capacity Direct Access Storage Device (DASD), high definition color displays, input device options and networking make powerful systems widely available. New software and textbook offerings ease the educator's task of computer-based course development. In light of these blessings, business educators need to "re-dream" their wish lists of what computing can do for their students and the faculty.

Laboratory Goals and Objectives

After reviewing current curriculum coverage and needs, the following goals were developed for the computer teaching laboratory:

- A hardware platform to support courses in basic business applications, i.e., spreadsheets, word processing, and data base management systems (DBMS).
- Full support for course specific software instructional packages.
- A networked environment to support use of interactive simulation software through a file server supported data base.
- Expandability to run higher level graphics packages, computer aided design/computer aided manufacturing (CAD/CAM), desk top publishing, animators).

Technology Issues and Concerns

Computing will continue to be in a state of rapid change, mostly for the better. Steady progress in software, hardware, networking, and remote accessing leapfrog each other at a bewildering pace. Unfortunately, these advances carry with them accelerated obsolescence and sometimes

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painful incompatibilities. Even computer science professionals are having great difficulty staying abreast of fundamental, wide-ranging changes.

In the design of a contemporary technological teaching laboratory, an overview of hardware platform trends, software, and networking technology is basic. This review must take into account current and emerging technology in planning for the future.

Hardware

Much of the mystique of earlier computing hardware has been replaced with a highly competitive marketplace of essentially similar machines. For now, the INTEL 80386 chip technology is dominant, but it is being rapidly replaced by the more powerful 80486. An 80386-25hz CPU will support virtually any current software or instructional package and should allow ample expansion capacity for future needs but an 80486DX-25hz would be better. The Apple MacIntosh is also an option, but "The part of the market that Apple has owned is disappearing" (Seymour, 1993). At LSU-S, IBM PC clones were installed because they are most likely to be found in the business workplace.

After fixing on the basic computing platform and architecture, a standard package of "add-on" components is needed. One 5 1/4" and one 3 1/2" floppy drive will allow use of the most popular storage media. Because students will often be carrying disks back and forth to their home computers, having both sizes available will reduce compatibility problems. A hard disk drive is absolutely necessary to support current software. As software functionality increases, secondary disk storage space requirements increase dramatically. For example, WordPerfect for Windows requires about 10 megabytes fully configured. An 80 megabyte hard

disk drive is now the standard offering; 100+ megabytes would be better.

Two megabytes of RAM (random access memory) is a minimum for the CPU; four megs would be better. The latest offerings add memory in 4 megabyte SIMMs (Single In-Line Memory Module), which is the most cost effective approach. Again, newer software functionality requires more RAM to run efficiently. The clear trend is toward the use of the Windows graphic user interface (GUI) that needs ample memory to function well. The GUI requires the use of a mouse, and a bus interface mouse is far superior to the slightly less expensive serial version.

A Virtual Graphics Adapter (VGA) color monitor may seem extravagant in an austere educational budget; however, it will add interest, clarity, and diversity to instruction.

A projection device to enable the instructor to display "live" solutions on a screen for group instruction may be needed. These devices range from about $2,500 for LCD panel displays up to very expensive projection devices. If an LCD panel overhead projector is used, the overhead projector must be very powerful to provide a quality image. For these devices, there is no substitute for an on-site demonstration in the lab itself before purchase.

Software

Thousands of software packages are on the market today, making the task of software selection a difficult one. The following are some considerations for the computer learning laboratory:

Marketability. Experience with applications packages widely used in business provides students with knowledge and skills to help them in the job market. The best packages

technically are often not the market leader. For example, Borland's Quattro spreadsheet may be arguably superior to LOTUS 1-2-3. However, LOTUS 1-2-3 has the largest installed base. "As recently as 1989, Lotus had nearly 70 percent of spreadsheet sales. However, this domination is eroding; in 1990 Lotus slipped to below 60 percent" (Shaffer, 1991). Similar considerations apply in the choice of a word processing and DBMS package.

Support. Software usually carries free call in technical support for the first 30 to 90 days following purchase which can be continued for a modest fee. Large, established offerings usually have better documentation, telephone support, independently developed "how-to" tools, and large user communities. While these are very useful during the start-up phase, an in-house technical expert (ideally a major user of the lab, such as a faculty member) must be trained to respond to the demands of the computer teaching lab as its use expands throughout the curriculum. For every user to contact technical support directly is neither feasible nor desirable. The same problem is often encountered by several users in the same time frame. One fix from the support line may solve the problem for all users.

Hardware platform compatibility. The brief history of computing has shown a repeating pattern of hardware and software advances that "leapfrog" each other. The present hardware technology is well into a 16-and 32-bit abundant memory stage while relatively few software packages can yet take full advantage of these significant advances. As an example, very few older software packages can use memory above the 640k limit except through the use of relatively clumsy memory-manager packages. As 32-bit technology becomes standard the latest, powerful software applications will not work on earlier machines.

Package-to-package compatibility. As students and course developers become more proficient, the need to transport data from one software application to another, (i.e., bringing numerical data from a spreadsheet to a word processing document) will increase. For example, any of the major word processing packages (WordPerfect, Microsoft Word, AmiPro) will effectively import numerical data from a Lotus 1-2-3 worksheet. Lotus' AmiPro can import text from a Lotus' Symphony document file, but the results are at best marginal. A review of software specifications should verify that every package installed in a lab can import and export data to and from every other package. If at all possible, a hands-on trial of this software feature is recommended since specifications are often vague and inexact in this area.

Legality. Ethical considerations make it imperative that the teaching lab environment be completely legal with resident software. The general rule here is "one software package serving one user on one machine at one time." Many major software producers (WordPerfect, Lotus, Microsoft) have reduced price licensing arrangements for educational laboratories. Controls to prevent illegal copying must be regularly and rigidly enforced. These controls can range from random physical checks to sophisticated passwording and encryption schemes. While software and hardware controls are helpful, they must be accompanied by an occasional physical review of resident software versus licenses combined with periodic file purging and cleanups.

Virus and sabotage protection. Recently the computer industry has seen a rapid growth in fiendishly clever software programs that infect PC hard disks. These programs range from whimsical practical jokes to disasters that will totally destroy all stored data and render the computer temporarily unusable. In the LSU-S lab, a problem arose when one of the students infected his employer's files. Fifth Generation Systems, Inc., estimates that "Well over 600 known viruses

exist, . . . and six new viruses may emerge in any given day . . . . If this trend continues we could have . . . 38,700 viruses . . . by 1994" (1990). Some low-level protection is possible by making key files "read-only." A number of commercial packages (Central Point Virus Checker, Norton Anti-Virus, Fifth Generation's Untouchable) are available that will run automatic checks whenever the machine is powered up or a file is used. The best of these packages also audit all vulnerable files in addition to providing periodic updates for new or suspected bugs.

Security and access. As the teaching lab usage grows into more sophisticated instructional, case work, and testing tasks, controlling and measuring access may become a necessity. Modern networking and file control software include features that can limit individual usage to specific files, times, or workstations. These features can also provide an audit trail by machine, software, and user.

Networking and Connectivity

Many early computer teaching labs used a single computer that serviced a number of connected "dumb" terminals. All file processing and major secondary storage took place at the computer level. Later installations were made up of stand-alone, unconnected personal computers. Transfer of data from one workstation to another was largely accomplished through physical transfer of media.

Today's networking technology (Artisoft's Lantastic, Novell Netware, Microsoft Windows NT) lets the computer teaching lab use stand-alone PCs that are also networked through a powerful file server. This arrangement allows the majority of student work to be done at the workstation level while still permitting easy use of the file server's greater capacities when, for example, the student at the workstation needs to access a massive data base on the CD-ROM device at

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the server. Peer-to-peer networking arrangements open up exciting instructional enhancements like multi-party case work projects and individual terminal level student-to-instructor interaction.

Another cost justification for installing a laboratory network is that every workstation can access expensive or seldom-used resources such as color printers, CD-ROM libraries, and plotters.

Staffing Issues

State-of-the-art technology will be only as productive as the people who use it. Without limiting individual creativity, the lab must be controlled, maintained, and improved by faculty, students, and technical specialists. To realize its exciting potentials, the laboratory must be useful to every discipline--not just the computer scientists.

One individual must be identified as the laboratory systems manager. Often this person is the faculty member who is a major lab user. This person must have final authority for hardware and software changes, access, password maintenance, quality, and user support. In the early stages of installation and use, this task is very time consuming. "They (school systems) simply don't understand the level of human resources required to make the process work" (Schrage, 1993). For the 27-station lab at LSU-S, 900 + hours were spent du ing the first year in managing and installing the teaching lab.

The computer knowledge of most faculties today range from the computer illiterate to the high-powered user. For the lab systems manager, the challenge is to persuade and lead the illiterates toward using the lab while restraining the "techies" from burdening the facility with technically elegant but practically useless creations. The lab can support and tolerate

only clearly defined hardware, software, operating systems, and networking protocols.

People effectively using the teaching laboratory will inevitably generate a continuing level of change. Curriculum changes incorporating computer-based instruction will require software and hardware changes that will ultimately result in replacement with newer and more powerful tools. The laboratory systems manager will require both the time and funding to stay abreast of both in-house needs and technology changes.

The Challenge and Opportunity

Educators stand at the edge of a sea of change in the instructional process. As William F. Zachman recently said: "This far reaching change in our educational process could be the most important impact of information technology on human life in nearly three thousand years . . . will require the best and most capable minds in the educational community . . . (and) the most talented minds of the entertainment world as well" (1991). The computer teaching laboratory is a fundamental building block in this exciting challenge.

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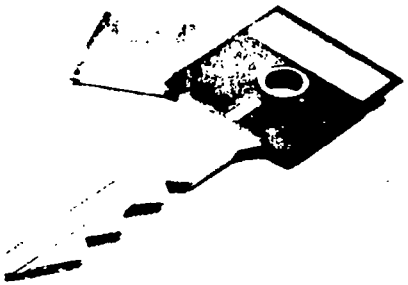

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PREPARING GRADUATES FOR THE TRANSITION TO WORK: A TAXONOMY OF CRITICAL SKILLS

Elwood F. Holton, III[1]

ABSTRACT

Despite increasing recognition that the first year on the job is a critical period for new employees, research indicates that few new graduates are properly prepared for the transition. One reason is the lack of a comprehensive model to guide educators in designing and implementing programs to prepare graduates. This article presents a taxonomy of critical skills that provides educators and new employees a practical framework to both understand and plan for a successful transition to work. Implications of the taxonomy for educators are discussed.

The first year on the job is a critical period for new employees and their organizations. Yet, research and field reports indicate that few high school or college graduates are prepared for the realities of work and even fewer have the skills to make a successful transition (Holton, 1991a; Nicholson & Arnold, 1991). At best, graduates' first year on the job is an enormous transition with many surprises. At worst, it can be a horribly disappointing, stressful and disenchanting time. In

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addition, most managers of new employees are frustrated with what they see as immature and naive graduates who are ill-prepared to deal with the realities of professional life.

For the new employee, the first year and even the first few months set the tone for the early years of a career. A poor start can have long lasting negative consequences on a variety of important organizational outcomes. Turnover studies have reported unusually high turnover for new employees, usually around 50% (Leibowitz, Schlossberg & Shore, 1991). Job satisfaction studies have shown lower satisfaction among new employees (Morrow & McElroy, 1987) and a link between organizational commitment and work experiences during the first year on the job (Pierce & Dunham, 1987; Steers, 1977). It is not surprising then that at Texas Instruments, a new orientation program cut turnover by 40% while at Corning Glass their turnover was reduced 68% with calculated net savings of $1.2 million annually from reduced turnover and faster learning among new employees (McGarrrell, 1983).

It is clear that the stakes can be high if a graduate's transition to work is not successful. Business educators must take primary responsibility for equipping graduates with not only the knowledge, skills and abilities to perform the tasks of their jobs, but the skills and abilities to make the transition from school to work and from the role of a student to a professional. Employers are pushing educators to put more focus on "workplace basics" (Carnevale, Gainer & Meltzer, 1990), requiring them to place the same priority on the transition out of college that many now do on the transition into college.

Despite this evidence, most organizations offer little more than brief orientations to help new employees (Holton, 1991b; Louis, Posner & Powell, 1983) and few universities offer programs to help graduates. One reason for the lack of programs might be the lack of a comprehensive model that is both theoretically sound and practical enough to guide

implementation. Related research has included models of the stages newcomers go through (Wanous, 1980); realistic job previews (Premack & Wanous, 1985); individual psychological process models (Louis, 1985); personal characteristics (Jones, 1983); and tactics individuals use to cope with transitions (Feldman & Brett, 1983; Fisher, 1985). More recently, researchers have attempted to blend the two lines of research into interactionist models (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). While this research has been useful and progress has been made, a close look at this research shows that an in-depth and comprehensive working model of the essential developmental tasks required for successful new employee adaptation does not exist, leaving educators ill-equipped to predict transition problems or design training programs and curricula to properly prepare graduates.

The purpose of this paper is to present a taxonomy of critical skills that provides business educators and new employees a framework to both understand and plan for a successful adaptation to work. This taxonomy is an approach that business educators and organizations can use to empower new employees to take control of the transition to work process; avoid critical mistakes; build a better foundation for their careers; and help career counselors fill an important gap in career education. It has been developed from six years of research and field experience by the author including interviews with hundreds of new employees, managers and executives; close examination of new employee development systems at a wide variety of companies; and a large empirical study of new graduates' transition to work.

A Taxonomy of Adaptation-to-Work Skills

Successful adaptation-to-work consists of four groups of tasks: *Individual, People, Organization* and *Performance* as shown graphically in the four quadrants of the wheel in Figure 1. Each group in turn is further divided into three tasks,

leading to the complete taxonomy of twelve adaptation tasks, detailed in Exhibits 1 - 4 that follow. Central to this taxonomy is the premise that there must be a building toward task performance. This taxonomy assumes that outstanding performance for a new employee will result if, and only if, all adaptation tasks are successfully completed in the basic sequence described. Each task is a building block, moving the new employee closer to adaptation and outstanding performance.

Individual

A successful adaptation process begins with the *Individual* tasks (see Exhibit 1). First, graduates' attitudes must be appropriate for both the job and organization they are entering. For new college graduates, this is quite complicated since it means acquiring basic professional attitudes. For more experienced employees, attitudes toward the transition and new learning are more relevant. All new employees bring with them attitudes that have been shaped by previous cultures and are likely to need adjustment.

If an individual's attitudes are appropriate, they will be better prepared to learn appropriate expectations about their new career, jobs and organizations. One of the most common causes of adaptation problems is a mismatch between an individual's expectations and those of the organization (Richards, 1984; Holton, 1991b; Nicholson & Arnold, 1991).

With appropriate expectations also comes the awareness of the importance of the breaking-in period and the special skills needed to successfully enter a company and become accepted and respected as a member of the team (Baum, 1990). The breaking-in period is a forgotten career stage with special dynamics and strategies that newcomers need to learn.

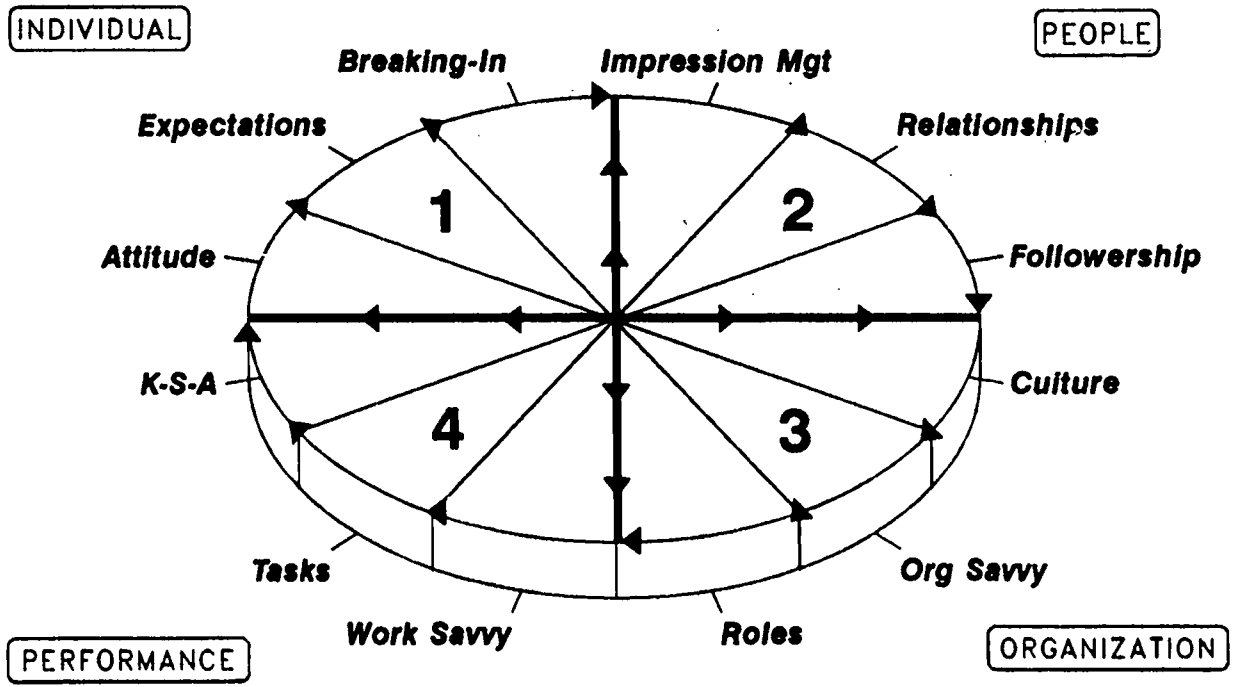
INDIVIDUAL
PEOPLE
Breaking-In
Impression Mgt
Expectations
Relationships
1
2
Attitude
Followership
K-S-A
Culture
4
3
Tasks
Org Savvy
Work Savvy
Roles
PERFORMANCE
ORGANIZATION

Figure 1

Exhibit 1 - *Individual* tasks

1.1 Attitude	newcomers' attitude toward their professional careers, jobs and organizations and the degree to which it matches the attitudes desired by the organization.
1.2 Expectations	newcomers' expectations about all aspects of the job, the organization and themselves in the job. Together with the organization's expectations, these expectations result in a psychological contract between the individual and the organization.
1.3 Breaking-in	newcomers' awareness of the dynamics and importance of the adaptation-to-work process and their mastery of the special skills and strategies required during organizational entry.

People

The previous three tasks lay the foundation for the individual to make a strong impression upon entering the organization, the first task in the *People* quadrant which consists of the three tasks shown in Exhibit 2. The research suggests that the initial impressions a person make are instrumental in beginning the success cycle (Wanous & Rosenfield, 1989). Newcomers must take active steps to manage the perceptions others form of them through things such as their dress, behavior, conversations and activities. If good impressions are made, the newcomer will have opportunities to build effective working relationships with co-workers, subordinates and bosses. These relationships are critical to successful organizational learning and for getting things done since most organizational tasks require some

element of teamwork. One of the most important of the relationships is with the newcomer's boss. This requires acquiring strong followership skills. For early careerists, these are critical new skills they may never have learned. For more experienced employees, there is still a critical period of establishing and nurturing an effective working relationship with the boss.

Exhibit 2 - *People* tasks

2.1 Impression Management	newcomers' awareness of the role impressions play in establishing the organization's initial evaluation; understanding of the impression management process; ability to learn what impressions will be viewed most favorably in the organization; and mastery of the skills and strategies necessary to manage the impressions created.
2.2 Relationships	newcomers' understanding of the role relationships play in organizational success and the kinds of relationships that should be built; the skills necessary to build and maintain effective professional relationships and networks; and effective teamwork and political strategies.
2.3 Followership	newcomers' awareness of the importance of the boss/subordinate relationship and their respective roles; the skills needed to be a savvy subordinate and to manage one's boss effectively; and effective strategies for building a strong working relationship with a boss.

Organization

It is only through the establishing of strong, effective relationships with people in the organization that a newcomer can learn the complexities of the organization itself (Feldman, 1989), represented by the *Organization* quadrant and consisting of the three tasks shown in Exhibit 3. Much of the critical information about an organization is not written down and is often not even formalized. Perhaps most critical is learning the organizational culture itself. Organizations want employees who "fit" their culture (Schein, 1985) and are quick to look for confirmation that a new employee will "fit in." A quick understanding of the norms, values and work styles of the organization speeds adaptation and access to good assignments.

Once newcomers understand the culture well, they can then acquire the organizational savvy needed to work within the informal organization and the organizational politics. Most organizations have many informal systems and methods that comprise the way things "really get done around here." Becoming effective means developing the savvy to know how to work through an organization and its people to get results.

After acquiring organizational savvy and understanding the culture, newcomers will come to a more complete understanding of their role in the organization. A significant challenge for many newcomers is finding a role for themselves, understanding the organization's role expectations for newcomers and becoming comfortable in that role, especially since the newcomer's role is often less glamorous than expected (Feldman, 1989).

Exhibit 3 - *Organization* tasks

3.1 Organizational Culture	newcomers' understanding of the elements of organizational culture and how it affects performance; awareness of the importance of fitting-in to the organization's culture; and developing the skills needed to learn the key elements of the culture that are not explicitly taught.
3.2 Organizational Savvy	newcomers' awareness of the informal organization and success factors in the organization; understanding of appropriate means for getting results through the informal organization; and developing the skills to learn the informal organization and effectively use it to achieve desired results.
3.3 Organizational Roles	newcomers' ability to locate themselves in the larger perspective of the organization's mission; understand their role and identity in the organization; learn what appropriate expectations and activities are for their role; and accepting the limits and realities of that role.

Performance

Only when the previous nine tasks have been successfully completed is the newcomer really ready to become an outstanding performer and fully master the three tasks of the *Performance* quadrant (see Exhibit 4). Performance is far more than task-related competence and is an outcome of successful adaptation, not the starting point. With a strong foundation from successfully completing the other tasks,

newcomers can then develop a strong sense of how to accomplish the work, called work savvy. This includes understanding how to apply their knowledge and skills to the job, how to set priorities, understanding the realities of the job, etc. With work savvy they will be able to clearly understand the tasks they are required to perform and see the entirety of the knowledge, skills and abilities required to perform them.

Exhibit 4 - *Performance* tasks

4.1 Work Savvy	newcomers' understanding of the realities of organizational life in their specific jobs; how to apply previously learned skills to the job; and the acquisition of foundation skills (e.g. communication, time management, etc.) necessary to function in the job.
4.2 Tasks	newcomers' understanding of the basic tasks they are required to perform in the job; how to apply their knowledge and experience to the tasks; and an ability to prove their competence and ability to perform the tasks successfully.
4.3 Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities	newcomers' ability to identify the knowledge, skills and abilities they need to perform the tasks successfully and the learning skills necessary to acquire the knowledge, skills and abilities.

While the process of moving through the tasks is more complex than can be fully explicated in this article, this taxonomy captures the twelve essential tasks required for adaptation to a new organization. Newcomers are initiated into all the tasks at once but should use this taxonomy to set priorities for moving beyond initiation to full adaptation.

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The Fundamental Problems

This taxonomy highlights two of the most fundamental problems in the adaptation process. First, there is an enormous discrepancy between where most new employees and the institutions and organizations that prepare them place their emphasis and the tasks important for successful adaptation in an organization. New employees typically place most of their emphasis on proving their task-related competence when joining an organization. This should come as no surprise since most educational programs and universities do just the same thing and this is the area about which most new employees are most insecure. Organizations are little better, placing most of their emphasis on developing the task related skills while much less effort, at least formally, is made to address the non-task related elements (the first nine tasks in quadrants 1 - 3).

Field interviews with managers indicate that outstanding performance on the basic tasks of the job will usually only earn an employee an average performance rating (Holton, 1991a). It is the non-task related competencies that differentiate an outstanding new employee from an average one since most organizations know how to hire people with good task skills. Furthermore, in modern organizations it is highly unlikely that a person can perform in an outstanding manner on even the basic tasks of the job with <u>only</u> strong task-related knowledge and skills. Thus, the overwhelming emphasis in new employee development is on the wrong thing--the task. A balanced approach which includes skills for all twelve adaptation tasks is the correct approach.

The second fundamental problem is the dramatic shift in culture new graduates face when they move from education to the professional world. The world of work is so fundamentally different from the world of education that it requires an almost total transformation on the part of the new graduate. Most of graduates' lives have been shaped by the

expectations, methods and culture of education. Many of the behaviors that managers label as "immature", "naive" or not "fitting-in" are simply behaviors that education has not only tolerated, but rewarded and encouraged.

For example, new graduates often complain because they don't get clear enough directions and expectations from managers because they are so accustomed to the highly structured environment of education. Or, they are frustrated from what they see as a lack of feedback because they are used to the quick, concrete feedback grades provide. They may be uncomfortable with the fast pace of change in organizations because the classroom environment does not change (try changing a course plan in the middle of a course and watch the uproar). Students who for years have been encouraged to be independent, creative thinkers chafe at the conformity required to earn acceptance in an organization and don't understand why their new ideas aren't rewarded like they were in class. The list goes on but the point is that graduates transfer student behaviors and expectations to work simply because the education culture is so different and they are not being taught any differently, not because they are "naive" or unwilling to adapt.

Shouldn't educators take responsibility for teaching graduates the new "rules of the game" before they have to go play by them? Business educators must constantly remind themselves and teach graduates that the knowledge acquired from education will be critical to their success but the process of succeeding in school is often very different than the process of succeeding at work. Worse yet, the culture of education is so different that if they continue to have the same expectations of their employers that they did of their teachers and professors they'll be greatly disappointed with their job and unknowingly make costly career mistakes.

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Preparing New Employees

Business educators must reconceptualize their role as not only providing the skills to get a job, but also the professional skills to be successful in it, and hold themselves accountable not only for graduating students, but seeing that they succeed in making the transition to work.

Graduates must have an awareness and understanding of each step in the adaptation process. While some suggest this is beyond the capability of educational organizations, at least a portion of these skills can be addressed by educators. First, they can deal with almost the entirety of the *individual* quadrant (attitude, expectations and breaking-in tasks). It is not too much to think that educators can prepare graduates with the right kind of professional attitude and expectations as well as teaching them the necessary breaking-in skills. Second, they can teach at least a basic awareness of the tasks of the *people, organization* and *performance* quadrants which will help the new employee avoid the difficult reality shock when they enter the organization. Third, they can create an awareness of the scope of the learning required in these three quadrants for successful adaptation so graduates can develop an adaptation plan. Finally, educators can help graduates build organizational learning, self-directed learning and experiential learning skills which will enable them to deal with the radically different learning processes found in organizations. Awareness and learning skills together provide both the motivation and the ability to progress through the process.

Unfortunately, most educational programs provide little of either, making progression problematic. It appears that successful new employees have acquired the awareness and learning skills from other places, usually from role models, mentors or prior work experience. Business educators can change that by bringing an organizational culture into the

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classroom as much as possible. Consider some of the following steps:

- expect professional attitudes and behaviors from students at all times
- introduce more uncertainty to "wean" students from the comfort of educational structure
- create simulations and role plays that mimic interactions between people in organizations
- require a high level of teamwork and interpersonal interaction to build interpersonal skills
- teach students to expect and manage change
- expect students' quality of work to be as high as a job would require
- create many opportunities for students to interact with practitioners in the field
- create appropriate expectations about the workplace
- design senior seminars to assist students with the transition
- involve previous graduates to prepare students for the realities of the transition
- teach students how to learn about organizational culture and politics
- constantly remind students of differences between education and field practice
- spend time in the field yourself so you can inject realism into the classroom
- teach students the linkage between non-task skills and professional success

Many students (and perhaps educators too) may initially be uncomfortable and unhappy with injecting organizational culture into the classroom because it forces them out of their comfort zone. They need to realize they will face the discomfort sooner or later and it is better to encounter it in the classroom when the consequences are less severe than later when their job or career may be on the line.

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Conclusion

Although field tests and applications of this approach in workshops and counseling programs with new employees and managers have shown excellent results, it should be considered a conceptual model subject to further refinement and testing. The data and literature is quite strong in suggesting the validity of these twelve steps but more work is needed to confirm them. A close examination of this taxonomy and the adaptation issue suggests that this is a forgotten career stage with enormous implications and costs for many different populations. All educators and educational organizations should devote resources to teaching these critical transition-to-work skills. If not, graduates will be entering the work world with only some of the tools they need to be successful.

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BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOL LIBRARY: LABORATORY FOR THE INFORMATION AGE

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Abstract

The information age requires individuals in the workforce to access and synthesize information. Just as science students need a science lab to develop the skills necessary to become scientists, business students need to learn information literacy skills in a laboratory--the school library. This article discusses both the rationale and mechanisms for including an information literacy component in business courses. Objectives addressed are: the school library as a laboratory; effective planning of information literacy assignments; presentation of successful assignments; and recommendations for implementation.

Five recommendations are given to provide guidance in developing information literacy assignments utilizing the school library.

Knowledge is of two kinds. We know a subject ourselves, or we know where we can find information upon it. (Boswell, 1930)

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We live in an "information age," a "post-industrial economy." Many would assert that the nation's most significant commodity is information, and that the most highly valued quality in the workforce is an ability to find, manipulate, and evaluate information. Educators know that information literacy is an important factor in the formula for individual success in the business world. Just as science students need a laboratory to practice the skills they will need as scientists, business students need a laboratory to practice the information retrieval and interpretation skills that will allow them to succeed. The high school or college library becomes that laboratory.

"Organizations are becoming flexible networks that use information to integrate operations, expedite strategic changes, and improve customer service. Information thus is becoming a basic raw material of economic processes. The shift to information networks is seen in the restructuring of businesses both large and small" (Monthly Labor Review). Educators occasionally remind themselves that most of today's graduates will be in the workforce 10, 20, 30, even 40 years from now. It is difficult to imagine what issues, problems, and work environments they will encounter. In order for students to excel as a part of this new workforce, they need the ability to access, evaluate, and synthesize information. Faculty empower students to do this by providing experiences that allow them to analyze problems, locate information relevant to solving those problems, and communicate their solutions to others. Therefore, an ability to access and use the data and knowledge of the business community is perhaps the most important skill students will need in their quest to remain abreast and in control of developments in their workplaces. The local high school or college library is the best place to practice using the information tools of today's and tomorrow's business world.

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Information Literacy Component in Curriculum

Virtually any business course, whether taught in high school or college, can and should contain an information literacy component. Few business faculty are unconvinced of the value of information literacy, but many are unsure of the most appropriate models for teaching this type of skill, and are perhaps unused to thinking of the school library as a laboratory for their courses or the librarian as a resource in developing lectures, assignments, or projects.

It is not uncommon for an instructor to assign a research project with little or no guidance on how to do the research. Some assume that students should already know how to use the library ("They had a tour as college freshman, didn't they?"), or that the necessary skills are just "picked up as they go along." Occasionally students do acquire those skills as they "go along"; other students never become proficient at information-retrieval skills.

The goal of business educators is to help students become independent, thoughtful analysts of problems who (1) are able to define the question at hand, (2) develop a strategy for identifying the sources of information which are likely to answer the question, and (3) are familiar enough with the structure and provenance of those information sources to be able to compare, evaluate, and prioritize the potential answers found. But students do not turn into paragons of information literacy overnight. Business students need research assignments structured to utilize specific learning objectives based on their level of ability. During the course of students' academic careers, they should encounter assignments that are meaningful to them and that move them progressively toward higher levels of comprehension, independent analysis, and evaluation.

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It may be useful when developing these assignments to consider Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The objectives are stated in hierarchal form from simplest to most complex and consist of: (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4) analysis, (5) synthesis, and (6) evaluation.

While pedagogues are often encouraged to aim, in their curriculum and plans, for the "higher levels" of Bloom's taxonomy, it is important that the assignment be appropriate for the student's ability. Instructors of college freshman and sophomore level business courses may find assignments based on the lower levels of the taxonomy most germane. The same would be true for junior and senior year high school educators. By the junior and senior year of college, courses where the students have previous background should contain assignments designed to reach the upper levels of the taxonomy. Community college instructors may accelerate the process by attempting to reach the upper levels in the second year, especially in situations where the students are in the second year of a course sequence. In this way, students are allowed to master foundation skills in their first courses that will help them succeed with the more demanding tasks presented in later courses.

When instructors consider including an information literacy component, they are inclined to assign a research paper. This is not the only alternative and may, in fact, be less meaningful to the student than other options. Creative pedagogues can design assignments that will not only assist students in attaining information literacy but will provide students with experiences relevant to their field.

Sample Assignments

The following are examples of assignments/projects which were designed as formal segments of course syllabi whose objectives include teaching students to use the research

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and information tools of their profession. Most were initiated by faculty in the business department at a four-year college and were implemented by cooperative efforts between business faculty and college librarians. Suggested assignments for introductory courses will be equally applicable for high school or community college students. Instructors, however, should adjust their expectations to match the ability of their students.

An initial assignment in Principles of Management or Accounting I, college freshman or sophomore courses, involves asking each student to choose a publicly-traded corporation for whom they would like to work. This assignment would be given during the first week of both courses when students are studying a chapter on management and managers, or the introductory chapter in accounting. These chapters provide the necessary business background for the assignment. This assignment would work well for high school students if the instructor provides background about the corporate form of business and if students are knowledgeable about financial statements.

During the second class meeting and prior to the assignment, the class receives twenty minutes of instruction from the school librarian on the research tools to be used. Students are given a list of potentially useful sources. Each source is discussed, sample pages are viewed, and students are encouraged to take notes. Sources introduced might include Hoover's Handbook, Million Dollar Directory, America's Corporate Families, Compact Disclosure, International Directory of Company Histories, and Moody's Handbook. Students are asked to analyze the question to be answered when attempting to select the source(s) most likely to contain the appropriate answer. Issues involving categorization become apparent. For instance, they must understand the distinction between private and public companies, and the difference between parent and subsidiary companies.

On the day the assignment is given, students are told "You have been offered a job interview with your company. In preparation for the interview, you need to locate information relating to: identifying key management personnel, their backgrounds, and compensation; specific financial data such as total assets, total revenue, and net income for two years; how to contact the corporation; a brief history of the company; and major products and industries the company is involved in. Using the annual report, the 10K report, standard directories and investment services, locate this information and prepare a one- to two-page paper within one week." Follow-up on this assignment involves students sharing with each other what they found out about their respective companies. For many of them, this is the first time they are exposed to this type of information.

High school instructors should consider lengthening the time the students have to prepare the paper and expanding its scope. Students could prepare the paper in stages, researching key personnel first, then financial information, etc. Papers may include pictorial essays and graphs of financial data showing trends. During follow-up sessions, students could do oral presentations to the class on their findings. Instructors may have to discuss with their class how to do an oral presentation before requiring one.

This initial assignment for Principles of Management is followed up a few weeks later with another assignment which requires a different set of research tools. Students are told that they are managers newly assigned to a specific country. Prior to accepting the position, they should decide whether or not they are compatible with the culture of this country. In preparation for the assignment, the class studies two chapters on organizational culture and international management. Students are told that they first must decide what the relevant questions are and proceed to locate the answers to those questions. Finally they must make a decision, based on their

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findings, as to whether or not they should accept the position. The instructor supplies examples of the types of questions to ask: "If I'm a woman, will I be accepted in a management position?"; "Will I be able to practice my religion?"; and "How will I be expected to dress?"

High school instructors may want to provide substantially more guidance to the students in developing relevant questions. This type of assignment would also provide the business educator the opportunity to team teach with the social studies educator in preparing the students and performing the follow-up discussion. As before, consider lengthening the time before the assignment is due.

The process of determining the relevant questions is as important in this assignment as the research portion. If students will eventually be expected to perform analysis and evaluation, they must first understand the process involved in formulating the right questions. This project also forces the student to consider cultural differences between countries and to locate information about those differences; in a global village, these are necessary skills.

Students do not receive additional library instruction prior to this assignment; however, the librarian is alerted to the content of the assignment so that preparation can be made. In class, students are told to ask the reference librarian if they have research questions.

These initial assignments are designed to be more fact-hunting problems than exercises in synthesis or evaluation. However, an observer of students working on the assignments would note some significant abstract and analytical thinking occurring as students grapple with terminology and concepts they have not encountered before. Additionally, these are assignments which students can succeed with relatively little prior knowledge. Success builds self-confidence and helps to

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alleviate fears they may have relating to their inexperience in using the school library.

Assignments in advanced marketing classes (college juniors and seniors) should focus on the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy--analysis, synthesis and evaluation. A typical project for marketing research students requires them to design a product and develop a written marketing plan for that product. Students are required to submit their marketing plan and to orally present their ideas and plans to the class. Decisions regarding feasibility, the market for the product, and the most successful way to reach that market are required for successful completion of the project. This requires the students to use government documents to assess demographic trends, industry analyses, sources of corporate information to assess the competition, and media and advertising directories.

Prior to receiving this assignment, students are instructed by the college librarian on how to utilize government documents and other research sources the students may not have encountered before. Emphasis is on matching information needs with types of information sources (both print and electronic), on the availability (and unavailability) of certain types of information, and on careful comparison and interpretation of data. By taking a class period to instruct students in research techniques, the instructor ensures that students learn the proper techniques--skills that will help them succeed both in the class assignment and in the business world.

Recommendations

While the list of possible examples is endless, it may be more beneficial to provide some guidelines for developing projects and assignments.

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- Present assignments in real-life, real-business-world terms. For example, do not assign "a paper on an issue in business policy (sexual harassment, family leave, etc)." Rather, assign a situation: "Your committee has been charged with developing a company policy on sexual harassment." Satisfactory completion of the latter assignment will entail all the research that would be required in the traditional term paper. However, students invariably attack a "real-world" problem such as the latter with more enthusiasm than an assignment couched in purely academic terms.

- Enlist the help of a school librarian. Librarians can offer considerable assistance in designing an assignment, in preparing the class to begin the assignment, and in assisting individual students or teams in their actual "lab work."

- Do not revert to scavenger hunts. Well-intentioned faculty who want to familiarize their students with business information sources sometimes spend considerable time and energy assembling long lists of free-floating questions. Unarmed with any classroom preparation for finding the answers, students usually do not learn much from these assignments. In addition, they often find them very frustrating, and their initial fears concerning the complexity and difficulty of using a school library are simply reinforced.

- Consider the cooperative learning techniques and models which are currently in vogue in education. They are popular for some valid reasons--reasons which are frequently grounded in "real-life" models of work environments in the business community. Instead of assigning individual research projects, consider team assignments. Expect the teams to produce a single final product and evaluate the entire team on the strengths or weaknesses of the single group submission.

- Be sure that students understand the objective of the library-related assignment or project. Students will apply more effort to a project if they believe that it will help them with their ultimate goal--obtaining employment.

The school library is the business students' lab for the information age. By utilizing well planned research assignments with clear objectives geared towards the appropriate level of student ability, instructors can assist their students in achieving a high level of success and move them towards the instructors' ultimate goal--empowering students to think and evaluate information, and equipping them with the tools to reeducate themselves.

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BUSINESS EDUCATION CURRICULUM GUIDES FOR THE 1990'S

Betty A. Kleen[1]

Abstract

Curriculum guide developers in the 1990's face challenges such as limited funds and restricted time lines. A single comprehensive guide can provide a foundation for the entire business education curriculum. This article reviews the contents of one state's newest comprehensive guide and details a time frame of approximately ten months from initial contract with a project director to final distribution of the completed guide.

Today's business educators face more challenges than ever before. While curriculum guides can make teaching somewhat easier, states today are often faced with growing educational funding problems which may push curriculum guides to the bottom of the funding list. Additionally, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990 provide less curriculum development monies and more changes in curriculum development time lines. Given these challenges, it is more important than ever to provide high school teachers with a single comprehensive

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foundation guide which can provide basic course direction, answer frequently asked questions, and suggest sources of additional information. Like many other states, Louisiana has found itself with shrinking monies available for curriculum development. Compounding this challenge, recent 1992 Board of Elementary and Secondary Education actions approved changes in the Louisiana secondary business education curriculum. In some instances course names have been updated; in a few instances the units of credit have been changed or options provided. Certain cluster names have been changed, as have the requirements within a cluster.

Monies simply do not exist to provide updates of each existing guide; moreover, not all 19 courses of the approved business education curriculum offerings have individual competency-based guides available. A single comprehensive updated guide was needed; such a guide could provide a foundation for the entire business education curriculum.

An earlier Louisiana curriculum research project, A Study of Secondary Business Education Curricula and Structure with Implications and Recommendations for the Future, served as a stimulus for requesting changes in the previous business education curriculum. This study provided a beginning point for the new curriculum guide.

Curriculum Guide Contents

As planned by Louisiana State Department of Education personnel and the project director, guide contents provide a comprehensive source for business educators. As completed, the guide contains the following items:

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1. Introduction to the guide
2. Secondary business education curriculum as approved by the Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education
3. Curriculum listings for six approved occupational clusters
4. Recommended programs of study in grades 9-12 for each occupational cluster
5. Quick reference of course offerings in business education including prerequisites, recommended grade levels, units of credit, course descriptions, and detailed competency guide number if available
6. Specific information for each of the approved course offerings including a repeat of quick reference information, content outlines and recommended time coverage, student competencies, content areas in which basic academic skills can be reinforced, suggested areas of teacher emphasis for global/international concepts, and related Future Business Leaders of America competitive events
7. Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA) information
8. Articulation information for post-secondary business studies

Procedures and Time Schedules

Rapid changes in technology, job requirements, and areas of educational focus necessitate curriculum support materials being made available in a timely manner. Teachers cannot wait two years for curriculum guides. The Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education approved business education curriculum changes in February 1992. Individual copies of the comprehensive guide described in this article were available to teachers before the end of 1992.

In the spring of 1992, selected secondary business educators from across the state were invited to participate in the preparation of the updated guide, funded through a grant from the Louisiana State Department of Education. The team also included the State's Business Education Program Manager

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and the Bureau Administrator for Secondary Vocational Programs. The project director had previously directed several competency-based guides for individual business courses. The Director of the Louisiana Technical Resource Center provided coordination services for the grant and provided copies of various support materials.

The team met in May and addressed overall contents, format, and necessary updates and additions. Each teacher, recommended by State Department of Education personnel, then concentrated on the needed materials for a specific course he or she was routinely assigned to teach. Existing curriculum guides, textbooks, other business teachers, and articles from the literature were all consulted as content outlines and competencies were updated, time allotments were identified, and ideas for incorporating academics and international concepts were prepared.

The team met again in late June to review materials developed and to do some group adding, deleting, and general editing. Preparation of additional sections of the guide and final editing were completed by the project director in early July. The new guide was presented to the Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education for review in August with approval in September. Following Board approval, printing and distribution were handled by the Louisiana Technical Resource Center. Guides were distributed in December.

Individual Course Focus

Each course in the approved business education curriculum is addressed individually in the guide. Outlines of content and related time allotments, overall student competencies, ways of integrating academics and global/international concepts, and related FBLA competitions are presented.

Content and Competencies

Knowledge and skill-level requirements for many business positions have changed dramatically and continue to evolve. Key planning issues for any course include student competencies, course content, and appropriate time allotments. The new guide provides direction for these three key planning elements. Where possible, teachers are directed to existing individual course competency-based guides to review more detailed learning objectives and related learning activities.

Integration of Academics

Addressing outlines and competencies alone is insufficient. Integration of academics and vocational courses continues to remain a major concern of educators and the business community, and business teachers need assistance in effectively integrating academics and vocational subjects as they enhance the students' understanding of how various courses fit together. One guide cannot identify all ways and content areas in which to integrate academics and vocational studies for 19 courses. Instead, a partial list of suggestions is included for each specific course. Such a list can effectively direct teachers if it provides examples of emphasis on mathematics, following directions, spelling, proofreading and editing, punctuation, grammar, oral communication, reading comprehension, and writing skills.

For example, a partial list of ways to integrate academics into accounting would direct teachers to emphasize such basic academic skills as mathematical skills, no matter whether students are completing calculations manually or with calculators; new vocabulary; following oral or written directions; and practicing oral and written communication skills.

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Integration of Global/International Concepts

Today's students must be prepared for employment in a global economy and gain an appreciation of other cultures. Whether a teacher is preparing to teach business English, business law, or ANY other business course, related global issues can be addressed. Rather than consulting a comprehensive set of activities to provide incorporation of global issues in a separate section of the guide, teachers can consult a brief list within the specific section of the guide that focuses on the course they are referencing.

For example, a partial listing of international concepts to be incorporated into the business law classroom could include comparison of major differences in the legal structure of other countries and comparison of rights of individuals in other countries. A partial listing for business English teachers could include comparison of address differences in letter styles and letter phrasing in other countries, identification of different forms of non-verbal communication and degree of formality used in business transactions, and instructions on how to place international calls.

Future Business Leaders of America

Many schools across the country have active Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA) chapters, and they are viewed as an integral part of the business education curriculum. Therefore, an FBLA section is included in the guide, and provides answers to basic questions posed by new teachers and/or new advisers. In addition to identifying FBLA's goals and reasons for a school to have a chapter, information is provided relating to FBLA publications, available help from state and national headquarters, state and national conference dates, listings of various competitive events and their levels (district, state, and national), and steps required in starting or reactivating a chapter.

Articulation

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990 introduced Tech-Prep Education (Title III-Part E). As a result, articulation information has become increasingly significant for vocational students. If Tech-Prep is to be successful, business teachers must not rely on counselors alone to provide information to students interested in pursuing their business education at technical institutes, two-year colleges, or universities.

An important question interested students often pose is, "What courses will I take at the technical institute (or college or university), and what will I learn?" In a state such as Louisiana, where state-adopted outlines are used, course content and core competencies apply at all technical institutes throughout the state. Summaries of this content and the related competencies have been included in the guide for teacher reference.

To further assist teachers, the guide provides an alphabetical listing of technical institutes, with phone and mail contact information. Additionally, all business-related, two-year degrees offered by state colleges or universities are listed, grouped by college. Again, phone and mail contact information is provided.

Tech-prep consortiums will help streamline a vocational student's pursuit of a post-secondary education. Although different definitions and strategies of tech-prep exist, the articulation information provided is an attempt to lessen the curriculum isolation of the secondary business educator.

Summary

Curriculum guide support is an important part of teacher support in any teaching discipline. One way to address

the challenges of limited funds and timeliness of curriculum materials is to provide a single comprehensive curriculum guide as a foundation for the curriculum. Louisiana's new Business Education Course Outlines and Core Competencies, Bulletin No. 1915, provides such a foundation.

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BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

Wanda L. Stitt-Gohdes[1]

Abstract

This study surveyed business teachers from throughout the Southeast regarding their perceptions of what business teacher preparation programs would be like in the year 2000. The study focused on these teachers' perspectives on extended teacher education programs.

Teacher education today finds itself in a state of transition, usually referred to as reform. These reform efforts stem from a variety of "blue-ribbon" review committee reports crying out for changes in the way we prepare future teachers. From some perspectives, the needed change would be relatively simple--moving to only graduate teacher education. Others suggest a strong clinical element. Many agree on reform. Few agree on the structure of that reform. Business teacher education finds itself in the midst of these "change" efforts.

Lynch and Griggs (1989), in a document prepared for the National Center for Research in Vocational Education on the future of vocational teacher education, suggest that a series of

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themes link many of the recommendations for change. These include, for example, a teacher education curriculum that incorporates a major in a subject outside education; considerable field experience with public school personnel participating in the evaluation process; and an alternative route to certification. As business education is one of the subject areas under the vocational umbrella, there is no reason to believe that these themes would be any different for business teacher education programs.

Lynch and Griggs suggest that, in fact, "There is no single 'best' method or delivery system with which to initially prepare and credential a vocational teacher educator" (p. 6). For example, vocational teacher education programs have been somewhat nontraditional in nature, often employing teachers directly from the skill/technical area where they will teach without any higher education (p. 29). This situation is exacerbated by the fact that often the needed knowledge base for vocational teacher educators is not found within the confines of a college or university, let alone within the arts and sciences, as many would prefer. This is, however, one area where business teacher education has long differed from vocational education. A perusal of business teacher education programs throughout the country would yield unsurprisingly similar models of preparation.

Related Literature

Lynch and Griggs (1989) suggest not one but three models for vocational teacher education. The first, the postbaccalaureate model, is consistent with that of the Holmes Group model. The Holmes Group advocates reform of both teacher education and the teaching profession and its environment. The Holmes Group teacher education model advocates elimination of the undergraduate education major. The Group recommends in its place a baccalaureate degree in the prospective teacher's subject matter area, e.g., business,

followed by a master's degree in education which would include an extended internship, lasting perhaps as long as a year. The second, a restructured baccalaureate model, would involve a more stringent admission and monitoring process than is currently in place in many teacher education settings. This curriculum would involve the integration of pedagogy, vocational philosophy, and specialized subject matter, an extensive field experience and internship, and practical job experience. The third, a field-based model, "will allow people with specific skills and extensive occupational experience, which will qualify them for probationary teaching appointments, to develop the pedagogical skills necessary to achieve full certification and tenure" (pp. 34-35).

Just as there is no easy solution to vocational teacher education's need to reform, teacher education in general finds itself in a similar dilemma.

A study at the University of Pittsburgh compared academic and professional knowledge and skills of graduates of four-year programs with fifth-year teacher certification students. Eichelberger and Bean (1990) found that there was not a "meaningful" difference in academic knowledge between these two groups. All graduates take the Pennsylvania Teacher Competency Test. The authors stated that the Master of Arts in Teaching students "scored significantly higher" on this professional knowledge test but provided no statistical data on which to base this claim beyond the raw test score results and mean. The authors commented that "These results indicate that the year-long internship . . . had some positive effects on the interns" (p. 6). Given an internship/student teaching experience of longer than a quarter or semester, one would anticipate this effect to be the case. Eichelberger and Bean concluded that "Neither group was uniformly superior to the other" (p. 10).

Cyphert and Ryan (1984) addressed several issues relating to extended teacher education programs. One such issue with which teacher educators at research universities, where much of the drive for extended programs is surfacing, are concerned with the fact that "there is very little money for research" (p. 64). Historically, the hard sciences have had priority over education in the funding arena. Another critical issue for many prospective teachers is whether they can afford the cost of another year of education. This issue is especially critical for minority and lower socio-economic groups who are today actively recruited into the teaching profession. Will an extra year of education really attract "better qualified" people?

The focus of the issues raised by Cyphert and Ryan (1984) regarding an extended teacher education program appear to revolve around the fact that "While we have here what seems to be an interesting and promising idea, we do not have a great deal of evidence upon which to base the changes being called for" (p. 65). They surveyed prospective and experienced teachers and heads of teacher education units in Ohio. Curiously, the opinions of preservice and practicing teachers were quite similar: about 60% said they would still become teachers if a four-year program was changed to five years. However, when given a choice in length of program, "about 90 percent of undergraduates and two-thirds of practicing teachers would opt for four-year as opposed to five-year programs" (p. 69). Not surprisingly, "the major concern of teachers who question the proposed move to five-year programs centers around the additional expenditure of time and money to prepare for a position that pays too little" (p. 69).

McMurry (1988) surveyed industrial teachers at Holmes Group and non-Holmes Group universities throughout the Mississippi Valley to determine both their knowledge of and level of agreement with the recommendations of the Holmes Group. Both groups agreed with these Holmes Group commitments: reassess curriculum, develop clinical

experiences, require demonstration of skills and knowledge, establish Professional Development schools, and change structure and working conditions in schools. Both groups, however, disagreed that the undergraduate education major should be phased out.

These study participants were also asked to indicate the nature of the impact of teacher reform movements on teacher education programs. Not surprisingly, 50% stated that some modification of the B.S. program would come about as a result of teacher education reform. Nearly half, 48%, agreed that re-design of the master's degree program would also be driven by this reform. Curiously, only a few, 11%, felt that the BS degree programs would be phased out as a result of teacher education reform (p. 49).

Too often decisions regarding the teaching profession are made by those outside its domain. It would appear somewhat prudent, then, to query practicing teachers regarding their outlook on characteristics future business teacher education programs may exhibit.

Problem and Method

This study sought the opinions of those business teachers attending the 29th Annual Southeastern Business Education Conference regarding the future of business teacher education programs.

A convenience sample of those attending the banquet at the conference was used. A questionnaire was placed at each table setting at the banquet. Participants were asked to respond and leave the completed instrument at their places as they left the banquet.

It must be acknowledged here that the use of a convenience sample introduces a delimitation to this study with

regard to generalizability. However, it must also be noted that the conference attendees and, thus, study participants, came from throughout the Southeast and represented business teachers at the secondary and post-secondary levels.

Findings

Approximately 400 people attended the banquet; 221 chose to respond to the questionnaire. The majority of the respondents, 89.3% or 200, were women; and 10.7%, 21 were men. Well over half, 62.4%, were between the ages of 41 and over 55 as shown in Table 1. The average number of years of teaching experience was 16 with a range from 1 to 39 years' experience.

Table 1

Age Range of Survey Respondents

Range	N	Percent
20 - 25	5	2.3
26 - 30	18	8.1
31 - 35	25	11.3
36 - 40	35	15.8
41 - 45	48	21.7
46 - 50	40	18.1
51 - 55	31	14.0
Over 55	19	8.6
Total	221	

The participants were asked their opinions regarding a variety of topics relevant to business teacher education in the 21st century. The majority, 61.1%, of respondents agreed that initial certification programs were likely to be five-year

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programs by the year 2000. The specific data are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Projected Certification Program Requirements in Business Education

	Very Unlikely 1*	Unlikely 2	Unsure 3	Likely 4	Very Likely 5
Initial certification programs in the year 2000 will be five-year programs	4.1%	12.7%	22.2%	36.2%	24.9%
Certification requirements will include a BS in business and a teacher education program culminating in a master's degree	1.4%	10.9%	24.0%	44.3%	19.5%

Key: 1 - Very unlikely to be characteristic
2 - Unlikely to be characteristic
3 - Unsure
4 - Likely to be characteristic
5 - Very likely to be characteristic

Most respondents, 63.8%, also agreed with the idea that a Holmes Group model of a bachelor's degree in subject area and a master's degree in education would dominate in the future.

The participants were also asked their opinions regarding certification/licensure in the future. The vast majority, 76.8%,

were of the opinion that the amount of field experience required in business teacher education programs will increase. This is consistent with the data gathered by McMurry who reported that the industrial teachers he surveyed supported the Holmes Group recommendation of development of clinical experiences in the teacher preparation program.

In addition, nearly all the participants, 92.2%, felt that business teacher education programs in the year 2000 would very likely be characterized by greater emphasis on student outcomes assessment and program effectiveness than today.

The viewpoints of the participants were more varied regarding whether or not business teacher education programs would be characterized by significant numbers of candidates seeking initial certification with degrees in areas outside business education. The data for these three questions is presented in Table 3.

These teachers were also asked, "If business teacher preparation programs were extended from four to five years and ended in a bachelor's degree and teaching certificate, would you still choose to become a teacher?" A majority, 53%, responded "yes" to this question, 25.1% said "no," and 21.9% were uncertain.

When asked, "If business teacher preparation programs were extended from four to five years and ended in a master's degree and teaching certificate, would you still choose to become a teacher?," a clear majority, 88.7%, said "yes," with 3.3% responding "no," and 8% remaining uncertain. When asked, "If business teacher preparation programs were extended from four to five years with the last year consisting of an internship for which you received a salary, would you still choose to become a teacher?," again, the majority, 88.2%, said "yes," while 3.8% said "no," and 8.1% were uncertain.

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Table 3

Perspectives on Certification Changes for 2000

	Very Unlikely 1*	Unlikely 2	Unsure 3	Likely 4	Very Likely 5
The amount of field experiance in business teacher education programs will increase.	0.9%	6.8%	15.5%	52.3%	24.5%
There will be greater emphasis on student outcomes assessment and program effectivaness than todey.	-0-	3.2%	4.6%	43.6%	48.6%
A significant number of candidates seeking initial certification will be persons with degrees in areas outside business educetion.	1.4%	10.3%	26.3%	43.2%	18.8%

Key: 1 - Very unlikely to be characteristic
2 - Unlikely to be characteristic
3 - Unsure
4 - Likely to be characteristic
5 - Very likely to be characteristic

These teachers were also asked to indicate what they felt might be the major benefit from an extended program. "More field experience" was selected by 83.2%. "More subject concentration" was a distant second, chosen by 13.2%.

Conclusions

The data reported here in general are in agreement with that reported in teacher education literature that all of teacher education ought to take on a different position in the 21st century.

Overall, these study participants were of the opinion that business teacher preparation programs in the year 2000 would be extended programs. Specifically, they were of the opinion that the amount of field experience should be increased. This is consistent with the tendency to support an extended program.

These respondents would also have been more likely to still choose to become teachers if the extended program included either a master's degree and/or a salary for a year-long internship. This finding concurs with that of Cyphert and Ryan (1984) who reported that of the Ohio teachers they surveyed, 60% said they would still become teachers if the traditional four-year program were changed to a five-year program.

Based on these findings from a convenience sample, one may conclude that extended programs combined with either an advanced degree and/or some remuneration would be desirable for business teacher preparation programs. The fact that this group would have been less likely to choose teaching as a career if five years alone had been required, coincides with the question raised by Cyphert and Ryan: Are the extra costs incurred in time and money offset by perhaps a less than equal increase in salary? This cost-benefit issue is also of concern to small liberal arts colleges who prepare a number of teachers each year but who do not have the resources to fund and/or staff a five-year program. The increased expenses for an additional year may also provide a major obstacle for prospective minority candidates who may be considering teaching as a profession. Many of these young people may

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hardly be able to finance four years of college, let alone a fifth year to go into a profession known for paying low salaries. This presents an especially troubling dilemma as minorities are already underrepresented in teaching today.

If business teacher preparation programs in the year 2000 are to take on a dramatically different structure than at the present, much work will be needed to provide the resources--both funding and faculty--necessary so as to allow those who are the brightest and best to pursue their chosen profession. What is the best solution? Perhaps there is none. Perhaps everyone's best needs and interests are met by developing flexible programs that permit prospective teacher candidates to develop programs that will best serve their needs.

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WHAT DOES THE FUTURE HOLD FOR OFFICE OCCUPATIONS?

Donna J. Keenan[1]

Abstract

This article examines office occupations and the future employment trends and projections which will impact on these occupations. Statistics from the Bureau of Labor Statistics are included to show the current employment situation for office workers as well as projections to the year 2005. The major trends which are presented are: changes in technology and business practices brought about by computerization, office automation, and telecommunications; increased foreign competition; shifts in the demand for services and information; more women on the job; and more jobs will require more education.

Examining employment trends and projections can give business educators important insight into the direction in which their curriculum development and instructional practices must go in the future. As a basis for consideration of the definition of office occupations, the occupational cluster of administrative support occupations, including clerical, as described and

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defined by the U.S. Department of Labor's Occupational Outlook Handbook (Davis, 1990) is the focus of this article.

Office Occupations

Subgroups

There are many different occupations under the administrative support occupations cluster. The main subgroups defined in The 1990-1991 Job Outlook in Brief (also a Department of Labor publication) that are included in this cluster are: 1. financial records processors, 2. information clerks, 3. material recording, scheduling, dispatching, and distributing occupations, 4. record clerks, and 5. other clerical occupations (pp. 33-35).

Employment Opportunities--Past and Future

The administrative support occupational cluster currently employs the largest number of workers in the labor force of the United States (Berman & Cosca, 1992). The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects office occupations to increase by only 13 percent from 1990 to 2005, which will cause a decline from 17.9 percent of total employment in 1990 to 16.9 percent of the total in 2005. The growth rates from 1975 to 1990 were about as fast as average, whereas the 1990 to 2005 projections are projected to be slower than average. However, because of the large number of workers in this group (nearly 22 million in 1990), a substantial increase in jobs (2.9 million) is still projected by 2005 (Silvestri & Lukasiewicz, 1991).

Trends to Watch

The trends that will have the greatest impact on office occupations are: changes in technology and business practices brought about by computerization, office automation, and

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telecommunications; increased foreign competition; shifts in the demand for services and information; more women on the job; and more jobs that will require more education (Iglitzin, 1991; Berman & Cosca, 1992). As might be expected, many of the trends overlap one another. It is, therefore, the combined effects of these trends that actually will impact the future employment situation for office workers.

Changes in Technology and Business Practices

Technological change, for example, will affect the employment growth of both typists and computer operators, but will do so in opposite ways. Computer operators are expected to benefit from continued technological change requiring their skills and this employment group will grow rapidly. Opportunities for typists are expected to decline overall due to the increasing use of word processing equipment. (Silvestri & Lukasiewicz, 1989).

Now that computers are less expensive and accessible to even small businesses, the experts have had to re-evaluate the role that computers and office automation will play in the office occupations. Decreases are projected in some occupations primarily due to the rise in productivity brought about by computerization and office automation. An economist in the Office of Employment Projections reports that:

> Due to the rapid introduction of computers in most offices and increasingly sophisticated computer software packages, fewer clerical workers will be required to accomplish the same amount of clerical work. Word and data processing will increasingly be used for computation and recordkeeping. Office mail, timeclocks, and filing systems will be gradually converted to electronic systems. Computerized telephone operations are

becoming universal and data entry technology is advancing (Brand, 1990, p. 43).

There are also studies that indicate that information technology is changing the nature of secretarial work. A study conducted by Professional Secretaries International (PSI) and Minolta Corporation in 1991 indicated that secretaries are not performing as much text processing, and are therefore supporting more people. More than half of the secretaries have managers with PCs or computer terminals--with 27 percent of the managers creating documents for secretaries to put into final form and 20 percent who put them into final form themselves (PSI/Minolta Survey, 1991). This study demonstrates a change in business practice that impacts secretaries' job responsibilities.

Another example of changes in business practices is due to lagging productivity, increased foreign competition and the increased use of computers. These factors had resulted in some restructuring in organizations by consolidating resources and thinning the management ranks (Hennebach, 1989). As a result of this process, "secretaries have more managerial responsibilities, do more budget work, and prepare more reports" (Goodrich, 1989, p. 68). Secretaries and clerical workers are assuming new responsibilities in today's office, and this trend is expected to continue (and increase) in the office of tomorrow. The simultaneous effects of "downsizing" and office automation have resulted in professional "employees sharing responsibilities with clericals as both groups struggle to handle heavy work loads with the resources that remain" (McIntosh, 1990, p. 71).

Improvements in telecommunications are moving us to a single worldwide information network. Fiber-optic cable has greatly increased the capacity for telecommunications. "Fiber-optic cable calls are faster and much clearer . . . So, not surprisingly, demand is exploding" (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990,

p. 6). The authors of Work in the New Economy describe how this improved telecommunications affects the job market:

> Technically, there's no reason an employer in Des Moines can't have a secretary in Jamaica. American computer software companies are already employing programmers in India. Data processing companies regularly have written documents converted into machine-readable form in Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and the Philippines, where labor is cheaper . . . . Thus, even service sector jobs can be lost to foreign competition (Wegmann, Chapman, & Johnson, 1989, p. 35-36).

Increased Foreign Competition

The literature abounds with discussions of the emerging global economy. As we have entered this age of a global economy, the United States has had to deal with more foreign competition. Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) predicted that we are moving toward a single economy; a single marketplace with worldwide free trade. This becomes more relative to the office occupations when we combine with it the ease with which we can communicate with the rest of the world as shown in the above example.

The Chairman and Chief Executive Officer of Merrill Lynch, William Schreyer, in his lecture in April, 1992, to the National Business Education Association said: "First, the move toward a truly global marketplace was the wave of the future. Second, in that global marketplace the competition would be intense, with a relatively few mega-firms emerging as the eventual winners" (p. 58).

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Shifts in the Demand for Services and Information

"The service-producing industries will account for almost all the projected employment growth in the years ahead. Occupations in wholesale or retail trade, finance, insurance, and real estate are all expected to be in the high growth field" (Iglitzin, 1991, p. 43). Economists in the Bureau of Labor Statistics corroborate this by saying that nearly 8 out of 10 additional jobs for office occupations workers will be found in the service industry division. However, job declines of office occupations workers are expected in manufacturing, communications and utilities, and the Federal Government (Silvestri & Lukasiewicz, 1991).

More Women on the Job

Hunt and Hunt (1987) raise the concept that the expansion of clerical employment occurred simultaneously with the expansion of the female labor force. The rate of employment of women in the clerical jobs went from just over 60 percent in 1950 to nearly 80 percent in 1980. As this national trend that more and more women are entering the labor force continues as identified by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1991), it may increase competition for clerical positions. Secondly, the growth of office occupations is being closed by technological advances which will also reduce employment opportunities.

> Minority women in particular will be profoundly affected by job loss in declining occupations and decreased demand for their skills. Because of their concentration in back-office occupations (as postal clerks, file clerks, data entry keyers, telephone operators, and typists), they are more at risk than others (Golden & Danann, 1989, p. 24).

More Jobs Will Require More Education

Ronald Kutscher, from the Office of Employment Projections, says that there has been a trend for several decades that occupations that require more education have been growing faster than those requiring less education and that "the job market prospects for those with less than a high school education have clearly changed for the worse in the last decade" (1992, p. 5).

During the 1970s and 1980s a larger proportion of students went to college. That number was higher itself because of the baby boom and a greater proportion of women who received degrees entered the labor force. As a result of these three simultaneous trends, the United States experienced a high rate of underemployment. During this time the proportion of clerical workers (of both sexes) who were college graduates almost doubled (Wegmann, Chapman, & Johnson, 1989). Typically, college has not been expected for clerical and secretarial workers; however, the above trend had increased the competition for the jobs and more education generally won.

Golden and Danann (1989), in their investigation about displacement of white-collar workers by automation, say that employers often eliminate jobs and upgrade the jobs' skill requirements without training or retraining their workforce. "The result is that clerical workers are often pushed out or restricted to low-skill, lower paid positions, instead of being brought up to the higher skilled, higher paid positions" (1989, p. 2). The qualifications that employers look for before hiring are examined in the following secion.

The Office Worker of the Future

To fit the workplace of the 21st century, American industry hopes to recruit a new kind of worker, one who is

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eminently trainable. These workers will not need to know everything up front--nor will they be expected to. Instead, they will come with skills that make them good learners (D'Ignazio, 1990, p. 95).

This theme of trainable employees was evident throughout the literature. Carnevale's study (cited in Davis, 1992) provides a comprehensive list which refers to the standard academic skills as well as broader, more sophisticated skills which were identified as "learning to learn, listening, oral communications, problem solving, creative thinking, self-esteem, goal-setting/ motivation, personal career development skills, interpersonal skills, teamwork, negotiation, organizational effectiveness and leadership" (p. 14).

With increased competition for jobs in the office occupations cluster in the future, our students must be prepared to compete. A positive work ethic and good thinking skills are among the traits we must continue to teach. Goodrich (1989) has studied office automation and has considered the implications that this provides for classroom instruction. 1. Encourage the students to use their creativity and imagination in developing office automation applications. Allow students to share techniques and shortcuts they have learned as they would with colleagues in a job. 2. Communication and composition skills must still be emphasized. 3. Teach students some delegation techniques for efficient and effective time management.

In the 1992 NBEA Yearbook The Hidden Curriculum, Haynes reminds us: "If business educators are to attempt to help youth and adults prepare for the workplace and work force of the 1990s and beyond, they will have to adapt, invent, and collaborate with individuals inside and outside of school settings" (p. 16). This process must be guided by careful analysis of the trends that are shaping the workplace of the future. It is only in this manner that students can be properly

prepared to face the challenges they will meet throughout their careers.

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MAJOR ACTIONS INFLUENCING BUSINESS EDUCATION

James Calvert Scott and Dennis LaBonty[1]

Abstract

A Delphi panel of experts evaluated actions with potential to influence the configuration and direction of business education during troubling times. From 61 action statements, the panel identified 4 action statements as critically important, 27 action statements as very important, and 26 action statements as important. Factor analysis reduced the data into nine categories of actions that explain 95.4 percent of the variance.

Business educators live in challenging times. Bronner (1991) noted that business education has addressed "wrenching questions of identity, experienced enrollment declines, and found a blurring of content teaching demarcations" (p. 16). Consequently, business educators are perplexed and unsure about how they should respond to the myriad of concerns and problems that they encounter daily. What actions offer business educators the best potential for positively influencing their threatened discipline? The search for an answer to this question resulted in a study that identified

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not only the actions with potential to influence the configuration and direction of business education but also the perceptions of experts regarding the importance of these actions.

Methodology

Throughout the thorough literature-review process of philosophical statements, personal position statements, and business education Delphi studies, the researchers compiled an initial listing of challenges facing business education. These challenges were converted to related action statements beginning with verbs and presented to a panel of experts composed of 23 prominent business educators. During the three rounds of the Delphi process over a five-month period, the experts created, refined, and evaluated action statements using a scale from 5, critically important, to 1, not important. The Delphi process yielded 61 action statements. The usable response rate was 91 percent.

Demographics

The typical expert-respondent possessed a doctoral degree, was between 41 and 60 years old, and was male. He had 21 or more years of teaching experience, most recently as a business educator at a public college or university affiliated with the National Association for Business Teacher Education. He was a member of National Business Education Association, Delta Pi Epsilon, and American Vocational Association. He had attained regional and national stature through his authorship, leadership, and speaking activities.

Findings

The experts ranked 4 action statements with means of at least 4.60 as critically important, 27 action statements with means between 3.60 and 4.59 as very important, 26 action

statements with means between 2.60 and 3.59 as important, and 4 action statements with means less than 2.60 as slightly important or not important. Although space constraints prohibit the printing of the ranking of the individual action statements in this article, a copy of the ranking may be obtained by writing directly to the authors. "Emphasize the importance of preparing students in business education programs to function effectively in a global economy" was the highest ranked action statement according to the experts. While the critically important action statements focused around the global nature of business education, meeting the diverse needs of learners, and developing a research base for business education, the numerous very important and important action statements defied classification.

Because 57 of the 61 action statements were perceived by experts to be major ones and because the large number of major action statements made grouping them difficult, a data reduction technique known as factor analysis was employed to devise new variables from the study data that would explain as much of the total variance within the data as possible with as few new variables as possible. Table 1 summarizes the resulting compression of the action-statement data into nine factors that cumulatively account for 95.4 percent of the total variance.

Discussion

Perceptions of experts support the idea that business educators are exposed to a large number of challenges and possible courses of action. The fact that this study identified more than 50 possible actions as important or higher in the minds of business education experts suggests that the underlying challenges are both numerous and overwhelming. Aside from the 4 critically important action statements, which tend to stand apart from the other action statements, the remaining 53 very important and important action statements

Table 1

Factor Analysis Summary

Factor number and name	Eigenvalue	Variance percentage
1. Redirection of the discipline	12.77	22.8
2. Configuration of the curriculum	9.95	17.8
3. Ideals of the discipline	7.33	13.1
4. Enhancement of the discipline	6.66	11.9
5. Continuing goals of the discipline	4.81	8.6
6. Structure of the discipline	3.88	6.9
7. Evaluation of the curriculum	3.19	5.7
8. Underpinnings of the discipline	2.49	4.5
9. Recruitment of students	2.28	4.1
Cumulative percentage		95.4

blur together quickly. Factor analysis, however, compressed the data into nine categories that are much more comprehensible and meaningful.

Factor 1, redirection of the discipline, includes actions that change the nature of the entity known as business education. Such specific actions as balancing business teacher education programs around basic business and technological competencies and emphasizing the preparation of postsecondary and adult students have potential to change what constitutes business education. Factor 2, configuration of the curriculum, focuses on actions that impact what comprises the curriculum. Such specific actions as responding to the cultural diversity of learners and changing the name of the profession to reflect both the global perspective and the role it plays in information systems and technology can influence the curriculum. Factor 3, ideals of the discipline, includes actions that represent the idealized goals of business

education. Such specific actions as preparing students to function effectively in a global economy and meeting the needs of various business education constituencies are exemplary aims of business education. Factor 4, enhancement of the discipline, incorporates actions that upgrade the discipline of business education. Such specific actions as enhancing cooperative education as a means of instruction and strengthening and enhancing business teacher education programs have potential to improve the discipline of business education.

Factor 5, continuing goals of the discipline, includes the actions that relate to long-term objectives of business education. Such specific actions as developing future business education leaders and creating a comprehensive strategic plan for business education represent protracted aims of business education. Factor 6, structure of the discipline, focuses on the actions that influence the form of business education. Such specific actions as accommodating learners with various degrees of academic and vocational potential and organizing into one national professional organization for business educators and another one for students have potential to change the business education system. Factor 7, evaluation of the curriculum, incorporates actions that relate to scrutinizing what business educators teach. Such specific actions as identifying specific competencies within the business education curriculum and incorporating marketing and basic business competencies have potential to influence what business educators teach. Factor 8, underpinnings of the discipline, includes actions that relate to the foundations of business education. Such specific actions as closing the gap between the "This We Believe" statements of the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education and the "this we practice" philosophy of the profession and assessing the appropriateness of existing teaching-major requirements have potential to change the footings of business education. Factor 9, recruitment of students, focuses on actions that

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relate to obtaining students. Such specific actions as recruiting outstanding high school and college students into business education and articulating the subject matter among instructional levels and institutional providers have potential to influence the availability of students, including prospective business educators. When combined, these nine factors encompass almost all of the known actions with potential to impact positively the configuration and direction of business education. The reported study has three significant implications for all types of business educators at various educational levels.

First, the study suggests that it may not be beneficial to try to draw lines of demarcation among the constituent parts of the business education discipline. The experts, who were also business teacher educators, for example, chose not to draw artificial distinctions between business education and business teacher education during the lengthy Delphi process, perceiving them instead as complementary constituencies within one whole. The many challenges facing business education can be much more effectively resolved with cooperative efforts from all types of business educators representing various specializations and instructional levels.

Second, the study represents another way of addressing the many challenges facing the business education discipline. It is a forward-looking approach, focusing attention not on the already known concerns and problems but on possible solutions to those challenges. The study identifies positive actions that can be taken with potential to alleviate troublesome concerns and problems. For example, one factor in bringing about change is the redirection of the discipline of business education. This factor can be implemented by taking the specific actions suggested by its component action statements, including preparing leaders through graduate education programs for business and business teacher education, balancing business teacher education teacher

programs around basic business and technological competencies, and assessing existing curricula to identify strengths and weaknesses.

Third, the study suggests a scientifically based approach that business educators can use to address the many challenges they face. By focusing their attentions on the nine-point agenda that factor analysis yielded, business educators know not only the categories of major actions with potential to change positively the configuration and direction of business education but also the relative importance of those categories of major actions. For example, since the first four factors constitute about two thirds of the total variance of all nine factors, those four factors should receive the bulk of the emphasis from business educators.

Although business educators live in challenging times, they can successfully address and resolve the challenges they face if they unite to implement the nine-point action-oriented agenda described in this article. Study findings and implications suggest ways in which business educators can take control during troubling times by pursuing relevant actions.

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