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PODCASTS AND VODCASTS: CAN THEY MAKE A DIFFERENCE IN AN ACCOUNTING CLASS?

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ABSTRACT

The number of podcasts and vodcasts available on the Internet has grown exponentially in the past few years. The extant literature contains many articles that report on the use of instructor-developed podcasts and vodcasts in higher education, with results indicating that students found them to be useful as supplemental learning materials, that students preferred them over reading assignments or live speeches/lectures, and that students enjoyed the portability that allowed them to access the material at any time and any place. Unlike previous studies, this paper reports on a project that utilized existing available podcasts and vodcasts rather than instructor-developed ones. This paper describes the development of a podcast and vodcast assignment in both a Managerial Accounting class and an Accounting Information Systems class. Each assignment was used as a supplement to class readings and lectures rather than as a stand-alone learning unit.

After completion of the assignments, students were asked to complete a questionnaire designed to elicit their perceptions of the podcasts and vodcasts and their usefulness as a supplemental learning tool. The surveys revealed that the students generally found the podcasts and vodcasts interesting. The students indicated that they thought the assignments helped them to learn the topics and that similar assignments should be used in future courses. Consistent with prior studies, the students indicated that they preferred the podcasts over reading assignments and live speeches, and had a slight preference for vodcasts over podcasts. This paper provides suggestions for ways to find useful podcasts or vodcasts for use in higher education courses.

PEER AND SELF ASSESSMENT WITHIN STUDENT GROUPS: GENDER ISSUES IN EVALUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The increase in the use of teaching and learning strategies in which students learn with and from each other may result in an increase in the use of peer assessments. Student self and peer assessments may also be used to determine the allocation of a group's marks to individual students. The purpose of this study is to distinguish between gender differences and gender bias that may exist in student peer assessments of individual contributions to collaborative projects. This research finds no evidence of gender bias, but the research documents a difference in the global rating of performance by the gender of the student being evaluated. Females receive higher ratings by both male and female raters. Females also receive and give more open-ended feedback than male students, and this feedback tends to be positive. However, on evaluations of specific work behaviors, female students tend to be less generous than males when numerically rating the extent to which a team member did his/her fair share of the team's work.

INTRODUCTION

The increase in the use of teaching and learning strategies in which students learn with and from each other may lead instructors to invite student input into the assessment and grading process. When students conduct peer assessments in collaborative learning environments, they have an opportunity to discuss and analyze each other's performance. Oftentimes instructors cannot observe first-hand the contributions of each group member to a collaborative project work, but peer and self assessments can provide a means by which group marks are allocated among the members of a group based on their relative contributions. However, moving students into the realm of grading raises questions about the validity of those marks and whether the gender of the raters and ratees affect the marks given and received (Ghorpade and Lackritz, 2001; Falchikov and Magin, 1997; Sherrard, Raafat, and Weaver, 1994). Based on these studies, we raise our first research question, are there gender differences in peer assessments of team members?

Only one study, to our knowledge, employs a cross-gender/same-gender analysis of peer assessments by comparing two sets of ratings (one from same gender and one from opposite gender) on the same students to determine whether significant differences exist in student peer assessments (Falchikov and Magin, 1997). Falchikov and Magin found no evidence of gender bias when studying student peer evaluations in a Science and Technologies course and a first year medical graduate course. But further research seems warranted since peer assessments may be sensitive to the context in which they are performed. This leads us to our second research question, is there gender bias in peer assessments?

In a study that examined self assessment, Sherrard, Raafat, and Weaver (1994) found that self-assessment scores for group presentations were approximately 4.5% higher than the peer

assessment scores of those same presentations. However, the study did not indicate whether or not gender differences existed in the self-assessment scores. When student self assessments are included as factors in determining the allocation of a group's marks to individual students, educators may also want to implement checks to identify gender differences in self assessments. In our case, ratings based on self assessments were averaged in with the ratings from peers to calculate an overall average contribution percentage for that individual to the team effort. Thus, we pose our third research question, are there gender differences in self assessment?

When evaluating our three research questions, we looked at both a global measure of performance and six specific work behaviors. While it may be difficult for us to know the exact nature of the reasons for gender differences that may exist in the peer or self assessments performed by our students, these tests may allow us to identify some of the attributes that affect the differences, if any, in the overall performance ratings.

METHOD

The data for this study came from the third set of self and peer assessments completed by students enrolled in a required, introductory, cross-disciplinary business course. The course was team taught and used a business simulation game as the primary pedagogical tool to engage students in making business decisions for their group's company. Six professors (three male and three female) taught in the course. The course consisted of three modules: accounting, marketing, and management. So each student saw three of the course professors during the semester. Every student saw at least one male professor and at least one female professor during the first term of the course.

There were 12 sections of the course, and each section had 5 student groups (with 4 to 7 members in each group), resulting in 60 teams. However, only 59 teams completed the self and peer assessments in the third round of evaluations. In addition to completing a self-assessment, each student also completed an assessment for each of their team members. Three hundred thirty students completed this final set of evaluations resulting in 330 self assessments and 1592 peer assessments (for a total of 1602 evaluations). Of the 330 respondents, 120 were female and 210 were male.

Data Collection

Each of the three modules contained at least one group project. These projects accounted for 31.25% of the course grade. In the accounting module, each group created a balanced scorecard strategy map for its firm in the simulation and analyzed the firm's performance in an oral presentation to the class. In the marketing module, each group designed a marketing plan for its simulation firm and presented that plan to the class. In the management module, each group designed a strategic plan and presented it to the class.

At the end of each module (three different points during the term), students completed a peer evaluation packet. The packet consisted of a cover sheet that offered instructions on how to complete the packet and explained that the evaluations would be anonymously shared with their group members. The second page of the peer evaluation packet was an illustration of a completed feedback grid. Subsequent pages in the packet contained blank feedback grids so that the rater could complete one for each member of the team including himself/herself.

Each student completed his/her evaluation packet outside of classroom hours. Each student placed his/her evaluation packet in a sealed envelope, wrote his/her name, the course section, and the name of the team on the outside of the envelope, and gave that envelope to the module instructor after the completion of the group project and presentation. The average of the scores received by a student was used was used as a weight to determine the individual's grade on the group work. If a group earned a 90 on its project and a particular student in that group received an average evaluation from peers and self of 90 points, then that individual received an 81 as a grade on the project. In some cases, students received grades in excess of 100 points.

Analysis

The mean rating received by females from other females of 100.36 is not significantly different from the mean rating of 100.49 that females received from males (t=-0.222, p=.825). The mean rating received by males from females of 98.41 is not statistically significant from the mean rating of 99.05 that males received from males (t=-0.888, p=.359).

The average rating given to female students by all peer team members regardless of gender was 100.44, and 98.83 was the average rating given to male students by all peers. The gender difference in the average performance ratings of 1.61 points favoring female students is statistically significant (t=3.577, p=.000). However, the results reveal a lack of gender bias in the rating behavior of the students. The average rating received by students from raters who were of the opposite gender was 99.44. The average rating received by students from raters who were of the same gender was 99.38. The point difference of 0.06 is not statistically significant (t=-0.140, p=.889).

The evaluation forms also prompted raters to consider a list of individual work behaviors, such as promptly attending meetings, delivering work in complete fashion, meeting deadlines, volunteering for tasks, pulling fair share, and demonstrating a positive and enthusiastic attitude. Raters marked each of these criteria between 1 (never) and 5 (always) and some provided open-ended feedback on each dimension. Although scores on these individual performance criteria did not enter into the grading process, raters may have considered these marks in determining the overall performance ratings given to their team members. Females received higher evaluations than males. When grouped on whether or not the rater was the same gender as the person being evaluated, the ratings on these individual evaluation criteria are not significantly different. Thus, no gender bias was evident.

Since the evaluation forms also offered raters an opportunity to provide open-ended comments on each of the six individual criteria, we tested for gender differences in the nature of that feedback (positive, negative, or mixed) and the frequency of that feedback. If the open-ended remarks by the rater were "clearly positive," the authors coded the category as positive. If the remarks were "clearly negative," the authors coded the category as "negative." If the remarks included both positive and negative feedback or included feedback that was not clearly positive or negative, the authors coded the category as "mixed." Females received positive remarks in an average of 1.796 of the six categories, whereas males received positive feedback in an average of 1.523 of these six categories. The difference, favoring female students, is statistically significant (t=2.649, p=.008). However, differences in the frequency of negative feedback (t=-0.885, p=.376) or mixed feedback (t=-0.689, p=.491) were not statistically significant. When we ignore the nature of the feedback, we find that females received feedback across a higher

number of categories than male students evaluated by their peers. This difference was statistically different (t=2.335, p=.020).

When the data was grouped by whether the gender of the rater is the same or different than the gender of the evaluator, the results show that more mixed feedback is received when the rater is of the same gender. The mean frequency of mixed feedback was 0.120 for the same gender and 0.078 for the opposite gender (t=2.181 and p=.029). However, there was no evidence of gender bias in tests examining the frequency of positive, negative, or total feedback.

When the data was grouped by the gender of the rater, the results showed that females gave more total feedback (mean of 2.070 for female raters and 1.838 for male raters; t=2.152, p=.032) and females also gave more positive feedback than male raters (mean of 1.757 for female raters and 1.544 for male raters; t=2.103; p=.036). No statistical differences were found for mixed (t=-0.705, p=.481) or negative feedback (t=1.004, p=.316) by gender of the rater. When the ratings on individual performance criteria are grouped by the gender of the rater, the only statistically significant difference was for "pulled fair share with regard to overall workload." Females are less generous than males when numerically evaluating the extent to which their peers are doing their fair share (mean of 4.73 for female raters and 4.79 for male raters; t=-2.036, p=.042).

The overall performance ratings given by students when rating themselves (self assessment) ranged from 90 to 150. If a student wished to indicate that each person on the team contributed equally to the performance of the team, then a student would mark a 100 for each team member. Thus, a 90 indicates that the individual recognized that he/she contributed less than his/her "fair share" to the team's performance and a 150 indicates that the individual contributed far beyond others in the group. The mean self assessment score was 103.52. Since this is greater than 100, it indicates that individuals tended to think that they contributed a bit more than an equal share to the team. The mean rating that female students (103.80) gave themselves was not significantly different from the mean rating that male students (103.37) gave themselves (t=0.480, p=.632). Similarly, there were no significant differences between genders on the self assessments for any of the six individual criteria that appeared on the evaluation form. However, we found a gender difference in peer assessments. Both male students and female students rated the contributions of the female students higher than that of the male students. If that reflects valid differences in performance, then the lack of gender difference in self assessments may have an interesting implication. It could suggest that female students did not give themselves enough credit in their self assessment, or that male students gave themselves more credit than their contributions may have warranted.

Discussion

Most students tend to rate themselves as doing slightly more than an equal share of the work. One is reminded of Garrison Keillor's description of Lake Wobegon, where "all the children are above average." However, since we required that each student allocate marks among team members and his- or herself so that the sum of the allocated marks equaled the team size times 100, students are unable to rate all peers above average.

Gender differences are apparent in our data for peer assessments. On average, females scored higher than males, regardless of the gender of the person performing the evaluation. This suggests that there are actual differences in performance between male and female students when working on group projects. This performance difference was captured not only in the overall

performance rating received, but also in the ratings for the specific performance criteria of promptly attending meetings, delivering work in complete fashion, meeting deadlines, volunteering for tasks, pulling fair share, and demonstrating a positive and enthusiastic attitude.

Since no statistically significant difference was found between the average rating where the rater was the same gender as the person being evaluated and the average rating where the rater was of the opposite gender from the person being evaluating, there was no evidence of gender bias. This is reassuring in light of the prior research that reported evidence that teachers devalued the performance of students who are the same gender as the instructor relative to the performance of students who are the opposite gender from the instructor (O'Neill, 1985).

The lack of gender bias in our data could be due in part to the way the groups and the evaluation process were managed. The composition of the teams did not change over the semester (except where students may have dropped out of the course), and the data was drawn from the third set of evaluations. By this point, students were more familiar with group expectations, characteristics of team members and their contributions, as well as the evaluation process itself (since the evaluation form itself never changed during the semester). We did not retain the data on each rater's evaluation of each team member from the first and second administrations during the semester. Some have suggested that reliability in scoring increases when evaluations take place at multiple stages rather than simply at the end of the semester. So it would have been interesting to test whether any bias was evident in the first set of evaluations. The list of performance criteria and the opportunity to evaluate a group member both numerically and descriptively on those criteria may have helped students determine a fair overall allocation of the team's marks. Albert Einstein suggested, "Not everything that counts can be counted, and not everything that can be counted counts." By not forcing any formulaic relationship between these specific criteria and the overall rating, students were also allowed to consider other relevant factors that were not listed and to weight the factors in any way they deemed appropriate.

Prior empirical studies on peer assessment examined gender only where the evaluation was the first (and last) of the semester. This study is the first to examine gender issues in self and peer assessments where the evaluation data is from a subsequent stage. This is also the first empirical study of peer assessments to examine not only an overall average rating received by peers, but also individual ratings on specific criteria, the frequency of qualitative feedback, and the nature (positive, negative, or mixed) of that feedback. While we find consistency between the performance difference by gender in the overall ratings and the ratings for six specific performance criteria, we also find that females tended to both *give* and *receive* more open-ended feedback than male students, and this feedback tended to be positive.

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THE PROFESSOR LIFE CYCLE

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ABSTRACT

There is a well known economic and marketing theory named the Product Life Cycle that states that products go through a series of four distinct stages (Introduction, Growth, Maturity, and Decline), with each stage requiring a strategy that adapts to each marketing situation respective of each stage. This theory is well adapted to toasters and washing machines, but how does it apply to academia? This paper will discuss the lifecycle from the perspective of those who have chosen academia as a vocation. This perspective is aptly named, ***The Professor Life Cycle****. Those who have dedicated their professional careers to college teaching pass through these four recognized stages. Time wise, each stage is measured on somewhat of a nebulous sliding scale, with some spending more time in one stage than another. But there is no denying that a retrospective review of one's career will have distinct demarcations with the linear passing from one stage to the next. This paper analyzes each stage of the Professor Life Cycle as it applied to the professors' experiences throughout their teaching careers. Professors will relate to each identifiable stage in the Life Cycle, creating an imprint, a historical marker, for those who will follow in their footprints.*

THE INTRODUCTION STAGE

The four stages of the Product Life Cycle include Introduction, Growth, Maturity, and Decline stages [Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2011]. During the *Introduction Stage*, a non-tenured professor focuses on heavy campus involvement, establishing a teaching methodology, increasing confidence in both subject matter and command of the classroom. The new professor spends most of his/her classroom time lecturing and using publisher-provided materials. Because the new professor is attempting to increase job security, he/she becomes heavily involved in on-campus activities ranging from service as an advisor for student organizations to service on a campus committee. It is imperative that the new professor actively engages in numerous research and publication activities, sometimes individually or coauthoring with a mentor or colleague. Collegially, during this stage, the professor is attempting to establish credibility and create political allies in an effort to secure tenure.

Academia hires and invests in prospective faculty based upon the new professor's vision, enthusiasm, and expertise, and then administration smothers the new employee (albeit sometimes unintentionally) with academic sand and debris. This "sand and debris" can mask itself in various forms of rigid probationary periods, an inefficient organizational culture, bureaucracies, and poor leadership. Too many times new hires are unconsciously thrown directly into these murky waters without ever realizing what long term damage may have been created [Anderson, 2000].

Often these new faculty members experience the "invisible flyswatter" effect during the introductory stage. There may be one or two disgruntled senior faculty members who make the professional life of the new person miserable. No matter the quality or quantity of teaching

evaluations, research publications, or committee memberships that the new hire submits and experiences, the outcomes are not quite good enough for the disgruntled [Anderson, 2000]. There always seems to be a criticism which pits the new person against the establishment. In academia, the politics are often vicious as there is so little to gain and practically nothing to lose, except some very good, potentially productive new faculty members. Some may view this intellectual hazing as a rite of passage. Those who support this unprofessional behavior believe if a new faculty member can overcome the obstacles, he/she will be admitted to the exclusive club with the offering of a lifetime guarantee of employment in the form of tenure. It is the duty of senior faculty to watch out for the new, junior faculty to ensure and attempt to protect him/her from the invisible fly swatter.

THE GROWTH STAGE

Passing to the Growth Stage, the professor increases his/her classroom confidence. This passing, from the introductory stage, usually takes between four to six years to achieve, depending upon the length of the tenuring and promotion process. As classroom confidence increases, the professor spends less time at the lectern and begins to introduce hands-on learning exercises into the teaching methodology. The instructor also begins supplementing his/her own material as opposed to publisher produced materials and perhaps begins to integrate results from the introductory-stage research. The professor takes his/her current research to a more in-depth level and expands both research topics and publication. Campus and student involvement continues as the professor becomes further entrenched in academia. The time spent in the growth stage has no set timetable, as it depends upon the vocational intent of the professor. More often than not, it is during the growth stage that some tenured professors reassess membership at the school that granted tenure. It is still possible to move to a different institution which might offer more visibility, more money, consulting opportunities, etc. Because the successful professor has already survived the tenuring process, the mystery and stress of jumping through the tenure hoop a second time is somewhat minimized and certainly less threatening. The professor who has shown promise by the number of published articles is in a much greater position to bargain with administration for certain perquisites. Moreover, new institutions are always looking for the motivated young professor, especially if this person can contribute to the institution's accreditation efforts. The rite of flight is always a possibility at this stage.

THE MATURE STAGE

As the professor transitions to the Maturity Stage, the professor finally finds balance both in the classroom and on campus among colleagues. Lectures, while still current and invigorating, become more routine. This routine is often reflected in the confidence of the professor's command of the subject matter. The majority of lecture material is original and, while the professor teaches a subject or concept, the professor seldom utilizes or refers to the text. Outside of the classroom, the professor continues his/her research, but does not place as much emphasis on the research, viewing the exercise more as an opportunity to stay current in the field rather than a necessary requirement for advancement. Campus and student involvement begins to decrease due to an increase in personal priorities.

THE DECLINE STAGE

When the professor finally moves to the Decline Stage, the professor embarks on a time of reflection. The reflection includes a self examination of his/her career and the identification of successes and accomplishments in the classroom, on campus, and in research publication. Little to no preparation is given to classroom lectures. Campus involvement is little to null, and research becomes minimal. It is at this stage that the professor is sought out by junior faculty as a mentor, to help counsel tenure-track professors.

With the exception of the movement from the introduction to the growth stages through the awarding of tenure, the majority of professors are subconsciously unaware of the transition from each stage of the Professor Life Cycle. While it may be too late for those in the decline stage to improve his/her current status, it is suggested professors in the other stages of the Professor Life Cycle make the most of each stage and avoid career stagnation and pitfalls they may later regret. It is hoped that professors enter academia to leave a legacy of student success as a result of one's classroom performance and conduct research that results in stimulated thinking. That said, it is important that those new to academia recognize that few if any professors can truly excel in both the classroom and true academic research. Some will argue that it is possible, but both areas, if done correctly, require a tremendous amount of time, effort, and creativity.

CONCLUSION

The majority of new professors beginning their careers in the introduction stage have already established a leg up on academic research through their dissertation process, as many Ph.D. candidates are now required to author or co-author a series of research papers with their major professor (chair of the dissertation committee). For example, Purdue doctoral candidates are required to publish four articles in lieu of a dissertation before the doctoral degree is conferred [Hashim, 2010]. Moreover, these same doctoral candidates should have also gained experience in the classroom as teaching assistants. While a professor in the introductory stage may have little or no choice other than to conduct and publish research in addition to the classroom performance, the professor should begin utilizing this period to identify in which area he/she most enjoys and in which he/she excels. This is also the period in which the new professor should identify a mentor amongst the senior faculty (who are usually in the decline stage) that reflects the new professor's teaching and/or research philosophy. The introductory stage professor should request permission to sit through several lectures provided by his/her mentor to identify best classroom practices. It is also highly appropriate to request assistance with lecture materials and resources so as not to be dependent on publisher materials. As mentioned earlier, the introduction stage is where the professor is working diligently to earn tenure. This tedious and somewhat political process, if not handled appropriately, can result in burn-out and paranoia, based up the threat of other faculty members who may not support the awarding of tenure. Professors must stay true to who they are and focus on the process of fulfilling the requirements to gain tenure. Moreover, they should make every attempt to avoid university politics and, at the very least, not take them personal.

Upon the awarding of tenure, an "invisible fly swatter" representing the threats of non-support virtually disappears as should a large portion of faculty politics. This is the period where it should become evident as to which area the professor will focus the majority of his/her

attention (i.e., research vs. classroom). When the professor identifies which factor he/she most enjoys, he/she must remember that those with a thriving career in academia cannot ignore the other element. The key is to identify how to successfully have the lesser of the requirement not go ignored. For example, if a professor prefers the classroom over research, the professor should conduct the required research on a topic related to classroom instruction. If a professor prefers research over the classroom, the professor should identify how to keep lecture material fresh and not ignore student needs. Although the professor now has tenure, collegial faculty relationships cannot be ignored. The new tenured professor will still be required to serve on departmental, divisional, and campus committees. This will be the first stage where the professor may begin to serve as a mentor to a non-tenured professor and/or adjunct lecturer.

The maturity stage will quickly segregate tenured professors into two groups. One group will continue his/her involvement in both the classroom and/or research. Those in this group will enjoy a lengthy period in the maturity stage, finding his/her reward in either academic research or academic instruction. The other group will begin a quick transition from the maturity stage to the Decline Stage. For the sake of discussion, the first group will be referred to M-R (signifying maturity-reward). The second group will be referred to M-D (signifying maturity-decline). M-R professors work diligently to challenge themselves in their selected area of expertise (research or classroom). They strive to be innovators and attempt to distinguish themselves from their colleagues. This is an important time to begin succession planning by actively serving as a mentor and sharing expertise with less senior faculty. M-D professors typically had a difficult time obtaining tenure or experienced an atypical amount of academic politics. Consequently, they have openly chosen to retire on the job, still showing up to the classroom and/or conducting research (albeit non-descript research) but divest themselves from real contributions. M-D professors typically do not have a desire to serve on a campus committee, much less as a mentor. While M-D professors are protected by tenure in addition to a union contract, they need to continually remind themselves of the reason they initially chose academia as a profession and attempt to transition from M-D back to M-R. It is possible to reverse the general apathy that is prevalent with the professors in decline. This can be done by the change in attitude and a change in administration. Simply, the leaders of academic units themselves at universities and colleges are partially responsible for the professor who has retired on the job. When favoritism and cronyism are practiced to any degree, the professors in decline can feel left out of the mix. By engaging the once productive professor, administration can offer certain perquisites to keep all professors connected to their students, their universities, and their professions.

The final stage of the Professor Life Cycle is that of the decline stage. While M-D professors spend a longer time in this stage, M-R professors generally stay in the decline stage for a very brief period. Once it is time to retire, the M-R professors make their announcement and commit themselves to a quick and successful exit. They usually have a secondary vocation waiting for them after all of the accolades have settled. One of the main objectives of all professors in the decline stage is to serve as mentors for the new professors who are entering the introductory stage. It is imperative that any professor who has knowledge of how the university system works be a "lead blocker" for the neophytes entering into the system. The decline stage need not be a somber time but rather a time for genuine reflection. University professors generally do not write best selling memoires about their life and times in the classroom. But they can add to the general body of learning by publishing one final account of what is important to students and faculty members alike.

SUMMARY

The Professor Life Cycle has four distinct phases which can be delineated based upon time of service and time of accomplishment. Newly graduated doctoral students (introductory stage) who have chosen academia as a vocation always have the most difficult entry into the somewhat exclusive club. They are required to serve many different masters with a smile on their collective faces without demonstrating any animosity towards the senior faculty, while trying to engage a mentor who can fend off the academic wolves. Once tenure is granted, they move on to the growth stage. This is where the junior faculty really prospers as their contributions to the university life are less calculated and more for the expansion of knowledge and professional exposure. The maturity stage professor is more confident in classroom presence and has established a name in the research world. It is here where professors determine how much effort they will expend on their vocation, active and engaged or resting on their laurels, satisfied with previous efforts. Finally, professors all end up in the decline stage. It is not that they have been completely consumed like an old toaster, but they are looking forward to a time when they will be honored with emeriti status, be given a lifetime parking sticker, and be invited to the annual department gathering. They have weathered the politics, watched the changes in administration, have published and not perished. It is now their turn to assist the next generation of university professors starting their careers and watch the Professor Life Cycle begin all over again.

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HAVING A BALL LEARNING ABOUT TEAMWORK: AN EXPERIENTIAL APPROARCH TO TEACHING GROUP DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

The ability to work in teams is a key critical skill that potential employers value in our graduates. In teaching about teamwork, we frequently present Tuckman's stages of group development. This experiential exercise uses the tossing of tennis balls to bring the student through the model's stages -forming, storming, norming, performing - in a fun and active fashion. In the debriefing, the students describe what happened. Their observations are then used to introduce and illustrate Tuckman's intuitively appealing and useful process model.

INTRODUCTION

Employers inform us that teamwork skills are among the things that they most value in potential hires. They understand that the ability to work in teams is associated with high performance (Lyons, 2008). Although as academics we frequently give our students team projects and have them work in groups, we rarely explicitly train them to work together. One key element often overlooked is the process through which a team moves from initial formation to high performance. There are many models of group formation (Adams, 2009; also see Braaten, 1975 for adiscussion of 14 models); however the most popular and recognizable is Tuckman's (1965) Stages of Group Development. Tuckman's model has four or five stages - 'forming', 'storming', 'norming' and 'performing' (Tuckman, 1965) and occasionally 'adjourning' (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). This model is intuitively appealing and easily understood, but there is a difference between intellectually understanding it and internalizing the dynamics of the model. By using an experiential approach (Kolb, 1984) it is possible to achieve a deeper level of learning and skill development (Lyons, 2008).

In this exercise we bring groups of students through Tuckman's stages of group development. They experience it and internalize it, gaining a deeper understanding of the dynamics involved than is possible from reading, lectures or discussions.

MATERIALS

Tennis balls – at least equal to the number of participants, although more is preferable
Floor space – enough room for a 10-15 foot diameter circle per group of 5-7 students
Watch – any timepiece that can measure 2 minutes is adequate

PREPARATION

Clear floor for exercise
Form groups of 5-7 participants. Group members should ideally not know each other. It may be necessary to break up those who have worked together, had classes together and so on.

Have groups stand in circles of 10-15 feet in diameter all facing in (facing each other)

Round 1

Give each group a tennis ball
Instructions: "When I say start, you are to throw the tennis ball to someone else in your group. When you throw the ball, say your own name. There are two rules about throwing. (1) You cannot throw it back to the person who threw it to you. (2) If a person next to you threw it to you, you cannot throw it to the person on your other side*. Ok, start"
*this prevents the ball traveling around the periphery of the circle
At the end of 2-3 minutes stop the groups

Round 2

Still using one ball per group
Instructions: "In this round you are to throw to someone else just like last round. The two rules still apply, (1) you cannot throw it back to the person who threw it to you. (2) If a person next to you threw it to you, you cannot throw it to the person on your other side. However there is one change. This time you must say the name of the person that you are throwing it to. OK, start"
At the end of 2-3 minutes stop the groups

Round 3

Instructions: "In this round you no longer need to call out a name. The other two rules still apply. (1) You cannot throw it back to the person who threw it to you. (2) If a person next to you threw it to you, you cannot throw it to the person on your other side. However, there is one difference. (Throw the team another ball) You need to keep two balls in the air. Ok, start.
At the end of 2-3 minutes stop the groups

Round 4

Instructions: "You guessed it. (Throw each team another ball) Three balls. Ok, start"
At the end of 2-3 minutes stop the groups

Round 5

Instructions: "Now practice for a while"
Give teams a fourth or even more tennis balls if they seem to have mastered the task.
At the end of 4-5 minutes stop the groups

Round 6

Instructions: "Now let's clear the floor and let each team show us what they can do" when class scatters to the periphery and one team is in the center "OK, start"
At the end of a few minutes stop the team and move on to the next team.
Continue until each team has a chance.

After each team had a chance, ask "Which team did the best"

Round 7

Have the 'best team' go back in the center.
Tell them to start, and then increase the number of balls. If possible, have them do the same number balls as members.

DEBRIEFING

During the debriefing, the facilitator should ask the participants to relay their observations. It is best to go through sequentially, asking about Round 1, then Round 2 and so on. The comments can be written on a board or flipchart. After some discussion, the facilitator should then present Tuckman's model. The participants should see how their experience maps directly onto the model. During the debriefing, the participants can be given a questionnaire and evaluate the stages of group development (Miller, 2003).

DISCUSSION

The preparation, Round 1 and Round 2 correspond to the 'forming' stage. The group gets to know each other and begins to interact. Round 3 and Round 4 are the 'storming' stage. Participants are clarifying the rules and proposing different approaches to accomplish the tasks. By Round 5 the group has entered the 'norming' phase where the methods used are decided and are being fine tuned and the group is developing the skills and abilities that can only occur when the group is in agreement. By then, several patterns have probably evolved and some techniques for throwing and catching have been adopted. Round 6 and 7 correspond to 'performing'. By that point, the group has practiced and is competent in performing the task.

SUMMARY

In the above exercise, participants discover and experience firsthand the stages of group development. By going through the process and reflecting upon it before the established models (Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman & Jensen, 1977) are presented, the participant has a deeper understanding and appreciation for the components and dynamics of the model. It is a simple approach, which takes a minimum amount of time, almost no resources (the room and some tennis balls) and is easy to facilitate.

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AN EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH TO TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCE METHODOLOGY: EXTENDING THE FORER TEST BEYOND FACE VALIDITY

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ABSTRACT

Students studying social science methodology have difficulty understanding the concept of validity beyond the face validity. Several generations of psychology students have taken the 'Forer Test' and learned not to rely on face validity. In the 'Forer Test' every participant gets the same personality profile after taking a personality test. Under the impression that it is a personalized profile, most participants consider the 'results' to be fairly accurate. In this exercise, the Forer Test is used as a catalyst for examining additional validity concepts. We use social science analytical methods on the data collected from the 'personality test' to see if indeed they reveal patterns that indicate latent constructs. In this paper we describe the basic exercise, and illustrate how it was successfully used in undergraduate and graduate management and marketing courses.

INTRODUCTION

Many psychology students are familiar with the 'Forer Test'. In the test, a personality evaluation is administered and every participant gets the same personality profile as a result (Forer, 1949; Carroll, 2005). Most participants consider the profile to be fairly accurate, thinking it is a personalized profile based on the test. This face validity is due to the generally positive nature of the profile (Leung, Su & Morris, 2001), the accepted authority of the evaluator and the belief that the analysis was unique to them (Hannay, Arisholm, Engvik & Sjøberg, 2010; Dickson & Kelly, 1985). The test is used to show the problems with relying only on face validity to judge a measurement instrument or evaluation. In this exercise we go beyond the traditional 'Forer Test' lesson. We administer the 'personality test' online, and analyze the actual results from test using legitimate, established social science methods to see if indeed the test does reveal patterns that indicate latent constructs. In this way, an interesting but limited demonstration of a psychological phenomenon is used as a starting point for illustrating more sophisticated concepts. In addition to describing the basic exercise, we illustrate how it can be used in different but related behavioral disciplines within business education. Specifically we describe the basic exercise, and illustrate how it was successfully used in undergraduate and graduate management and marketing courses.

The paper begins with a description of the Forer test, its history and application. This is followed by a brief explanation of experiential exercises in general. A description of our exercise is presented next. After the basic exercise is presented, a specific implementation of the exercise will be examined in detail. The materials and procedures will be presented first, followed by the analysis methods and results. The presentation of the results in class and the ensuing discussion are explored next. The paper concludes with proposals of how to modify the exercise for different contexts.

THE FORER TEST

In 1949 Bertram R. Forer introduced "the fallacy of personal validation". Specifically he found that people had a tendency to accept vague, general descriptions of personality as very true for them even though the descriptions could apply to almost everyone. The personality evaluation given by Forer was as follows:

"You have a need for other people to like and admire you, and yet you tend to be critical of yourself. While you have some personality weaknesses you are generally able to compensate for them. You have considerable unused capacity that you have not turned to your advantage. Disciplined and self-controlled on the outside, you tend to be worrisome and insecure on the inside. At times you have serious doubts as to whether you have made the right decision or done the right thing. You prefer a certain amount of change and variety and become dissatisfied when hemmed in by restrictions and limitations. You also pride yourself as an independent thinker; and do not accept others' statements without satisfactory proof. But you have found it unwise to be too frank in revealing yourself to others. At times you are extroverted, affable, and sociable, while at other times you are introverted, wary, and reserved. Some of your aspirations tend to be rather unrealistic" (Forer, 1949).

Participants in Forer's test, performed in 1948, rated this passage as 4.26 on a scale of 0 to 5 with 4 indicating it was a 'good' assessment and 5 as 'excellent' (Forer, 1949; Hannay, Arisholm, Engvik & Sjøberg, 2010). The test has been repeated hundreds of times in the succeeding decades with the average remaining about 4.2 (Carroll, 2005).

This phenomenon of individuals tendency to accept 'bogus' feedback as accurate is also known as the 'Barnum Effect' (Meehl, 1956; MacDonald & Standing, 2002). The Barnum effect was initially used in classrooms to illustrate gullibility and deception; however it later was used to teach ethics (Beins, 1993). Those teaching ethics use the Barnum Effect to aid in discussions of the ethics of deception, the ethics of deception in research, the feelings of those who have been lied to (Beins, 1993). Recently Boyce & Geller (2002) found no studies that used the Barnum effect to 'promote a healthy skepticism of pseudoscience' or to teach research methods, therefore they used it to teach psychology research methods, ways of displaying and interpreting data, and to "highlight the pitfalls of pseudoscience" (Boyce & Geller, 2002).

Those who have conducted research into the phenomenon while using it class found that under certain circumstances people accept feedback rationally and not gullibly (Michels & Layne, 1980). For example, when presented with each, participants show the ability to discriminate between accurate, trivial and inaccurate feedback (Wyman & Vyse, 2008; Harris & Greene, 1984). Another interesting finding is that the Barnum effect is more prevalent in positive statements and evaluations than in negative leading researchers to conclude that the Barnum effect is somewhat cancelled by a self-serving bias (Leung, Su & Morris, 2001; MacDonald & Standing, 2002).

EXPANDED FORER TEST EXERCISE

In this exercise we follow the lead of others who see the potential use of the Forer Test for teaching research methods (Boyce & Geller, 2002). We go further than using the Forer test to illustrate and start conversations about gullibility, ethics of deception and test validity. Furthermore, we use the same exercise to show how proper investigations can be done. The

exercise was run in several classes in undergraduate and graduate organizational behavior, marketing and management courses. The exercise can easily be adapted for other situations.

Table 1	
Items on the 'Personality Test'	
Anchor 1	*Anchor 2*
Red	*Blue*
Cats	*Dogs*
Cotton	*Satin*
Meat	*Vegetables*
Night	*Day*
City	*Country*
Travel	*Staying Home*
Activity	*Relaxation*
Sun	*Clouds*
News	*Sports*
Radio	*TV*
Science	*Art*
Rock	*Classical*
Solid	*Stripes*
Drama	*Comedy*

Students were asked to complete a survey administered online in a course management shell. The survey consisted of what appeared to be a simple personality test. The items are shown in Table 1. They were asked to indicate which they preferred (or indicate 'no preference) for each of 15 sets of items. After being asked two demographic questions (age, gender), students were next shown a 'personality evaluation', presumably based on the answers given. They were then asked how accurate the description was from '1-very poor' to '5-excellent'.

Later in the week, in class, the 'truth' was revealed and the Forer effect was discussed. The instructors had already done a correlation and factor analysis on the items, and used these results to illustrate basic concepts of validity and latent constructs.

The data from all of the participating classes were combined and some simple analysis was conducted. The means and standard deviations of the variables were computed as well as statistics for kurtosis and skewness. Next significant correlations of the remaining items were identified. In this particular analysis ten pairs of items were shown to be correlated at .01 or better. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to find interrelated patterns of relationships and identify latent constructs. Six groups were identified by the factor analysis (principle component, varimax rotation), of which only two had more than two items. One of the two grouped Sun, Science, Day, and Rock, and the other grouped News, Drama and Vegetables. Those two factors had alpha reliabilities that were <.5, which is unacceptable for use as scales.

The procedure was explained to the classes. Students were asked to propose relationships between the items. The relationships were revealed and discussed with an emphasis on comparing proposed relationships with the actual relationships found. Next the two revealed patterns were presented. The discussion about the groupings centered on explanations of the groups and uses of this information. Next the marketing students were asked to identify ways

that this information can be used to design products and marketing campaigns. The management students were asked how this information can be of value to managers. Both groups were asked to design a follow-up study related to their proposed uses of the information.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The Forer test (Forer, 1949), or Barnum effect (Meehl, 1956) is often used to illustrate gullibility and ethics (Beins, 1993). Rarely is it used to explore research methods (Boyce & Geller, 2002). In this paper is description of how the Forer/Barnum phenomenon was presented in management and marketing course and used to introduce legitimate research methods.

Although the exercise was a success, we have identified several areas for improvement. First, the 'personality survey' can include a greater number of items and the items themselves can be more carefully chosen. The test given was designed to be nonsense; however that is not necessary at all and may have actually limited our analysis. The items themselves might be chosen to reflect specific concerns of disciplinary courses, such as consumer product or marketing related issues, or work related concepts to allow the final results to be applied to product design, marketing campaigns or staffing, job design, training and motivation. Traditional 'personality' items could be used if the exercise was to be used across classes in different disciplines and at different levels. A problem with the original items was a great degree of kurtosis and skewness. Scale items with greater variation would lead to a better analysis and still allow for discussion of skewness and kurtosis. Carefully chosen items would also allow for factor analysis to develop valid reliable factors. Factor analysis would be especially appropriate in a graduate level class. After the data is entered into a spreadsheet, the analysis can be done by students as an assignment, either with specific directions or leaving the students to find their own ways to use it. Discussions of validity at the graduate level are particularly important (Mundfrom, Young, Shaw, Thomas, & Moore, 2003) and better analysis results would facilitate such a discussion.

Once an instrument is developed future exercises can also be used for research purposes. It would be relatively easy to design experiments that extend the existing research. Graduate students and faculty could explore the dynamics of the Forer/Barnum effect on discipline specific tests (consumer related, job related, etc.) to see under what conditions people are rational or gullible (Michels & Layne, 1980), have the ability to discriminate between accurate, trivial and inaccurate feedback (Wyman & Vyse, 2008; Harris & Greene, 1984) and have the effect mediated by a self-serving bias (Leung, Su & Morris, 1980; MacDonald & Standing, 2002).

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THE MILLENNIAL GENERATION: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR OVERCOMING TEACHING CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

The Millennial Generation (also known as Gen Y, Generation D, the Net Generation, Digital Natives, Echo Boomers, and Nexters) varies in research from 75 million (Thielfoldt & Scheef, 2004) to 100 million (Howe & Strauss, 2003); as do the dates defining the generation: anywhere beginning from 1977-1982 and ending from 1994-2003 (Shih & Allen, 2007). Despite the differences in research, there is no doubt the Millennial Generation is very large in size (and therefore influence) just as the Baby Boomers were. This generation has also been nicknamed "The Trophy Kids" because when they participated in competitions as children, everyone received a prize or recognition of some sort. This "everybody wins" philosophy was in an effort to preserve their self-esteem (The 'Trophy Kids' Go to Work, 2008).

These Millennials may appear at times more demanding than older generations, perhaps due to their "Helicopter Parents" who did so much for them as children (Jenkins, 2008). They favor instant gratification (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007). Perhaps most importantly to educators, they are very tech savvy and tend to be visual learners (Shih & Allen, 2007). However, their reliance on and comfort with all things technical can also be irritating and frustrating to faculty who tire of seeing students with phones "attached" to their ears (or fingers) as they walk around campus.

On the other hand, these students tend to embrace diversity more than previous generations and are more global-centric (Jenkins, 2008). They seem to be more socially responsible and civic-minded than other generations (Saunderson, 2009). They prefer multi-tasking and bore easily (Johnson & Lopes, 2008). Millennials desire a fun, laid back environment (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007) and typically enjoy a more relaxed dress code (Entzminger, 2005), team collaboration, and flexible schedules (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008).

Since the median age of college faculty is around 50-53 years, the connection between college teachers and college students may be even more difficult to create—and maintain. This presentation provides key characteristics of the Millennial Generation and recommendations for educators that will help them engage and connect to this generation.

INTRODUCTION

If you were to go to any college campus in the country today to observe the behaviors of the traditional students, what would you see? You would see students text messaging on their cell phones, checking their email on their laptops, and listening to their iPods—simultaneously! You would see students wearing pajama bottoms to class as well as students socializing with a diverse group of other students. You would frequently see students' parents accompanying them

to meetings with their academic advisors. Of course, you might see students nodding off in class which is a behavior shared by all generations.

Faculty who have been teaching for many years have witnessed countless changes in students and student behaviors. Clothing styles have gone from skirts-only for women and shirts-must-be-tucked-in for men to jeans and flip flops or even pajama bottoms for either gender. The slang expressions also change over the years, and what was once "groovy" becomes "cool" or "sick." However, Marc Prensky (2001) writes that today's students have changed in a way that is far different from those previous generations. Prensky (2001) says this change, which is like no other, is the result of "the arrival and rapid dissemination of digital technology in the last decades of the 20th century" (p. 1), and that they [the students] "think and process information fundamentally and differently than their predecessors" (p. 1).

The purpose of this presentation is to identify key characteristics of the Millennial Generation and to provide recommendations for faculty to help them engage and connect to the traditional college student.

THE MILLENNIAL GENERATION

One of the most significant characteristics of Generation Y (which is used interchangeably with the *Millennial Generation*) is their attachment to, understanding of, and comfort with technology. Chide, Gingrich, and Piller (2010) write about this generation's passion for technology and point out that 96% of the Millennials belong to social networks such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter.

Frequently, the Millennials are referred to as those born after 1980 (Baldonado & Spangenburg, 2009). The size of the Millennial Generation (also called Generation D, the Net Generation, Digital Natives, Echo Boomers, and Nexters) varies in research from 75 million (Thielfoldt & Scheef, 2004) to 100 million (Howe & Strauss, 2003); as do the dates defining the generation: anywhere beginning from 1977-1982 and ending from 1994-2003 (Shih & Allen, 2007). The Millennials are also called Echo Boomers because they are very large in size and, consequently, influence just as the Baby Boomers were and continue to be (Baldonado & Spangenburg, 2009).

This generation has also been nicknamed "The Trophy Kids." When they participated in competitions as children, everyone received a prize or recognition of some sort. This "everybody wins" philosophy was in an effort to preserve their self-esteem (The 'Trophy Kids' Go to Work, 2008).

These students tend to embrace diversity more than previous generations and are more global-centric (Jenkins, 2008). They seem to be more socially responsible and civic-minded than other generations (Saunderson, 2009). They prefer multi-tasking and bore easily (Johnson & Lopes, 2008). Millennials desire a fun, laid back environment (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007) and typically enjoy a more relaxed dress code (Entzminger, 2005), team collaboration, and flexible schedules (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). They can appear at times more demanding than older generations, perhaps due to their "Helicopter Parents" who did so much for them as children (Jenkins, 2008). They favor instant gratification (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007). Perhaps most importantly to educators, they are very tech savvy and tend to be visual learners (Shih & Allen, 2007).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATORS

1. Vary the type of technology used. Even with their passion for IT, Millennial students prefer *moderate* use of technology in the classroom; in fact, the actual use of technology is not as important as the activity the technology allows students to do (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005). When technology is used in class, it should vary; use different tools such as PowerPoint presentations, social networks, podcasts, streaming videos, blogs, virtual games, video clips, etc. Kvavik and Caruso (2005) refer to this as "Edutainment." Educators should balance the use of technology in classes with other activities such as lectures, guest speakers, group assignments, interactive and hands-on activities, and class discussions. This will not only satisfy the Millennials' preference for moderate use of technology in the classroom but also their desire for team collaboration, and it will keep them from boring so easily by switching up the delivery day to day.
2. Consider assignments that involve volunteering, environmental causes, fund raising, and other civic duties will help satisfy their need to be socially responsible and allow them to feel they can contribute value and meaning through their education. Smith (2008) suggests assigning peer reviewed projects to get the students involved with more team collaboration. Educators also need to provide detailed assignments, grading rubrics (to show fairness), syllabi, examples, and deadlines to the Millennial students (Smith, 2008) (Shih & Allen, 2007).

Use simulations when appropriate. A simulation that allows students to be more actively engaged and in greater control of their own learning should enhance student learning since research indicates this type of environment is beneficial for the Millennials (Lippincott & Pergola, 2009).

3. Provide as much feedback as possible. Due to constant testing in secondary schools (No Child Left Behind Act), these students are used to constant feedback on educational performance (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). To satisfy their need for instant gratification, timely feedback on assignments and exams is necessary. In addition, these "Trophy Kids" appreciate praise and recognition; although verbal praise would be sufficient, educators could also give prizes (candy, one-time-only pop quiz exemption) for exemplary work on a project or exam.
4. Keep the atmosphere in the classroom relaxed; this will not only help the Millennials feel comfortable, it will also help garner more participation in class discussions.
5. Expect casual clothing but continue to provide guidance. A study of the four generations (Matures, Baby boomers, Gen X, and Millennials) found differences among the generations' views on attire. Generation X and the Millennials prefer a more casual dress environment and would consider it a perk in the business world (Robertson, 2007). Educators may need to become more tolerant to casual clothing in the classroom while also teaching professional business attire in the workplace, noting the differences in formality in the two areas.
6. Provide options when appropriate. For example, to appeal to the Millennials' preference for flexibility, having students vote on a deadline could help them feel more empowered when it comes to their schedules. Additionally, giving them a list of possible dates and having them choose the date they want to do a group presentation on could also appeal to them.
7. Involve their parents (without violating FERPA). For example, students could conduct an interview with a parent or guardian about topics related to the class (such as "How is the economy affecting our family?") and writes a paper about it.
8. Be prepared to adjust with this generation as many professors done have for previous generations (Howe & Strauss, 2003). If the students seem not to be engaging as hoped or

assessments show they are not mastering the content, more adaptations to delivery and methodology will be necessary. Remember: more than anything, these students expect not only expertise but also passion in the subject area from their instructors (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005).

SUMMARY

Effective educators realize the need to adapt assignments, delivery, and methods to the expectations, preferences, needs, and characteristics of each new generation that enters the classrooms. Learning about each new generation and being open to new ideas of teaching will help educators engage and connect to each new generation. But, don't get too comfortable with the Millennials just yet; the generation after them, called Generation Z, will be gracing our campuses soon enough, bringing with them a whole new set of challenges to educators. Isn't rolling with the times fun?

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IMPACT OF POLITICAL PARTY AFFILIATION AND GENDER ON LEGISLATIVE DECISION-MAKING

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ABSTRACT

Building on previous research this multivariate study explored legislative decision making as a function of political party affiliation and gender. The instrument used in this study contained a total of 18 items inquiring about the relative influence of the factors in determining legislative outcome. The survey was scored as no influence = 1 and high influence = 7. Data was collected from 108 legislators in a northwestern state reflecting a 100% response rate. Legislators consisted of 78% Republicans and 22% Democrats; 21% female and 79% male. The results showed a significant mean difference or an interaction effect (p > .05) for the variables: (a) trust (b) legislative leadership (c) Committee Chairs; (d) lobbyists; (e) constituents; (f) sources of information; (g) religion; (h) regionalism, (i) fiscal impact; (j) re-election; (k) timing, (l) media; (m) Interest Groups (o) Sources of Voting Advice

INTRODUCTION

Central to the theoretical framework was the literature on the behavioral research model for legislative decision-making (e.g., Clausen, 1994; Light (1992); Mazzoni, Sullivan, & Sullivan (1983); Patterson, 1983; Roberson, Durtan, & Barham (1992); Wahlke & Eulau, 1959; Winton-Glisson (2006) and Wirt, Morey, & Brakeman, 1970). Human behavioral scholars study individual legislators in the context of who they are, how they attend to business, and why they make certain decisions. Also useful was research pertaining to policy attitudes (Mitchell, 1981; Patterson & Wahlke, 1972) role orientations (Wahlke, Eulau, Buchanan, & Ferguson, 1962; Mazzoni,1978) and decision-making (Jewell & Patterson, 1966, Mitchell, 1981).

Researchers assert few professional educators have a clear understanding of how public will is transformed into policy. Moreover, why politicians decide to vote for or against a particular bill is ambiguous. Fowler (1994) notes:

> *Even more than district leaders, building administrators have traditionally been insulated and isolated – from the pressures of the outside world. For the most part, they stayed within their four walls, making occasional forays to district meetings. No one expected them to follow state politics, or even the policy developments in the neighboring districts. (p. 12)*

This lack of understanding makes it difficult for education policymakers including educators, school board members, parents, state boards of education, and state departments of education to build and sustain coalitions of support across issues. This study multivariate builds on previous studies conducted by the authors (Canfield & Jain, 2010; Canfield, Jain, Wattam, Johnson & McMurtry, 2010) and explores legislative decision making as a function of political party affiliation and gender.

METHODOLOGY

A total of 108 surveys were mailed to legislators in a northwestern state. Legislators consisted of 78% Republicans and 22% Democrats; 21% female and 79% male. All the 108 respondents completed the survey. The participants were comprised of 24 (22%) democrats, and 83 (77%) republicans, and one (1%) participant did not indicate party affiliation. The participants included 84 (78%) males and 23 (21%) females, demographic data one (1%) participant was missing. The mean length of service in the legislature was 6.84 years (*SD* = 6.73, range = 0-42) for the 56 (96.55%) participants who indicated the years of service in the legislature.

The *instrument* used in this study was designed based on the result of Canfield-Davis (1996) and Canfield & Jain (2009). The instrument was piloted in the Canfield et al. (2010) study. The results found the following factors that influence legislative decision-making (a) trust (b) sponsor; (c) legislative leadership (d) Committee Chairs; (e) Governor; (f) lobbyists; (g) constituents; (h) sources of information; (i) religion; (j) regionalism, (k) fiscal impact; (l) re-election; (m) timing, (n) Legislative Staff (o) media; (p) Interest Groups. (q) Sources of Voting Advice (s) State Agency Bureaucrats/Civil Servants.

The instrument contained a total of 18 items inquiring about the relative influence of the factors in determining legislative outcome. The survey was scored as no influence = 1 and high influence = 7. The minimum score on this instrument is 18 and maximum possible score is 126. Data gathered by the three other questions (i.e., party affiliation, gender, and the length of service in the legislature) were provided in the participant demographic section. Survey questions were generated based upon a qualitative study conducted on 37 legislators in the same state (Canfield-Davis & Jain, 2009). In this study, the overall alpha reliability coefficient for the instrument was 0.81, which well exceeded Nunnally's (1978) minimum criteria of at least 0.70 to demonstrate internal consistency. Based on reliability standards set by Springer, Abell, and Nugent (2002), the reliability for this scale is "very good".

During the spring of 2009, the total population of 105 legislators in this northwestern state was mailed a cover letter outlining the purpose of contact, a description of 18 variables, a copy of questionnaire, and a stamped envelope to return the completed survey. Collected data were organized in SPSS 13 statistical software so as for analysis. Descriptive statistics were utilized to summarize, organize, and simplify the data (Gravetter, & Wallnau, 1996).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of the data analysis examining relative influence of the 18 factors to determine legislative outcome is provided in this section. Table 1 provides the means and standard deviations for the variables in the study and Table 2 shows analysis of the two-way Factorial ANOVA (2X2) of scores on Variables.

Table 1 Means and standard deviations for the variables in the study.

Var	CC	Const	FI	Gov	IG	LL	LS	Lobby	Media	Relect	Regio	Religi	SA	SofI	SVA	Spons	Time	Trust
M(D)	5.88	4.11	5.66	4.00	4.44	5.66	2.33	4.77	3.44	5.22	5.11	4.11	3.22	3.55	3.22	4.44	5.33	4.55
SD	(.33)	(.92)	(.70)	(1.50)	(1.01)	(1.11)	(.86)	(1.20)	(.72)	(1.09)	(.78)	(1.36)	(1.09)	(1.13)	(.83)	(.88)	(1.50)	(1.13)
F(D)	4.75	4.66	4.91	3.08	4.00	4.33	2.41	4.08	3.66	4.16	5.16	3.91	3.33	4.00	4.00	4.41	4.08	5.75
SD	(2.05)	(1.49)	(1.72)	(1.24)	(1.12)	(2.14)	(1.62)	(1.24)	(1.96)	(1.89)	(1.19)	(2.10)	(1.15)	(.95)	(1.20)	(1.72)	(1.50)	(.96)
M(R)	4.66	5.50	5.87	3.80	3.57	4.52	2.71	3.60	2.25	2.79	3.58	2.57	2.93	4.42	3.49	4.23	4.60	5.60
SD	(1.45)	(1.11)	(.92)	(1.20)	(1.17)	(1.43)	(1.44)	(.95)	(1.03)	(1.42)	(1.37)	(1.38)	(1.18)	(1.16)	(1.22)	(1.37)	(1.32)	(1.07)
F(R)	5.66	6.11	6.55	4.11	3.77	4.88	3.22	3.44	2.77	3.33	4.22	3.11	3.55	5.00	4.44	4.88	5.55	6.44
SD	(1.00)	(1.36)	(.52)	(1.53)	(1.30)	(1.36)	(1.71)	(.88)	(.97)	(1.32)	(1.78)	(1.61)	(1.23)	(1.32)	(1.81)	(1.05)	(1.01)	(.88)

Table 2 *Two-Way Factorial ANOVA (2X2) of scores on Variables*			
Source of Variation	F (Party)	F (Gender)	F(Party X Gender)
Committee Chairs	0.14	0.03	6.77*
Constituents	18.00*	2.99	0.01
Fiscal Impact	10.23*	0.01	6.17*
Governor	1.35	0.73	2.86
Interest Groups	2.74*	0.13	0.97
Legislative Leadership	0.47	1.28	3.93
Legislative Staff	2.08	0.52	0.27
Lobbyists	9.92*	2.20	0.87
Media	9.95*	1.28	0.21
Reelection	15.54*	0.39	3.72
Regionalism	10.32*	0.81	0.57
Religion	7.46*	0.16	0.73
State Agency	0.01	1.19	0.58
Sources of Information	8.26*	2.43	0.04
Sources of voting advice	1.00	5.86*	0.06
Sponsor	0.12	0.65	0.77
Timing	0.95	0.15	8.38*
Trust	8.59*	11.74*	0.35

Impact of Party affiliation on legislators' decision making

Participants scores on the eighteen variables were analyzed using two-way factorial ANOVA (2X2) comparing groups (Republican & Democrats), and gender (see Table 2). There was a significant mean difference for the party affiliation on the following variables:

Constituents: This variable was defined as "Idaho citizens represented by legislators". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 4.43 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 5.58.

Fiscal Impact: This variable was defined as "Amount of money required to implement the proposed legislation, and the fiscal impact on legislators' constituents". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 5.24 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 5.96.

Interest Groups: This variable was clarified for participants as "Examples might include the Idaho Association of Industry and Commerce, Idaho Education Association, Idaho Power, Idaho Conservation League, Idaho State AFL-CIO, Idahoans for Choice in Education". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 4.19 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 3.60.

Lobbyists: This variable was defined as "Individuals who represent outside organizations and who provide information on proposed legislation". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 4.38 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 3.58.

Media: This variable was clarified for participants as "Includes television, radio, and newspapers". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 3.57 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 2.32.

Reelection: This variable was defined as "A factor of influence for legislators who want to be re-elected, or reside in a "swing" district". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 4.62 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 2.86.

Regionalism: This variable was defined as "Area or region of state a legislator represents". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 5.14 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 3.67.

Religion: This variable was defined as "Philosophical beliefs and value systems". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 4.00 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 2.64.

Sources of Information: This variable was defined as "Legislators seek and receive information from sources beyond those who give expert testimony during committee meetings, information meetings, floor debate, and other gatherings. Information may also include written material provided from a variety of individuals and organizations". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 3.81 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 4.50.

Trust: This variable was defined as "Trust provides the foundation upon which many other factors of influence depend. Legislators develop a network of individuals whom they trust both inside and outside the legislature. Individuals who are trusted, respected, and considered to be credible are depended upon by legislators for information and voting advice". Mean score of the legislators affiliated with Democratic party on this variable was 5.24 and for their counterparts in the Republican party was 5.71.

Impact of Gender on legislators' decision making

Analysis of participants scores on the eighteen variables through a two-way ANOVA (2X2) yielded significant mean score differences for gender on the following variables:
Sources of voting advice: Mean score of the male legislators on this variable was 3.36 and for the female legislators was 4.22.
Trust: Mean score of the male legislators on this variable was 5.08 and for the female legislators was 6.10.

Impact of the interaction between Party affiliation and Gender on legislators' decision making

A two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) (2X2) of the participants scores comparing party affiliation and gender indicates that there is a significant interaction effect on the variables- Committee Chairs, Fiscal Impact, and Timing. Descriptive statistics reflecting the interaction effect is shown in Table 1.

Data pertaining to the factors of influence showed trust to be a cornerstone, providing the foundation upon which many other factors of influence depend. Legislators developed a network of individuals whom they trusted both inside and outside the legislature. Individuals who were trusted, respected, and considered to be credible were asked for information and voting advice by legislators.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The state legislature analyzed for this research is considered a citizen legislature, which means most legislators have other careers in their home districts. They are not considered professional, full-time politicians. A national and international study should be undertaken to

determine whether the ranking of these factors of influence are typical or unique. The findings in this study are limited to one state legislature.

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PERCEPTIONS OF DIVERSITY AMONG FACULTY MEMBERS FROM A PREDOMINATELY WHITE AMERICAN SCHOOL DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT

This study examined perceptions about diversity among faculty members serving a predominately White, homogenous region of the United States. A total of 24 teachers, one counselor, and two administrators participated in the investigation. The participants included 5 (19%) males and 22 (81%) females. For all participants in the study, the average number of years working in education was 17. Findings reveal educators' have a narrow understanding of diversity, and primarily connected the concept to ethnic differences. For teachers to be comfortable serving a diverse population, they need to expand their understanding of diversity to more than just teaching and learning about ethnic or cultural differences.

INTRODUCTION

Statistics from the Idaho State Department of Education (2008) show that of the 272, 058 students enrolled during the first period of the 2007-2008 school year, 81.6% were identified as White. Hispanics comprised the next highest ethnicity with 13.98% followed by American Indians (1.6%), Asians (1.24%) Blacks, (1.15%), and Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders (.46%). Based upon this data, it would appear Idaho public schools serve a predominately white, homogenous, population. These statistics also reflect a trend in the region's demographic profile where the data for this study was collected.

Strike (2007) identified three aspects of multiculturalism within an educational context. First, Strike underscores the need for schools to show respect to those who ascribe to different cultural beliefs. To demonstrate respect he states it, "requires an attitude of openness and a willingness to understand what others see, think, and feel, and to be open to appreciation of the work of others" (Strike, 2007, p. 88). Second, he warns educators against owning the curriculum by recommending it be created by and expressed for all stakeholders who must be afforded equal and fair participation in the development process. Third, Strike calls for schools to practice cross-cultural sharing and dialogue with the goal of learning from one another.

METHODOLOGY

The Setting

The setting for this study encompassed a medium-sized, rural public school district located in the northwestern region of the United States. Data collection took place during the 2008-2009 school year, and according to the school district profile, the total number of students

enrolled in the district was 3,725. Of those, 58 (1.5%) were Native American Indian, 24 (0.64% were Asian, 29 (0.77%) were Black, 11 (0.2%) were Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 3,500 (93.9 %) were White, 98 (2.6%) were Hispanic and 5 (0.13%) were unknown. During the time data of data collection, 1,747 (46.65%) qualified for free and reduced meals under the federally subsidized National School Lunch/Breakfast Program. The faculty and staff totaled 650. Of those, 649 were White, and one was Hispanic.

Participants

A total of 24 teachers, one counselor, and two administrators participated in the study. The participants included 5 (19%) males and 22 (81%) females. For all participants in the study, the average number of years working in education was 17.

Respondents from the elementary level included nine teachers and one administrator. Six teachers indicated they taught all subjects, one teacher taught special education, and one taught computer science. At the elementary level, participants' average years of service in education were 18.

Participants from secondary schools included 15 teachers, one administrator and one counselor. Areas of instruction for the secondary teachers covered special education, social studies and Spanish, math, business education, English, science, and physical education. The average years of experience in education were 16. A table located in Appendix A provides a description of each participant.

The Questionnaire Instrument

The questionnaire instrument, comprised of open-ended questions was developed based upon the literature which 1) defined multicultural education; 2) supported the reasons why educators should be concerned about developing a commitment to multicultural education; and 3) presented the professional ethical obligations educators may have in learning about, promoting, and embracing it.

The instrument contained 11 questions and was checked for accuracy and ambiguity by the researchers and two additional content experts. Two teachers who did not participate in the study piloted the survey to check for clarity and give feedback on the amount of time it took to complete it.

Procedure

Following approval from a university Institutional Review Board, and the district's superintendent, the total population of school district certified and classified employees received an electronic correspondence containing a brief introduction, the purpose of contact, and an invitation to participate in the study. Participants were contacted via school district email and given a link to an electronic questionnaire.

The decision to use this data collection format was made because it permitted the researchers to be unobtrusive, and protect the privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity of the participants (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Lavrakas, 2008). At the time the study was conducted, one of the researchers was serving as an assistant principal in the district. Due to the sensitive nature of the information being sought, the researchers wanted to protect the relationship

between the school district leadership team and the participants (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Lavrakas (2008) writes, "Some participants would be reluctant to discuss attitudes and opinions on such topics as race, politics, and religion unless they believed their responses could not be identified to them" (p. 28). Furthermore, "…respondents may be more willing to admit to negative attitudes toward minority groups if the survey is anonymous" (p. 28).

Twenty-four teachers, two administrators, and one counselor took part in the study. The majority of respondents completed the survey online. Seven individuals returned their responses on a paper copy of the survey.

Data Analysis Methods

In this study, the goal was to examine the uniqueness of each participant's understanding of multicultural education, the extent to which educators believed they had professional ethical obligations to promote and incorporate it into their curriculum, and how multicultural education was addressed in their schools. To accomplish this, the researchers selected a data analysis strategy developed by Colaizzi (1978). This method was chosen because to be the most because it combines within-case and across-case analytic strategies.

Analysis of individual responses helped the researchers understand aspects of experience not as individual *units of meaning,* but as part of the pattern formed by the confluence of meanings within individual accounts (Ayres, Kavanaugh & Knafl, 2007). Researchers made sense of each data set and then compared across those accounts to identify themes that were common to all participants' responses (Colaizzi, 1978).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In a region where diversity in terms of race and cultural backgrounds is considered negligible: Core question guided this study was: How educators recognize diversity in their community? In order to gain insight on the perceptions about the descriptions of the community in a region characterized as predominantly White, data were organized into the following themes: a) Poverty; b) Gay; and c) Middle Eastern.

Poverty

Analysis of the data showed the theme of Poverty emerged in the following comments from the participants.

FET15	Rather than give an example from an adult, I want to give one from a child. We have one black student in our class, and while we were studying black history we were talking about where our ancestors had come from. One child was born in Canada, one in Mexico, my family was from Norway. When we got to the one black child in our room, I mentioned that his family had originally come from Africa. Another child in the room blurted out, "He's not black, he's adopted!" Again, in our school, the sub-group is poverty. Our Special Ed. and Title 1 educators are terrific.
MSA-19	Change is a hard thing to accept and everyone accepts change differently. The area in which we live is pretty remote and much of the population is unaccepting of outside influences. Many educators have been part of this for far to long and have not had the opportunity or training needed to truely understand that there are differences in how children are taught and the perception of education in other cultures.
FSC-4	I see students from poverty households and from Hispanic backgrounds in schools that care deeply about student learning and opportunity. I have worked in two such schools in the past 10 years.

FET-21	Poverty is a major cultural influence locally, and is contrasted with the the wealth other students experience. Poverty limits access to enriching experiences such as travel and higher education, and the culture of poverty often includes early childhoods with limited exposure to literature and other language experiences.
FEA-14	We don't have various cultural and ethnic communities on our end of the county. Generally speaking gauging the opinions of different groups of people is sometimes based upon socio-economic beliefs.
FST-13	Of course, it is important to me. But, as I stated, we do not at this time teach to a melting pot of diverse cultures. Our biggest bridge to cross is the problems associated with poverty. I believe we need more professional development to help educators understand and assist children and their families in this position.
FET15	I try to have great communication with parents of the children in my class. Our biggest sub-group in this town is poverty, and we have many programs in place in our school and district to improve communication with low-income parents.

Gay

Analysis of the participants' data showed the theme of Gay emerged in the following comments from the participants.

FET-2	"gay" is the big one around here. It usually happens on the playground. We speak with the students involved and let them know that it is disrepectful to refer to another student in a derogatory manner and that if a student is, in fact, homosexual, it is sexual harrassment to tease or attempt to bully them. They usually indicate they didn't mean that the other student was homosexual but just "weird, stupid, etc." We attempt to teach them to be kind and supportive of all people.
MST-7	I hear the phrase used "that's so gay". I do not like it and let the student know that it is not acceptable to use that term in my classroom.
FST-12	Derogatory use of word "gay" and "retarded." Firmly put a stop to it.
FST-13	The word I hear the most is "gay" being used in a negative manner. I stop and talk to children using this word and discuss with them the importance of understanding the power of the spoken word to wound or heal.
FET-26	I probably don't hear much--it is known it is not acceptable in my class. I hear students using "gay" in the negative, "Jew" to describe someone stingy, questions like "What are you anyway?" in regard to parentage and heritage.
FET-2	I can't speak to that except I have heard my principal have the same conversation with students about the "gay" discussion.

Middle Eastern

Analysis of the participants' data showed the theme of Middle Eastern emerged in the following comments from the participants.

FMT-9	I don't really hear terms. The slang around here is all about the "emo" culture. Occasionally, I hear kids saying how anyone from the middle east should die.

Each year, parents in districts throughout the United States entrust the care of their children with school employees. As educators, we have a choice. We can accept that "there is no problem," as indicated in Allport's groundbreaking work (1954, p. 502). Or, we can apply our framework of professional ethics and be stewards of multicultural education to ensure every child will be free from social injustice despite their unique characteristics.

Marshall and Oliva (2010) make the following assertion, "educational leaders will have the will, the words, the facts, and the guts to make a difference" (p.315). Leadership at the

school and district level that influences multicultural education may provide educators with knowledge of successful strategies to ensure all students are treated with dignity and respect.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The data sample was comprised of predominantly white, female, Euro-Americans. There was only one employee in the school district from a minority group. This may show our data reflects limited points of view. The participants in this study were unique, and the findings cannot be generalized to other schools or districts. Additional data collected from other communities with similar characteristics would generate additional understanding of how educators view the importance of multicultural education.

Recommendations for further study, including the gathering of data from other communities with similar characteristics would generate additional understanding of how educators view the importance of multicultural education. Obtaining educator perceptions about multicultural education from communities that are considered to be more diverse would also be useful. A more in-depth, holistic analysis of curriculum approaches, lesson plans, and observations of school culture would serve to evaluate the degree to which multicultural education is incorporated into the school program.

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LEADERSHIP FOR THE ARTS: THE SORENSEN RENAISSANCE

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ABSTRACT

The intent of this case study was to explore the leadership capacity of teachers to infuse the arts and humanities across the curriculum. The site used for this study housed 346 students in grades kindergarten through six, thirteen classroom teachers, a principal, counselor, and librarian, and remedial, art, music, and physical education specialists to deliver classes in the basic academic core and a variety of concentrated programs focusing on the arts and humanities. A ten item qualitative instrument investigating the perception of teachers about the strengths, challenges, and their commitment to integration of arts and humanities into the core curricula was designed for this study. Data was collected anonymously from eleven faculty members from the school. Results of this study are presently under analysis, and will be discussed at the conference.

INTRODUCTION

Research on arts and humanities education consistently renders positive outcomes for students (Appel, 2006). For example, Appel reports participating in dance influences organization, creativity, non-verbal reasoning, development of individual and collaborative work skills, applications and concepts in mathematics, and learning persistence. Integration of the visual arts improves writing, reasoning abilities, and attention to detail.

The transformation of Sorensen Elementary School into Sorenson Magnet School for the Arts and Humanities in 2007 signified the beginning of a renaissance bringing about change in a long-standing organizational culture. Principal, Jim Gray describes the transformation best, "Academics are now a part of the arts and humanities." To expand, strengthen, and sustain the existing program and synergy, a systemic process is needed for building the leadership capacity (Lambert, 1998) of the faculty, staff, and school community.

The foundation for this proposal is based, in part, upon the work of Daniel Pink. In his seminal book, *A Whole New Mind*, Pink (2005) argues the twentieth century workplace will be dominated, not by the traditional left-brain focus on logic and sequence, but instead on creative and collaborative thinking. Florida (2002) concurs suggesting "human creativity is the ultimate economic resource" (p. xiii). For the most part, educators agree students must be skilled in reading, writing, math, and science to produce a technical workforce. However, like Florida and Pink, Housten (2007) believes the future will not be formed by these individuals, but by "those who can dream bigger and more innovative dreams" (p. 5).

Appel (2006) underscores the benefits of arts integration:

> *Research indicates that arts inclusion enhances cognitive engagement among students; provides a better sense of ownership of learning; improves attention, engagement, attendance and perseverance among students; provides unique avenues for parent and*

community involvement; and inspires transformation of school community and culture (p. 15).

This innovative research adds to the body of knowledge on how the arts can facilitate learning across subjects, and how academics can improve proficiency in the arts. Results from a study conducted by the Stanford Research Institute (2002) indicate education in the arts improves self-confidence and motivation to learn, especially among students with low socio-economic backgrounds and those considered to be at-risk. Stuht and Gates (2007) maintain education in the arts foster the development of higher-order thinking skills by connecting motivation, instruction, assessment, and practical application. An analysis of a program entitled *Learning through the Arts* revealed involvement in the arts gave students a greater opportunity to be fully immersed in learning, and did not compete with achievement in math, reading, or writing (Irwin, Gouzouasis, Grauer, & Leggo, 2006).

Although some may minimize the benefits of arts education, Anderberg and Thomas (2008) warn if the arts are ignored, curriculum will be narrowed, thus hindering students' ability to fully participate in a changing democratic society.

METHODOLOGY

Site

The site used for this study housed 346 students in grades kindergarten through six, thirteen classroom teachers, a principal, counselor, and librarian, and remedial, art, music, and physical education specialists to deliver classes in the basic academic core and a variety of concentrated programs focusing on the arts and humanities. In 2006 Sorensen Elementary School, located in the heart of downtown Coeur d'Alene faced closure due to declining enrollment, low test scores, and neglect of building maintenance. Three distinct community groups merged and presented a convincing case to ensure it remain open. Business leaders wanted to affirm the downtown reflected a youthful vibrancy. Parents desired to maintain the feel of a small neighborhood school. A third group primarily comprised of teachers and an administrator had a vision for creating something new; a magnet school for the arts and humanities. At their January, 2007 meeting, the Coeur d'Alene School District Trustees voted in favor of transforming Sorensen Elementary School into *Sorensen Magnet School for the Arts and Humanities*. Now in its third year, the school has grown to full capacity to deliver classes in the basic academic core and a variety of concentrated programs focusing on the arts and humanities.

Participants and Procedure

A ten item qualitative instrument investigating the perception of teachers about the strengths, challenges, and their commitment to integration of arts and humanities into the core curricula was designed for this study. Data was collected anonymously from eleven faculty members from the school.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To gain insight on the perceptions of teachers about the strengths, challenges, and their commitment to integration of the arts and humanities into the core curricula, open-ended surveys were analyzed. Data were organized into the following themes: a) benefits of education in the arts b) challenges of integrating the arts and humanities into the traditional curriculum; and c) ways to strengthen an arts-based program.

Benefits of education in the arts

When asked how the arts have impacted student learning respondents agreed students were exposed to a more expansive program of study. For example the following comments were offered:

Participant 2: I believe it broadens the student's scope of understanding through multiple representation.

Participant 3: The school has expanded students' outlook on our world and shows them they are a part of something much larger than just Coeur d'Alene.

Participant 4: Students become interested in the connections between arts and the subject they are learning about, which leads them to think more deeply about what they need to know and what they want to know.

Participant 7: I think that arts allow for a deeper experience of any core curriculum. The benefits that arise from involvement in the arts as a byproduct are immeasurable. Arts allow learners to make authentic connections to academic learning and the world around them.

In addition to enhancing academics, teachers acknowledged students seemed to be more motivated and self confident.

Participant 1: Our kids love school. They get to explore many areas which they don't consider a part of a traditional school and make learning more enjoyable.

Participant 3: Experiences that students have at Sorensen undoubtedly improve their self-confidence and motivation to learn.

Participant 9: I have watched huge positive changes develop in terms of student engagement, sense of community, and motivation. Kids are having fun at school. They are excited to learn different art forms and meet "famous" artists. They love coming to school so they work harder.

Participant 11: These students often find a hidden talent and strength in one of these areas which, in turn, motivates them to attend school and improves their self confidence as they become better at their new strength.

Challenges of integrating the arts and humanities into the traditional curriculum

For the faculty at Sorensen Elementary School, integrating the arts into the core curricula has not come without its challenges. Finding time to create flexible schedules, develop lesson plans that effectively integrate the arts into math, science, reading, and social studies, and collaborate with colleagues has proven demanding.

> *Participant 1: We are creating much of what we do and it takes a lot of time and energy. New considerations, schedules, topics, lessons…it is exciting, but not easy.*
>
> *Participant 6: There is less time to plan, when you have more programs for which to make plans.*
>
> *Participant 7: Finding time to do all of the projects and fitting them into the traditional, district required restrictions can also be challenging.*
>
> *Participant 10: Time, there is never enough time to do all that I want to do, but it's worth the challenge. We are constantly busy creating, performing, [and] planning, which can be draining until you watch the kids show you, shy kids, performing. Then it's all worth it.*

Although all of the participants in this study concurred the school had experienced a degree of success, several suggestions were offered to strengthen the program. Reeves (2007) attests, "Wise teachers of history, English, science, and math know that music, art, and dance can form powerful visual, auditory, and kinesthetic associations that help students learn essential content and concepts (p. 81). Sorensen's success is largely attributed to the dedication, enthusiasm, and extraordinary talent exhibited by the staff. Nevertheless they face complex challenges on how to fully integrate arts and humanities into the core curricula. The essence of this project can be summarized in the words of Klein and Diket (1999), "Art, like leadership, has the power to inspire, transform, heal and connect us to something larger than ourselves (p. 25).

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THE TRANSFORMATION EXPERIENCE OF INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL: MBA STUDENTS GO TO SPAIN

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ABSTRACT

Multicultural experiences and international travel have become staples of many MBA programs. Exposure to foreign cultures and businesses are important to the educational foundation of future business leaders, especially as it relates to a global economy. Research in this area has supported the positive aspects of this exposure. This paper extends that research by attempting to capture the some of the differences in perceptions that international travel has had on students.

This study focuses on MBA students who traveled to Madrid, Spain to satisfy the international travel component of their program. Pre- and post-trip surveys asked students why they decided to go to Spain and what their perceptions were regarding Spanish culture and business practices. When combined, the results of the two surveys present a picture of the impact the international travel experience had on their views.

BACKGROUND

It is widely accepted that exposure to foreign cultures and business practices are key ingredients to the success of a 21st Century educational business program. Now that industry and commerce are no longer limited by national boundaries, an understanding of how the customs of various countries affect business practice is essential. Thinking that business practices that work in the United States will work in other cultural environments can ultimately lead to business failure in those countries. These customs relate to how employees within a company interact with each other and to how customers in those countries relate to business practices. The best way for a student to gain an appreciation of these differences is to experience it for one's self by traveling and studying in a culture that differs significantly from their own.

This study examines the change in student perceptions that result from travel to a foreign culture to satisfy the international experience component of an MBA program. Many of the students satisfy this international component by traveling (as a class) to Spain. Some students cannot travel due to family or work commitments and satisfy the requirement by an on-campus seminar, but this option fails to place students out of their "comfort zone." For those who took the Spain option, surveys were administered immediately prior to and after the travel.

The Spain Experience

The MBA trip to Spain covers a period of 11 days (including 1 ½ days for travel). In Spain, students spend 5 ½ days in classes at a Madrid University and 1 ½ days visiting Spanish businesses. The remainder of the time may be used by students, individually or in groups, exploring Madrid and/or visiting other Spanish cities.

When Francisco Franco was King of Spain, the use or teaching of English was forbidden. Although Spain is now a democracy, the anti-English language sentiment has persisted. As a result students experienced strong language barriers. Students encountered these barriers in restaurants, in shopping areas, and in their attempts to travel to other parts of Spain, many relying on a very limited vocabulary.

The university in Spain provides a series of European professors with different specialties. These professors coordinated their lectures which provided a lock-step presentation approach. Whereas the MBA program at home primarily uses a case-based approach, the professors at the Spanish university use a more European style lecture approach. Although the professors in Spain indicated that student questions were welcomed, they allowed little time for questions and the answers provided were relatively brief.

THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

A pre-trip survey was administered to the students at the airport prior to their departure for Spain. The survey focused on three areas; why the students chose the Spain option, their views on business practices in Spain, and their views on the European educational experience. A follow-up survey was administered at the end of the trip to determine how their pre-trip perceptions may have changed based upon their individual experiences.

The first set of questions examined which factors influenced their decision to go to Spain. The second set of questions examined their pre-trip expectations regarding elements of the Spanish travel experiences and how well these expectations were met by their actual experiences. The third set of questions (post-trip only) examined the students' comparison of the Spanish university educational system with that of their home University.

RESULTS

The 22 students in the survey elected to travel to Spain rather than satisfying the international component of their MBA program through the on-campus seminar. The pre-trip questions concerned the factors why they chose the Spain option. The responses ranged from 0 – 7, with zero being an isolated response "Not a factor at all," 1 being "Minimally Important" and 7 being "Highly Important." The post-trip survey asked the respondents to how successful they the trip was related to each factor cited. The students were split on their evaluation of learning from faculty at another university. Although the mean response was .57 higher on the post-trip survey, there were nine who rated this experience higher versus seven who rated it lower. Those who rated it higher indicated that they enjoyed the related flow of the lectures while those who rated it lower focused on the fact that there was little open discussion with the faculty.

The biggest difference was the practice of language skills. This was the lowest rated factor in the pre-trip surveys; the rating increased the most of the four factors on the post-trip

surveys. It appears that when the students were immersed into a culture where English was seldom spoken, the students were forced to expand their limited Spanish conversation skills.

EVALUATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO WHY STUDENTS CHOSE THE SPAIN OPTION

Factor	Pre-Trip Mean	Post -Trip Mean	Number of Responses Increasing	Number of Responses Increasing
Opportunity to Learn From Faculty at another University	4.91	5.48	9	7
Practice My Language Skills	3.05	5.00	8	8
See Business Practices in Spain	5.23	4.28	5	13
Make Business Connections with Individuals	4.18	4.00	4	15

Views on Spanish Business Practices

Prior to the trip, students were assigned readings on the current economic conditions in Spain. These conditions include an economy on the decline, high unemployment rates for young adults, and good benefits for the retired population. The students were also advised that very few Spanish citizens spoke English or even tried to converse in English. These same topics were included as part of the curriculum at the Spanish university so that students would understand the effects of these items on Spanish business practices.

These questions used a Likert scale ranging from one to seven. For each question, the pre-trip mean and the post-trip mean were recorded and the number of students whose responses changed either in a positive or negative direction is noted. The following sections of this paper examine these responses. The tables beginning on the next page show the results of the pre-trip and post-trip surveys.

The questions can be further broken down by the type exposure the students had regarding the question subject. The number of hours worked (question 1) and the level of business practices (question 5) were discussed in the classroom and experienced in person as the students explored Madrid and outlying areas of Spain. Employee benefits (question 2), government regulation (question 3), and tax burden (question 4) were items one does not normally observe in a tourist capacity. The students' responses to questions concerning meeting Spanish employees (question 6) and Spanish people in non-work settings (question 7) were most likely influenced by their casual observations as they ate, shopped and traveled in the area.

For questions two through four, concerning employee benefits, government regulation, and the tax burden on business, there were only slight changes in the mean responses, with the highest change being .09 (question 4). For the pre-trip survey, they had only the suggested readings about the economic situation in Spain, and for the post-trip survey, they had the benefit of the Spanish classroom instruction and company visits. This result provides an indication that students prepared properly for the trip by finishing the suggested readings and that the readings were fairly consistent with the information provided in the classroom.

For questions one and five, concerning number of hours worked and Spanish business practices respectively, the change in the mean responses were higher. Concerning the number of hours worked by the Spanish work force (question 1) compared to that in the United States, the students in both surveys rated the Spanish people as working less. The difference in the mean

response (.76) indicates that the observed number of hours worked by Spanish employees was greater than what the students initially expected. Just the opposite is true on the question concerning how business practices compare to that of the U.S. (question 5). The mean response decreased by (.5) on the two surveys which indicates that the gap concerning business practices was much greater than the students anticipated.

QUESTIONS RELATING TO SPANISH CULTURE AND BUSINESS PRACTICES

#	1	4	7	Pre-trip	Post-trip
1	Spanish employees work *considerably fewer hours per year* than their U.S. counterparts	Spanish employees work *about the same hours per year* as their U.S. counterparts	Spanish employees work *considerably more hours per year* than their U. S. .counterparts	N = 22 Mean = 2.55	N = 22 Mean = 3.32
2	Spanish employees receive *considerably fewer benefits* than their U.S. counterparts	Spanish employees receive *about the same benefits* as their U.S. counterparts	Spanish employees receive *considerably more benefits* than their U.S. counterparts	N = 22 Mean = 5.00	N = 22 Mean = 4.95
3	Government regulation of business in Spain is *considerably less intrusive* than in the U.S.	Government regulation of business in Spain is *about as intrusive as it is* in the U.S.	Government regulation of business in Spain is *considerably more intrusive* than in the U.S.	N = 22 Mean = 4.82	N = 22 Mean = 4.91
4	Spanish businesses face *a lower tax burden* than businesses in the U.S.	Spanish and U.S. businesses *face about the same tax burden*	Spanish businesses face *a higher tax burden* than businesses in the U.S.	N = 22 Mean = 4.95	N = 22 Mean = 4.86
5	Spanish business practices are *less advanced* than in the United States	Spanish and U.S. business practices are *equally advanced*	Spanish business practices are *more advanced* than in the United States	N = 22 Mean = 3.27	N = 22 Mean = 2.77
6	The Spanish employees I meet will be *less customer oriented* than their U.S. counterparts	Spanish and U.S. business employees are *equally customer oriented*	The Spanish employees I meet will be *more customer oriented* than their U.S. counterparts	N = 22 Mean = 3.45	N = 22 Mean = 1.64
7	Spanish people I will meet in non-work settings will be *less friendly* than those in the U.S. employees	Spanish and U.S. people I meet in non-work settings are *equally friendly*	Spanish people I will meet in non-work settings will be *more friendly* than those in the U.S. employees	N = 22 Mean = 4.36	N = 22 Mean = 3.23

The largest changes in means from the pre-trip to the post-trip surveys concerned the orientation of Spanish employees towards customers (question 6) and the friendliness of the Spanish people (question 7). Initially, the students thought that the Spanish people were slightly friendlier than Americans, but after exposure in everyday life, that perception turned decidedly negative (with a decrease in mean of 1.13). The most dramatic mean change concerned the perception of Spanish business practices toward customers. The mean decreased by 1.81 indicating that the students found Spanish business to be far ruder to them than they originally thought it would be. The dramatic change in means for these two questions are likely tied to the

fact that most Spanish people do not speak English and a large majority of the students did not speak Spanish.

Comparison of the Spanish University with That of Their Home University

The third set of questions asked students to compare their experience at the Spanish university to their home university. In general, the students appear to have been disappointed with their overall university experience in Spain. Questions eight and nine refer to the instructional style and the overall level of education of the two schools (Spain vs. home). As noted previously, the professors at the Spanish university left little time in their presentations for questions or discussion. In contrast, questions and discussions are welcomed and encouraged and their home university. This major difference in pedagogical styles was evident as shown by the extremely low mean for question eight. The students rated the overall education level of the Spanish university lower than that of their home university (question 9), but were not as negative in this rating as they were in question eight.

QUESTIONS RELATING TO THE EUROPEAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

#	1	4	7	Post-trip only
8	The class sessions held in Madrid were *less interactive* than those at my home university	The class sessions held in Madrid were *as interactive* as those at my home university	The class sessions held in Madrid were *more interactive* than those at my home university	N = 22 Mean = 2.13
9	The overall level of educational quality at the school in Madrid was *worse* than at my home university	The overall level of education quality at the school in Madrid was *about the same* as at my home university	The overall level of educational quality at the school in Madrid was *better* than at my home university	N = 22 Mean = 3.14

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, students had mixed feelings concerning their experiences in Spain. For the first seven questions related to Spanish business and cultural behaviors, some means increased and some means decreased. A change in one direction or the other is not of major importance. What is important is that there were changes, indicating that their experience changed their views. For those questions (two through four) where the students were given preliminary readings regarding the Spanish economy, the means changed only slightly, indicating that the students were relatively well-prepared for what they learned in the classroom. For the remaining seven questions (one and five through ten), the change in means was more dramatic. Each of these questions related to actual events encountered on the trip.

Despite the fact that students a) encountered language barriers and differences in customs, and b) did not look favorably upon the teaching style and accommodations of the Spanish university setting, they strongly indicated that the travel experience was superior to an on-campus seminar. Such a strong recommendation provides evidence that the international trip is successful in introducing students to a different culture and customs and demonstrating how those differences influence the conduct of business in foreign countries.

NONTRADITIONAL ADULT MASTERS DEGREE STUDENTS AND THEIR CHOICE OF PROGRAM OF STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The present study examines nontraditional, adult graduate students' demographic profile and relates this to their enrollment in a graduate program of study. We survey 407 students enrolled in either a master of business, healthcare, leadership or a combination program offered by a Southern university at two different campuses. Our findings show greater diversity than earlier research. Our findings are useful to academicians and employers wanting to know the demographic profile of nontraditional business, health care, and leadership graduate students and how this relates to their program of study.

E-READERS V. TRADITIONAL PRINT MEDIA ON CAMPUS: GENDER DIFFERENCES AND CHALLENGES TO BE OVERCOME

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ABSTRACT

Historically, males have been more open to technological change and adoption. This pattern runs the gamut, and includes products as well as online applications. For example, early tests with e-books (essentially, books available via websites) were welcomed more readily by males than were females. A survey was conducted in early 2010 among college students to assess whether differences still occur between males and females, as well as to measure perceptions of traditional print media versus the emerging market of e-reader devices. These e-readers are, in some predictions, the future of textbook and course material delivery, but are yet to be embraced by either male or female college students. Results of the study showed that, among the students surveyed, no significant differences exist between males and females in their perceptions of or willingness to use such products, but overall, students feel that traditional print media is still better than e-readers.

INTRODUCTION

Starting in 2009, there was a quiet revolution in the e-reading world. Amazon introduced two new versions of its Kindle e-reader, and Sony introduced one with wireless technology. Barnes & Noble introduced an online library with several compatible e-readers, including its popular Nook. E-book sales have increased astronomically, from fairly flat annual sales below $10 million per year from 2002 through the end of 2005 to reported sales of nearly $91 million in the first quarter alone of 2010; a 70 percent increase over the previous quarter's sales. (Lebert, 2009.)

eBooks and eReaders are becoming increasingly appealing to universities in light of the rising cost of traditional textbooks and the need to engage a new generation of learners. It is important, therefore, to explore the perceptions that college students have about eReader technology and potential adoption patterns. This paper further explores gender differences related to eReader expectations, perceptions and benefits sought.

METHODOLOGY AND HYPOTHESES

A survey of college students at a regional Division II school was conducted in February 2010. The survey was comprehensive in that it included social media usage, smartphone ownership and apps downloading, attitudes toward social media, and perceptions of eReaders. The volunteer sample resulted in 141 undergraduate students between the ages of 18 and 40 completing the survey, with nearly equal representation among males and females.

It should be noted that, at the time, only three major brands of eReader were available on the market (Kindle, Sony and Nook), but there was much hyper concerning the then-future release of the Apple iPad. The existing products were rather limited in usage, relying on 3G automatic downloads of purchases and subscriptions. There were no apps available for these products, and the graphical user interface was simplistic compared to what was to become available in the iPad.

Essentially, the market consisted of very basic portable eReaders that delivered text and little more. Those existing products retailed for $200-$300, while the forthcoming iPad started at $499 and offered many of the benefits of the iPhone and iPad Touch. Because of the advertising and media hype surrounding the impending new product introduction, students were highly likely to have been exposed to product information, and thus brought this into the survey environment. Only 7 students reported owning an eReader at the time of the survey.

Students were asked to report the number of books they read per year (not including text books), the number of magazines read in a month, the frequency of reading a daily newspaper, and their desire (on a scale of 0 -100) of owning an e-reader. Finally, students were asked to rate (each on a scale of 0 – 100) both traditional print media and eReaders along six product attributes (Ease of Us, Readability, Tactile Quality, Portability, Retaining Personal Copy and Price).

Gender differences have historically existed in both media consumption and technology usage. These differences forming the bases for many of our hypothesized relationships. Based on the literature and data reported above, we hypothesize that female college students will be more frequent users of print media in the forms of newspapers, magazines and books. Thus:

H1a: Females will read more books per year than males.
H1b: Females will read more magazines per month than males.
H1c: Females will read more newspapers per week than males.

In spite of data showing greater female consumption of written media vis-à-vis males, males have historically been first movers with technological products. We thus hypothesize that men will have a significantly higher desire to own an eReader than will females. Thus:

H2: Males will report a higher desire to own an e-reader than males.

Because of the gender differences in usage and technology reported above, we hypothesize that females will have significantly higher evaluations of print media attributes than will males, but that males will have significantly higher evaluations of eReader attributes than will females. Thus:

H3a – H3f: Females will rate traditional print media significantly higher than males along the six attributes evaluated.

H4a – H4f: Males will rate eReaders significantly higher than females along the six attributes evaluated.

Finally, based on the results of field usage of eBooks in a campus setting, we hypothesize that combined male-female evaluations of six attributes of print media will be significantly higher than evaluations for eReaders. Thus:

H5a – H5f: Overall paired-comparison evaluations of the six attributes will be higher for traditional print media than for e-readers.

RESULTS

While usage of print media among this college student sample is low, females were shown to read significantly more books per year than do males, while males read significantly more newspapers per week than do females. T-tests for independent means were calculated for each of the three sets of means. There was no significant differences in the reported monthly consumption of magazines. We thus reject H1a and H1b, while retaining H1c.

Overall, students did not express much desire to own an eReader, with females reporting a mean score of 39 out of 100, and males 32 out of 100. A t-test for independent means was calculated for each group. While these scores are very low and do not hold much promise for this market, these means are significantly different at the p=0.05 level. We thus retain H2.

T-tests for independent means were calculated for the evaluations of traditional print media and eReaders along six product dimensions. These yielded only one significant difference (females perceiving Ease of Use as being much higher for traditional print media, compared to how males rated this attribute). We thus retain H3a, while rejecting H3b – H3f and H4a – H4f.

Finally, paired comparisons were made for scores assigned to the six product attributes for traditional print media and eReaders. T-test pairs were calculated for these comparisons, with four of the comparisons yielding significant results in the hypothesized direction . We thus retain H5a, H5c, H5e and H5f, while rejecting H5b and H5d.

DISCUSSION

This study is limited in that it was conducted on only one college campus, and may not be representative of college students in general. The sample itself was rather homogeneous, with few minority groups represented. Still, the sample and the campus in general are representative of the local population in which the campus is located. Future studies should seek to include students from a variety of campuses across regions, seeking greater balance among ethnic and income groups.

Furthermore, while eReaders have a high degree of applicability in a campus setting, textbooks (price, size, ownership options, etc.) were not specifically included in the study, which focused in a more general sense on the attributes of e-readers to deliver any otherwise printed material. Thus, it could be fruitful to further explore how the inclusion of textbooks (both printed and in electronic format) might influence student perceptions of these devices.

The sample itself, while providing sufficient numbers of subjects for statistical purposes, is small. In future efforts to broaden the scope of the sample, a greater number of participants overall is also desirable

Finally, there were no eReaders for students to manipulate or try. The current study measured perceptions of a device that for most students existed outside their range of ownership. Still, given the amount of advertising and publicity surrounding both the then-existing eReaders

and the ones to come, it is fairly certain that survey participants had a high degree of exposure to the product category, even if only in concept.

More importantly, the findings from this study indicate that, while males and females appear to have converged in their perceptions and willingness to try a technological product such as the eReader, there are many hurdles to be spanned before students embrace them. For example, in the minds of these students, traditional print media far surpass eReaders on five of six dimensions. Portability is the only attribute perceived to be more or less equal between both media vehicles.

Furthermore, the price attribute produced the greatest disparity in student comparisons, in spite of the fact that in the long run, books would be cheaper in electronic format. It is the initial start-up cost for jumping to a new format that apparently causes much concern for these students.

Implications for higher education include the possibility of institutions providing eReaders to students in an effort to help them overcome their hesitations toward the product. If students can avoid the price issue, perhaps their perceptions of other relevant attributes will improve for the eReader, specifically overcoming Ease of Use apprehensions.

Once Price and Ease of Use are overcome, it is possible that student perceptions of Readability and Tactile Quality will change for the better. Thus, it is possible that the biggest hurdles to gaining widespread acceptance of eReaders on-campus may in fact be related to whether institutions can simply put one in the hands of each student. The benefits of the device will only begin to accrue to users once they have gained experience with it.

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BRIDGING THE GAP: THE ROLE OF OUTREACH PROGRAMS IN GRANTING COLLEGE ACCESS TO FIRST GENERATION STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This paper represents findings of a college outreach program that targeted first generation students to help bridge their path to college education. The study examined outreach program participant' actual college attendance with their stated intentions to attend college while they were still 11th graders. The targeted population was 118 high school juniors who participated in a three-week business camp in 2007 and 2008. The camp introduced them to various topics in business education and helped them overcome issues that restrict their college ambitions. A follow up of the program's former participating students revealed that 95 % of 2007and 2008 participants are actually attending college as compared to 97% who indicated their intention to go to college. The study concluded that attending the summer business program motivates students to attend college. However, the study did not find a positive correlation between attending a summer business program and majoring in a business discipline.

INTRODUCTION

REACH Business Camp is an initiative by the College of Business and Public Management at the University of La Verne with a clear vision of reaching out to first generation, underserved junior high school students. The objective of this program is to put college within the reach of any student no matter how unattainable a goal it may seem, by giving them a taste of college life and study with dormitory stay, targeted, extra-curricular activities, and business classes instructed by the University's undergraduate and graduate business faculty. The choice of subject matter was determined by the pool of students electing to attend the program. That is, interested students indicated an existing interest in business studies but were not sure about acting on that interest due to lack of financial resources to attend college and/or not being familiar with the steps involved in successfully applying to colleges and for financial aid.

The program has gained a reputation of being among the best programs in motivating high school students to pursue college education as measured by the program's graduating students' inclinations to attend college (96% in 2007, 98% in 2008, 98% in 2009, and 98% in 2010), and by the demand to add more students from the existing, participating districts and other school districts who want to be part of it in the future.

Over the past 4 years more than 200 juniors from various Inland Southern California high schools participated in this three-week long program. Students were nominated by one or more of their school career counselors, teachers, assistant principles, or principles to participate in the program. Students were also interviewed by the program director to make sure they fit the program's criteria which included: (1) Students having shown an interest in business education

but being at risk of not pursuing that interest at the university level; and (2) Students having the aptitude and discipline to pursue a university education (indicated by a grade point average of 2.5 or higher, and involvement in some extracurricular activities including service to the community or to school, but being discouraged because of (a) financial issues, (b) family commitments, and (c) not having considered attending university.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This paper represents a follow-up study on former REACH Summer Business participants to examine participants' actual attendance of college as compared to their stated intentions to attend college when they were 11th graders. The targeted population was 118 high school juniors who participated in a three-week business camp in 2007 and 2008 that introduced them to various topics in business education. It is the purpose of this paper to determine whether REACH business camp can affect first generation students' decision to actually attend college in order to determine program applicability and effectiveness within said sample. Accordingly, this paper addresses the following research questions:

1. Is there a positive relationship between participation in the summer business camp and students' college attendance?
2. Is there a positive relationship between participation in the summer business camp and majoring in a business discipline?

LITERATURE REVIEW

A complete literature review is a part of the actual paper

FINDINGS

As the main objective of REACH business camp is to provide first generation "underserved" 11th graders a taste of college and help nurturing them, the findings for the proposed research questions based on the aforementioned discussions may be summarized as follows:

Finding 1: There is a positive relationship between participation in the summer business camp and college attendance.

Finding 2: While during the participants' selection process students showed desire to study business, there is no relationship between participation in the summer business camp and majoring in business.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATION, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Conclusion, limitations and implications for future research is a part of the actual paper.

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AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF ALTERNATIVE PERFORMANCE MEASURES WITHIN UNIVERSITY BUSINESS SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

College guides produced annually by U.S. News and World Report, Peterson's and others have used a variety of measures to evaluate and help identify the best universities for consideration by prospective students along with their parents and others that might influence the college selection decision. The measures include average class size and similar measures (percentage of classes below a certain size, percentage of classes above a certain size, student/faculty ratio) and proportion of faculty that are terminal. These particular measures serve as a sort of proxy measure for university performance in terms of student learning. They are used by evaluators of universities as an indication of a classroom climate that might be more likely or less likely to facilitate learning. In terms of student learning, the proposition by the college guides is that smaller class sizes and terminally qualified faculty should lead to greater student learning. Universities, then, with lower class sizes and more terminally qualified faculty are judged to be the better performing universities (in terms of student learning).

Employing a national survey of department chairs at AACSB business schools, we extend earlier research by examining the possible role of class size (lower division, upper division, and graduate) and terminal faculty percentages as proxy performance measures within higher education. We calculate and report Pearson correlations for the three class size measures along with the terminal faculty measure and other performance measures (overall performance, employee organizational commitment, and esprit de corps) used previously (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993) and reworded for use within the higher education context.

Following from previous research into the impact of market orientation on performance within higher education (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990; Hammond, Webster, and Harmon 2006), we also examine the possible impact of market orientation on class size and terminal faculty percentages. Similarly to the method used by Jaworski and Kohli (1993), we regress lower division class size, upper division class size, graduate class size, and terminal faculty percentage on market orientation. We employ separate regression equations for each of the independent variables. To measure market orientation toward students, we used the Narver and Slater (1990) scale as reworded and employed by Hammond, Webster, and Harmon (2006) within higher education. The three components of market orientation (student "customer" orientation, competitor orientation, coordination) are calculated and employed separately in the regression equations. Results of the equations are provided.

Conclusions are discussed. Limitations and implications for future research are provided.

STARTEGIES FOR INTEGRATING IFRS INTO THE ACCOUNTING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

During the past decade, efforts to globalize financial accounting standards have accelerated not only globally, but also in the U.S. In fact, within the next five years, the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) likely will require that public companies in the U.S. switch from U.S. Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) to International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS). Mitigating this tremendous change is the FASB/IASB convergence project, which brings significant changes to financial reporting even if, contrary to expectations, the SEC decides not to mandate the use of IFRS. Accounting educators should take action immediately and prepare their students for this tremendous change, which will affect not only accounting, but also core financial aspects of all public companies.

This study discusses strategies for motivating students to learn about IFRS, presents IFRS material that realistically can be integrated alongside U.S. GAAP in the first accounting course, and includes a list of valuable resources for educators and students to help keep abreast of current developments.

INTRODUCTION

Financial reporting in the U.S. is changing drastically. Within the next five years, U.S. public companies likely will have to switch from U.S. Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) to International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS). When this event occurs, the U.S. will join the more than 120 nations worldwide that currently require or permit the use of IFRS for financial reporting. The U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), which has the legal authority to promulgate accounting standards for financial reporting in the U.S., and the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB), to whom the SEC delegated most of the standards setting process, support these efforts.

The ultimate authority to mandate or permit the use of IFRS in the U.S. rests with the SEC, which recently has taken very significant steps to support global standards. In fact, in 2007, the SEC issued a new rule that, for the first time, permitted non-U.S. companies that raise funds on U.S. capital markets to choose between IFRS and U.S. GAAP when filing financial reports. In 2008, the SEC issued a "Roadmap" (SEC, 2008) that proposed a phased-in adoption of IFRS by U.S. public companies. In February of 2010, the SEC issued an update, reaffirming its commitment to the potential adoption of IFRS and including a detailed work plan to facilitate and further this goal.

Accounting students must be aware of what is on the horizon and must begin to learn detail about IFRS. Business students must understand the information presented in companies' financial statements, be aware of expected changes in U.S. financial accounting and reporting rules, and implications of such changes for business entities and financial statement users. Educators play a crucial role in helping students learn about IFRS and its effect on financial statement preparers and users. This study discusses strategies for the integration of IFRS in the

accounting curriculum and presents teaching materials as well as information on additional resources that can be used for the successful integration of IFRS into accounting classes.

MOTIVATING STUDENTS TO LEARN ABOUT IFRS

Successful integration into the accounting program depends on students' motivation to learn about IFRS. Educators can help motivate students to learn about IFRS by impressing upon them the benefits of such knowledge. The most important reasons why IFRS should be integrated even prior to the SEC's decision to mandate the use of IFRS are: (1) the FASB/IASB Convergence project, (2) the planned integration of IFRS into the CPA exam in 2011, and (3) the positive effect of knowledge of IFRS on students' career opportunities.

Since signing their "memorandum of understanding" in 2002, the FASB and IASB have been working together very closely toward the goal of developing global standards (FASB, 2002). The boards' "convergence project has and continues to affect both U.S. GAAP, as well as IFRS. The article further identifies five projects that will affect "...virtually every industry and company" (Gallagher, 2010, 19). The primary purpose of the projects is to bring U.S. GAAP and IFRS closer to together, to eliminate differences and to ultimately develop global accounting standards (FASB, 2002). By the end of the year 2011, the two boards plan to issue ten new joint standards addressing core financial accounting topics that will very significantly change both U.S. GAAP and IFRS. A recent article in F*inancial Executive International,* emphasizes that the FASB/IASB joint projects have "significant business and operational implications and will require considerable lead time" (Gallagher, 2010, 19).

The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA) announced that starting in January 1, 2011, IFRS is eligible for testing on the CPA exam (AICPA, 2010). The extent to which IFRS questions will be asked and the nature of the questions has not been disclosed. Knowledge of IFRS will thus help students perform well on the CPA exam.

More than 120 nations currently require or permit the use of IFRS for financial reporting. The global prevalence of IFRS and the relative lack of IFRS knowledge in the U.S. will create career opportunities both the in U.S. and abroad for those graduates who are knowledgeable about IFRS. In the U.S., multinational companies, accounting firms who provide services to multinational entities, and organizations that deal with global companies are currently seeking professionals that are knowledgeable about IFRS. This trend will accelerate sharply during the next few years, particularly if all U.S. public companies must adopt IFRS.

Prospective employers are very well aware of this fact. For example, PwC, one of the largest global public accounting firms already considers awareness and knowledge of IFRS an important aspect during their interviewing process in the U.S. Specifically, PwC expects that sophomores who have completed at least one accounting course and are interviewing for an internship should possess a "pre-awareness of IFRS" and its potential importance to their careers; PwC expects that juniors applying for internships or full-time accounting positions exhibit knowledge of IFRS background, including regulatory issues, global use, as well as knowledge of some key differences between IFRS and U.S. GAAP (PwC, 2009). Opportunities will also arise abroad for accounting and business graduates. U.S. GAAP is country specific; students who wish to work for or with global companies will need to learn IFRS. Educators who proactively integrate IFRS into their classes will help students acquire internationally applicable knowledge and gain significant competitive advances in the career market.

INTRODUCING IFRS TO STUDENTS

Successful integration of IFRS into the curriculum begins with an effective strategy to allow for sufficient exposure to IFRS without jeopardizing the continuing coverage of U.S. GAAP. In their 2008 survey of accounting faculty, KPMG and the American Accounting Association found that the most cited key challenges associated with integrating IFRS into the accounting curriculum were: (1) the development of curriculum material (79%) and (2) finding time in the class schedule (72%).

While accounting majors need to acquire detailed knowledge of IFRS, all business students, who typically complete one or two financially-oriented courses as part of their business core, need to know about IFRS and understand the implications of IFRS for business organizations and financial statement users. Specifically, in the first financial accounting course, business and accounting majors should learn about: (1) current significant developments in financial reporting with respect to IFRS and the FASB/IASB convergence project, (2) the SEC's regulatory actions regarding IFRS, (3) the advantages and challenges of adopting IFRS, (4) the likely overall effect of IFRS on companies' financial statements, and (5) some major current differences between IFRS and U.S. GAAP. Each of these objectives is addressed in more detail in the next section.

TEACHING STRATEGIES AND MATERIAL

During the first week of class, instructors should build awareness of IFRS and briefly discuss the trend toward global accounting standards; the current regulatory environment; and the benefits of IFRS for companies, financial statement users, and professionals. Throughout the quarter, while covering accounting topics consistent with U.S. GAAP, instructors should refer to significant current differences between U.S. GAAP and IFRS, and indicate the overall likely financial statement effect. Coverage of IFRS in that manner requires about ten to 15 minutes each week.

<u>Current developments in financial reporting - IFRS</u>

- Many countries have moved away from country-specific accounting standards. Instead, IFRS are emerging as global accounting standards.
- IFRS are issued by the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) (website: iasb.org); Headquartered in London, England; 15 member board, expanding to 16 in 2011
- Currently, 120 nations permit or require the use of IFRS for financial reporting
    - All European public companies listed on European exchanges must use IFRS
    - Canada and Japan are adopting IFRS in 2011
- U.S. is considering to adopt IFRS
- The FASB and the IASB are working together – Memorandum of Understanding (Norwalk Agreement) signed in 2002
    - The FASB/IASB convergence project eliminated many differences between U.S. GAAP and IFRS
    - The boards are still working on a number of projects

<u>Recent regulatory actions</u>

- In 2007, the SEC issued a rule to allow non-U.S. SEC registrants to use IFRS when reporting to the SEC
- In 2008, the SEC issued its "Roadmap for the Potential Use of Financial Statements Prepared in Accordance With International Financial Reporting Standards By U.S. Issuers" (SEC, 2008)

- In 2010, SEC issued an update "Commission Statement in Support of Convergence and Global Accounting Standards" and accompanied "Work plan." (SEC, 2010)
- SEC plans to make a final decision in 2011

Potential benefits and challenges of IFRS adoption

- Enhanced access to global financial markets; potentially lower cost of capital
- Lower financial reporting costs for global companies
- Globally transferable knowledge for accounting professionals
- Enhanced career opportunities for professionals knowledgeable about IFRS
- High initial cost of adopting IFRS
- Need to convert accounting information systems
- Staff training and investor education

Significant current differences between U.S. GAAP and IFRS

- IFRS is more principles-based, while U.S. GAAP is more rules-based
- The LIFO inventory method is prohibited
- Property, plant and equipment and intangibles can be revalued to market value
- Extraordinary item is not a valid category under IFRS
- Development costs may be capitalized under IFRS but not U.S. GAAP

Expected Overall Effect of IFRS on Financial Statements of U.S. Companies

- Tends to increase income (if companies switch away from LIFO)
- Tends to increase assets and stockholders' equity (if property, plant, and equipment are writing up to market value)

IFRS RESOURCES FOR EDUCATORS AND STUDENTS

Disseminating and analyzing IFRSs, discussion memorandums and exposure drafts issued by the IASB and FASB takes a significant amount of time. Fortunately, excellent sources of information that help educators understand the key provisions of new accountant standards are available. Each "Big Four" accounting firm has dedicated a specific webpage to IFRS education. These websites are:

- Deloitte: http://www.iasplus.com/dttpubs/pubs
- Ernst & Young: http://www.ey.com/US/en/Issues/IFRS
- KMG: http://www.kpmginstitutes.com/ifrs-institute
- PricewaterhouseCoopers: http://www.pwc.com/us/en/faculty-resource/ifrs-ready

In addition, professional organizations, such as the AICPA have created IFRS websites (IFRS.com) that also provide valuable resources. Finally, the IASB and FASB also have public webcasts and updates that both students and educators can listen to. In addition, instructors and students can periodically access the SEC's website (SEC.gov) to keep abreast of regulatory developments.

CONCLUSIONS

Given the strong possibility that U.S. public companies will have to switch from U.S. GAAP to IFRS and because of the changes arising from the FASB/IASB convergence project, educators should begin integrating IFRS into their accounting courses. This study discusses strategies for the integration of IFRS in the accounting curriculum and presents teaching materials as well as information on additional resources that can be used for the successful integration of IFRS into accounting classes.

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WHAT IS YOUR ROA? AN INVESTIGATION OF THE MANY FORMULAS FOR CALCULATING RETURN ON ASSETS

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ABSTRACT

This paper compares the eleven different versions of computing return on assets that can be found in current business textbooks. To illustrate the practical differences between the different versions, each version of ROA is calculated for eight slightly different example firms. The results are then compared and analyzed. Pros and cons are then discussed for each version of ROA. A practical ROA taxonomy is proposed to organize the several different versions and to improve comparability.

INTRODUCTION

A recent study by Mankin and Jewell (2010) of ratios in 77 current business textbooks made several interesting discoveries. The study included accounting, finance, management, marketing, and financial statement analysis textbooks. Two of the most interesting points are as follows. First, textbook authors are in unanimous agreement on how to calculate very few ratios. The current ratio, gross profit margin, and dividend yield are the most notable of these ratios. Second, most ratios, even the most commonly used ones, have several alternate formula versions. Common ratios with substantial disagreement in the formulas are return on assets, quick ratio and inventory turnover.

This research focuses on return on assets (ROA) because it is a popular ratio with many different formula variations. This paper will show the eleven different ratio formulas found in current business textbooks and propose three additional ROA formulas that would be possible based on the sample data.

RETURN ON ASSETS IN TEXTBOOKS

Of all of the ratios presented in business textbooks, authors disagree the most about Return on Assets. In the Mankin and Jewell (2010) study, 70 of the 77 textbooks included ROA. The study found eleven different versions of ROA in business textbooks. The different versions of ROA are shown in Table 1, along with the frequency with which they appear in the sample.

Table 1. ROA FORMULAS AND FREQUENCIES (MANKIN & JEWELL, 2010)			
Version	Formula	Number in Sample	Percentage in Sample
1	Net Income / Total Assets	28	40.00%
2	Net Income / Average Total Assets	11	15.71%
3	(Net Income + Interest Expense) / Average Total Assets	8	11.43%
4	[Net Income + Interest Expense x (1-Tax Rate)] / Average Total Assets	7	10.00%
5	Earnings Available to Common Shareholders / Total Assets	5	7.14%
6	Earnings Before Interest and Taxes / Average Total Assets	3	4.29%
7	Operating Profit / Total Assets	2	2.86%
8	(Net Income + Interest Expense) / Total Assets	2	2.86%
9	[Net Income + Interest Expense x (1-Tax Rate)] / Total Assets	2	2.86%
10	Earnings Before Tax / Total Assets	1	1.43%
11	Earnings Before Interest and Taxes / Total Assets	1	1.43%
TOTALS		70	100.00%

In the Table 1 data, 28 textbooks, or 40% of the textbooks in the sample, define ROA as Net Income / Total Assets. To simplify the discussion, a version number has been assigned to each ROA formula. So, the most popular formula for ROA has been assigned version 1, the second most popular is version 2, etc.

It is important to understand that Table 1 does not include "semantic" differences in how the ratio is defined or how the formula is displayed. Table 1 has standardized all insignificant differences in terminology, of which there were many. All eleven versions of ROA can be economically and mathematically different in different situations, sometimes by large amounts. Each version should also be defined and interpreted in slightly different ways in an economic or accounting sense. This idea will be expanded on later. It is also important to realize that each of the eleven versions was simply called "Return on Assets" or "Return on Total Assets" or some other synonymous term in the textbook. These naming issues have the potential to cause considerable confusion among students and practitioners who may assume that the version of ROA in a given textbook is the only version of ROA, or the definitive version of ROA.

This is not to say that the ratios above are only known as "Return on Assets." For example, five other textbooks in the sample include the ratio Earnings Before Interest and Taxes / Total Assets (EBIT / TA). However, in those five texts that ratio is known as "Basic Earnings Power." Therefore those five observations are not included in Table 1.

A few basic observations about the various versions of ROA can be made simply by noting the details of Table 1. First, the most widely used version of ROA is also the simplest version, Net Income / Total Assets (NI / TA). Second, the top two versions comprise about 56% of the sample, while the bottom nine versions comprise the other 44%. Third, several versions of ROA have identical numerators but differ in that one version averages total assets in the denominator while the other does not. Version 1 and 2 of ROA fit this pattern, as do versions 3 and 8, 4 and 9, and 6 and 11. So, out of the eleven versions of ROA there are only seven unique numerators. Fourth, the ratios can be categorized not only based on their denominators, but also based on the "size" of their numerators. The versions with Operating Profit, EBIT, or EBT in the numerator will obviously give answers of larger magnitude in most situations than those with after-tax numbers in the numerator.

CONCLUSION

Return on Assets (ROA) is a popular and well-known ratio. It is used by analysts to measure the profitability of a firm and by researchers to make predictions on financial variables and events. However, the current study shows that there are eleven different versions of ROA in current business textbooks. One of the problems with the existence of so many disparate versions is that it makes comparability between versions more difficult. Imagine analysts, sitting around a boardroom, or students in a study group attempting to discuss the ROA of a firm. Unless they have previously agreed upon the ROA version to be used, there could be considerable confusion. It is possible, even likely, that different participants will have different "correct" answers and draw different conclusions about the profitability of the firm depending on the version of ROA used.

Now image a student or a professional researching a firm using Yahoo!Finance, Morningstar, or any other financial data service. Unless she understands the version of ROA used by that site, she is very likely to misuse and misinterpret the data. This problem is compounded when comparing different ROA's from different data sources.

Therefore, based on the analysis above, it is appropriate not to think of ROA as a single ratio but as a "category of ratios." This category includes almost any ratio that compares an earnings related number from the income statement to Total Assets or Average Total Assets. This study shows each of the eleven versions of ROA can have a valid use in the proper context, but that none should be presented as the only or the definitive version of ROA. In the future, it would be beneficial for both students and practitioners if textbook authors would use names that would more accurately reflect the uses and highlight the differences among the various versions of ROA. Perhaps a decade from now, instead of multiple versions of ROA all sharing the same name, there will be a less confusing and more descriptive nomenclature in use.

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STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE USE OF CLICKERS IN THE CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

Clicker use in the classroom is growing around the country. Clickers allow professors to ask students questions and to gather their responses during a lecture. The system allows summaries of student responses to be shown through PowerPoint presentations in real time so that professors and students can view the results. The belief is that clickers can be useful by increasing students' attention and interest, by allowing professors to assess understanding of a topic prior to moving to the next topic, and by decreasing grading time by using clickers to collect exam and quiz answers.

This study surveyed students after they used clickers in a classroom setting for one semester. The data was analyzed to assess students' perceptions of the usefulness of student response devices in the classroom. The data was analyzed based on age, gender, and major.

A STUDY OF NON-TRADITIONAL AND TRADITIONAL STUDENTS IN TERMS OF THEIR TIME MANAGEMENT BEHAVIORS, STRESS FACTORS, AND COPING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Non-traditional students have been returning to colleges and universities at a rapidly growing rate. This study investigated the stress factors and methods of coping of these non-traditional students during their university experience as compared to traditional students. A survey was conducted at a four-year southwestern state university that was projectable to the entire student population. Respondents were queried with regard to demographics, attitudes, behaviors and outcomes, such as grade point average, levels of stress and coping strategies in the college experience. The research indicates that non-traditional students bring different expectations for the college experience, were less involved in various college social activities and were less interested in "having a good time" in college than traditional students. Non-traditional students experienced differing levels of motivation, campus involvement, and participation in social activities from their traditional counterparts which related to time management issues and lead to differing levels of stress and methods of coping between the two groups of students.

INTRODUCTION

The size of the non-traditional student population has been on the increase (Newbold, Mehta & Forbus, 2010). These students represent a variety of characteristics such as being over 24 years of age, working full time, and often having dependents to support. Many non-traditional students attend college part time. Between 1996 and 2006, the number of non-traditional undergraduate college students increased at a rate of 30% to 50% (Bye, Pushkar, & Conway, 2007). The National Center for Education reports that 73% of all students have some characteristics of the non-traditional student (Compton, Cox, & Laanan, 2006). These students bring with them desires and needs that are different from their traditional counterparts on campus (Newbold, Mehta & Forbus, 2009). The shifting campus population toward non-traditional students necessitates that colleges and universities understand and adapt to these changing student needs in order to improve student satisfaction and involvement with the college experience and their persistence toward degree attainment.

While the demographic characteristics of the non-traditional student are reasonably well-understood, the sources of their stress with college life and the coping strategies they employ have not been as thoroughly researched. Take, for example, a hypothetical institution that is slow to recognize their growing non-traditional student base, and thus does not appropriately modify its offerings, policies and procedures to better meet the needs of the growing non-

traditional student base. One might reasonably expect that the non-traditional students would be, at a minimum, inconvenienced, and, at times, disadvantaged relative to their traditional counterparts (Mehta, Newbold, & Forbus, 2009). This would result in various stress coping behaviors, negative attitudes about the institution and the college experience, and lower grade point averages on the part of the non-traditional students. It might also result in non-traditional students who were unable to persevere in their quest for a degree. Time management skills have been identified as one indication of higher performance and lower stress and anxiety (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007).

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between non-traditional and traditional students with regard to stress factors and coping strategies. A projectable survey was conducted at a four-year southwestern state university. Students were asked about such attitudinal issues as motivation for attending college, degrees of involvement in college-sponsored activities, school/work life balance, and feelings of academic stress. In addition, coping behaviors were investigated. It was hoped that the findings of this research would contribute to the expanding body of work related to non-traditional students, and provide guidance to administrators and educators alike to better meet the needs of their constituencies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on non-traditional students generally defines them as those who have not followed a continuous educational path into college (Newbold, Mehta & Forbus, 2010). Consequently, they tend to be typically older than traditional students (Evelyn, 2002). Mature students tend to be more diverse than younger students in their expectations of the college or university and in their motivations for attending (Newbold, Mehta & Forbus, 2010). Adult students have had experiences in life and in their careers that have broadened their general outlook. Over the past fifty years, U.S. employment has gradually shifted from manufacturing blue-collar oriented jobs to white-collared service related professions, bringing more adults to institutions of higher education to allow them to be prepared for career adjustments. Non-traditional college students have significantly more time and role tensions than traditional college students (Morris, Brooks, & May, 2003). The external demands and differing responsibilities create time limitations that traditional students may not encounter (Lundenberg, 2003). With the increase in non-traditional students attending college, there is a need to understand how balancing of the multiple demands and roles of work, school, and life affects adult students.

Stress emerged as an important variable with relationships to grade point average (GPA) and intent to persist along with goal commitment. Non-traditional college students with lower levels of academic stress and more satisfaction with their academic experiences also manage their time well (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007). Two additional areas of stress are related to non-traditional students: the extent of apparent demands within work, school, and personal life, and the role conflict between work, family, and school (Giancola, Grawitch, & Borchert, 2009). Unlike traditional students, non-traditional students have responsibilities related to their work and personal lives that may lead to demand overload and role conflict when merged with school. These additional demands and responsibilities can create time limitations that traditional students are not apt to experience. Non-traditional students have reported the greatest tension between work and school, and these work stresses were a direct predictor of general well-being (Giancola, Grawitch, & Borchert, 2009). This may be because of the fundamental role that work plays in the life on a non-traditional student. Combining a degree with employment can have negative

consequences with students missing classes, doing less reading, and experiencing higher levels of stress (Robotham, 2009).

Table 1
TRADITIONAL VS. NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS
Crosstab

Related Hypotheses	Item	Non-Trad Students	Trad Students	Chi-Square	p-Value	Accept	Reject
H_1	Married/Living with significant other	38.5%	8.7%	99.727	.000	√	
H_2	Commuting greater than 5 miles	66.0%	32.5%	36.046	.000	√	
H_3	Working more than 21 hours per week	52.6%	32.8%	19.930	.000	√	
H_{16}	GPA between 3.51 – 4.00	28.3%	14.7%	15.479	.001		√

Table 2
TRADITIONAL VS. NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS
Mean

Related Hypotheses	Item	Non-Trad Students	Trad Students	p-value	Accept	Reject
H_4	Having a good time in college	4.1	5.1	.000	√	
H_5	Interested in graduating as soon as possible	5.8	5.5	.074	√	
H_6	Involved in on- and off-campus activities	3.1	4.1	.000	√	
H_7	Feel a part of the college environment	4.9	5.6	.000	√	
H_8	Stress related to money issues	5.6	4.9	.001	√	
H_9	Stress related to work issues	4.7	4.2	.068	√	
H_{10}	Stress related to commuting issues	4.2	3.0	.000	√	
H_{11}	Stress related to a general lack of time	5.3	4.8	.018	√	
H_{12}	Utilize active stress management methods	4.1	3.3	.002	√	
H_{13}	Utilize passive stress management methods	4.9	5.3	.006	√	
H_{14}	Generally more "stressed out"	4.5	4.4	.450		√
H_{15}	Overall satisfaction level with the university experience	5.9	5.7	.231		√

Means are based on a scale from 1 to 7.

Studies indicate that many students who postpone their enrollment into colleges or universities are married and have dependents (Newbold, Mehta, & Forbus, 2010 and Leonard, 2002). Returning to school is an added obligation that impacts family interaction. Some couples report a renegotiating of the household division of labor and childcare to accommodate changes in schedules and workloads (Sweet & Moen, 2007). Balanced with the stress of the added responsibilities, students have reported spending time with their families as the biggest stress reducer (Canales-Gonzales & Kranz, 2008). The time management experience of non-traditional students has the effect of improved functioning and alleviation of feelings of stress (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007).

Studies indicate that adaptive coping can predict a positive outcome such as greater well-being and greater satisfaction with life (Kohler & Munz, 2006). Non-traditional students have reported using more adaptive coping strategies, such as planning, and less on maladaptive strategies, such as denial and substance abuse (Giancola, Grawitch, & Borchert, 2009). In studying student drinking, it has been found that the root causes of excessive drinking revolve around depression, anxiety, peer pressure, and the desire for social acceptance (Gilroy, 2009).

DISCUSSION

Relative to demographic factors, Table 1 shows that non-traditional students are more apt to be married or living with a significant other and are more apt to be commuter students. They are also working more hours than traditional students. Non-traditional students are expected to be involved in career work supporting their families and lifestyles while traditional students are more apt to engage in less permanent, part-time jobs to support their free time activities. Interestingly, while non-traditional students were working more hours and dealing with more stress than traditional students, they also had higher academic success levels as measured by GPA. Their maturity and life experiences as described by Newbold, Mehta, & Forbus (2009) explain why they are better time and stress managers allowing them the greater level of success.

When one considers attitudes and involvement, non-traditional students have different expectations for their college experience as it relates to having a good time, as well as utilizing college for personal development and preparation for careers. This is not surprising, given that non-traditional students are more likely to come to college with an existing career and with their lives already "developed". Non-traditional students are less likely to participate in social activities.

Non-traditional students are presented with stressful situations more often during their higher education endeavors because of their work, social, and domestic situations along with additional time constraints and less involvement in the campus life. They would seem to be squeezed for time because of the responsibilities associated with work and family. Financial stress is expected to be a greater concern as non-traditional students balance tuition, rent, vehicle, and other burdens on their resources. Non-traditional students are predicted to experience more stress related to co-workers, bosses, scheduling, and commuting issues to and from work, school, and home.

There is a difference between the coping styles of traditional and nontraditional students. Using active coping methods, non-traditional college students more often supported learning goals and utilized task-oriented coping through time management and study methods, than did the younger traditional college students who relied more on passive coping methods associated

with cutting class, leaving homework undone, and drinking more (Morris, Brooks, & May, 2003).

It has been suggested that, even though non-traditional students are more apt to work full time, these students are not as affected by working, commuting, or time limitations because they have more experience at time management (Newbold, Mehta, & Forbus, 2010). Non-traditional students are more mature and motivated toward their career goals. They are more serious toward their studies. These characteristics explain many of their attitudes and involvement behaviors given that they bring a more serious focus to their university experience.

Finally, with regard to key outcome measures, there is a difference in overall grade point average, stress and student coping, and satisfaction with the university experience between non-traditional students and traditional students. Because of their experience and maturity, non-traditional students are better at time management. Time spent studying explains a variation in academic success (Nonis & Hudson, 2006).

Preceding research might lead one to believe that a non-traditional student would experience more stress and, therefore, display less satisfaction with the university experience. This study, however, proved that this is not true. There is no significant difference between a non-traditional student's overall satisfaction with the institution than that of a traditional student. There are several factors that could have led to these results.

While it was expected that non-traditional students are working more hours than traditional students, our study found this to be the case. Research shows that working does not have a negative effect on learning (grade point average), but also shows that working hinders involvement, which has a positive effect on learning (Lundberg, 2004) and is the greatest source of stress for the non-traditional student. One thought to attempt to explain these findings is that non-traditional students are perhaps more self-sufficient than traditional students. They are dealing with different factors than the traditional student, namely experiencing multiple life roles, practicing time management behaviors, and using more adaptive methods for handling stress. Adaptive coping behaviors lead to constructive, healthy outcomes in stressful situations. Non-traditional students tend to employ task-oriented coping and report higher grade point averages (Morris, Brooks, & May, 2003). These factors would lead to the conclusion that non-traditional students are quite capable of adjusting to factors in their environment. Their coping methods lead to fewer missed classes, more reading and more often completing homework assignments (Robotham, 2009).

From the study, it is known that traditional students are working, just not as much. Non-traditional students are more likely to work full-time and attend class part-time (Berker, et al, 2003). The lifestyles of non-traditional and traditional students are dissimilar from this viewpoint and, thus, do not share the same experiences in their college career (Newbold, Mehta, & Forbus, 2009a).

Students who look positively on the openness of administration tend to be more satisfied with the campus environment. (Nicolson & Bess, 1997). Non-traditional students have stronger relationships with administrators and place a greater value on faculty interaction than their traditional equivalent (Newbold, Mehta, & Forbus, 2010). Students reported that interacting with faculty and staff was helpful in reducing stress.