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Proceedings of the Academy of Educational Leadership

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BUSINESS EDUCATION PARTNERSHIP IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Educational partnerships that assist students in making the transition from school to the world of work are among the most common and most successful of all partnerships (Educational Partnership Case Studies-February 1996). In gathering information for our project, we found that many "school to work partnerships" were formed with the intention of helping a student make the transition from high school to the work force. At Neumann College, we had a different view. We wanted to form a partnership that consisted of members from the professional business community, our faculty, and students. Through our interaction with members of the business community on our Business Advisory Council, we came to realize that a need for this type of partnership was necessary at Neumann College.

Our case study describes how the small business community became involved in a collaborative effort with academia and why. How both the students and the business community benefited from the experience, and how students, college administrators, faculty, and the business community perceived the experience.

We will discuss how the business community involvement improved the learning environment for both traditional college students and members of the work force. We will also discuss how the traditional age student learned from the experienced business person while the non traditional student gained insights into business from a different perspective.

INTRODUCTION

In 1980, Neumann College established a Business Advisory Council. Under the College's continued sponsorship, the Council's goal is to help students in the business majors become better prepared for the constantly changing business world. Hopefully, as well rounded professionals, they can be strong contributors to their business community. In addition, the Council is instrumental in helping Neumann College increase its visibility in the business community and improve public relations in the business world as well as the community in general.

The primary role of the Business Advisory Council is to provide business experience, contact, and perspective to the ongoing development of the Business Division. Other roles are to promote faculty research, and identify educational needs in the business world. The Council meets four times a year. Sub committees are often formed to work on special projects.

At Neumann College a close relationship already existed between business and education. The members of our Business Advisory Council were already instrumental in upgrading the learning process and preparing students with the skills needed for various business careers. They

accomplished this through internships, cooperative education positions, a mentor program and participation in our annual business exchange. The Council consists of community-based business leaders who try to meld their needs with those of the business division. What became important during our project was to meld the ideas of the business division with those of the business community. Both members of Council and faculty recognized that Business is the major beneficiary of a solid, effective education system. "Business leaders see an immediate need for highly trained workers who can adapt to today's ever-changing technology. Often, they do not see such people emerging from the education system." *(Sharp and Sharp*).

Over the past several years the members of the Business Advisory Council worked with the business division at Neumann College to help bring new ideas and insights from the small business community to our student population. One proposal from the Council members entailed creating a Center for Entrepreneurs at Neumann College. They envisioned this center as a very active advocate for the small business community. Unfortunately, our attorneys felt that this might interfere with our remaining a charitable institution under the Internal Revenue Service guidelines. We did not want to jeopardize our tax exempt status in any way, so we voted down the idea. This unsuccessful attempt to bridge the gap between the Business Community and Neumann College dismayed the Business Advisory Council. An important lesson which we learned from this experience was the importance of moving quickly.

As many of us know, in academia the wheels turn very slowly. This was something that the members of the Business Advisory Council were not accustomed to and were very disillusioned by which was a concern to us. We valued their ideas and felt their disappointment and impatience. One of our council members, Stephen Markowitz, said "In dealing with our 5,000 company members I found a great deal of distrust and dislike for academia. The academic community in some cases is perceived by entrepreneurs as irrelevant, pedantic, and elitist. Those academic institutions that had partnered with government agencies such as SBA, SCORE, SBDC etc., were seen as insensitive to the needs and practical limits that are imposed on the small business community relative to education." Mr. Markowitz's comments somewhat paralleled those of Howard. J. Morgnes, Proctor and Gamble's former Chairman of the Board. Mr. Morgens said in a February 10, 1973 speech at Washington University that "everyone who is interested in rational progress will agree that there is a real need today for people in business and people in our universities to understand each other. Business and education are quite often antagonistic. Yet, to a considerable degree, each is dependent on the other."

ANALYSIS

We recognized the need to bridge the gap between academia and the small business community. On one side we were entrusted with the task to prepare the next generation of business leaders and on the other side we were faced with the knowledge that "entrepreneurs perceived the academic community as irrelevant, pedantic and elitist." (Stephen Markowitz). After several lengthy meetings with our Advisory Council, we concluded that, in their opinion, business students in general were only text book oriented and not familiar with the "real world" workings of business. We realized that one way to bridge this gap was to bring the students to the business community so that they could gain an understanding of what was expected of them before they graduated. We believed

that we could accomplish this through curriculum development. Thus, the business-education partnership was formed. Our first step was to form a subcommittee to study what we could do to bring the academic community and business community together.

DIFFICULTIES

The business development subcommittee met several times during the summer of 1995 and developed a Curriculum Proposal. At first, the committee thought that it would take several months before we began to see the results of our efforts. Our committee was very concerned that our work would be delayed being well aware of how slow academia sometimes moves toward change. Naturally, we were delighted when our committee completed the proposal in a very short period and it was quickly passed through the curriculum committee. This was the first major step toward removing the gap between business and academia. The business community recognized that we were listening to what they identified as problems and that we responded very quickly to implement a solution.

PARTNERSHIP IN ACTION

Curriculum development is usually an on going process at any college or university. What made our offering of a *Certificate in Small Business* unique was due to the involvement we solicited from the small business community. We worked closely with the Business Advisory Council who have expertise and insights into the needs of the small business community. The collaborative effort between business leaders and academia proved to be a successful undertaking when we offered the first course in a series of nine courses in the Spring of 1995.

The program entails taking nine (one) credit courses (Appendix 1). Each course is offered over a five-week period meeting once a week. The unique feature surrounding each course is that the principal lecturer is a credentialed business leader who utilizes successful members of the business community as guest speakers. Another unique feature is the opportunity to bring together in a learning environment both traditional college students and members of the work force who have started their own business or plan to start a small business or who manage a small business. The traditional student is able to learn from the business leader and at the same time the business person is gaining insight into their business from the student's perspective.

The nine courses are structured so that a student may take selective courses as the need fits or can take the entire nine courses and earn the certificate. Courses are offered continuously and the entire program can be completed within one year.

Development of each course is primarily completed by the instructor who in most cases is a professional in a particular field. The instructor brings a more practical viewpoint of the subject from "real world" experience to the classroom as opposed to a traditional academic who may solely rely on textbooks. We found that in all cases the students rated the practical knowledge of a topic as presented by the business professional having "hands on" experience very useful and beneficial.

STUDENT PROFILE

We found the students who registered for the program to be a very diverse group. The students included:

-traditional business students who recently graduated from Neumann College and returned to Neumann to earn the Certificate in Small Business.

-current business students working toward the Certificate and using the credits as electives to satisfy graduation requirements.

-business owners who had operated a small business for many years but are looking to broaden their business knowledge.

-entrepreneurs who were planning to start a business.

-members of the work force being downsized who were exploring alternative business opportunities.

STUDENT COMMENTS AND EVALUATIONS

Students overwhelmingly commented on the benefits of having instructors who had recent practical experience in a particular field. Students felt they could question the instructors who were; attorneys, accountants, managers, credit lenders, advertising specialists and receive examples of what was going on in the "real world." The students thought that the cases which were used by the instructors were more relevant to the subject matter. They felt the material presented was in line with what they would face when they encountered various situations in business. Also, students liked the idea that each course did not require a textbook. They felt that the hand outs prepared by the instructor reflected current issues.

SMALL BUSINESS COMMUNITY COMMENTS

The entrepreneurial community in general felt that connecting "classrooms and life" was an ideal way to bridge the gap between academia and business. They viewed the use of community-based leaders as the primary educators in the classroom instrumental in closing the gap. They saw the use of facilitators to help students gain knowledge and insights into small business as opposed to faculty teaching theories from textbooks as very beneficial.

ADMINISTRATION COMMENTS

The involvement of the business community in the process of educating and preparing our students was considered a positive move in developing the next generation of business leaders. The faculty and administrators were already aware of the disappointment experienced by the business

community with the college prepared business students and their lack of "real world" business exposure. They perceived our efforts in offering the Certificate in Small Business as a way to correct what the business community felt was "lacking in the education of the next generation of business leaders."

IMPROVEMENTS

After offering the program for one full year, we were able to incorporate several changes based on the feedback that we received from our students, the Business Advisory Council, instructors, and faculty moderators. Some major changes were:

1) We initiated an advertising campaign to better promote the program. We called local newspapers and asked them to interview the instructor for each module before it began. The local newspapers were agreeable since the person they would be interviewing was usually someone recognized in the community.

2) Originally we offered each module over a five week period. Since many classes comprised adult students with business commitments, we changed the offering to a four week period and extended each meeting by fifteen minutes.

3) Several students had a problem with summer offerings. The feedback that we received indicated that students were strongly against summer courses. We rescheduled the offerings so that we completely dropped the summer courses. The offerings now begin each Fall and run to the end of the Spring semester.

4) Our program consisted of ten topics. We consolidated one topic and dropped the program requirements to nine courses.

5) Several topics were reworked after we received feedback from the students. Some material was considered too technical and deleted. We expanded on other material.

CONCLUSION

Presently, it is Neumann College's intention to run the program again for another year. We believe the program is beneficial to our students as well as to the business community. Our business faculty will continue to improve the program. We will of course depend on the honest and constructive feedback from our students, business leaders, instructors, guest speakers, and Partnership Council.

Based on our first year of experience we have found the program to be very rewarding to the students as well as to those involved from its inception. I would strongly recommend that every school establish a Partnership Council. This will provide an excellent opportunity for your business students as well as for your business faculty. The cost is minimal but the rewards are high.

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Appendix A

PROGRAM INFORMATION

The *Small Business Certificate Program* is sponsored by the Division of' Business and Information Management. The division developed this program after input from the Business Advisory Council.

The program will provide practical education in small business to owners, managers, and potential entrepreneurs.

The program consists of nine one-credit courses. Courses may be taken in any order and there are no prerequisites for admission. Participants may select any course that meets their needs or take all nine courses and earn the *Certificate in Small Business*. Participants can earn the certificate within one year.

COURSE CONTENT

1. Starting a Small Business

Do you have what it takes to start your own business? Explore what it takes to start your own business or improve one that is ongoing.

Topics:

Start a business from scratch - Check sourcing opportunities - Buy an existing business or a franchise - Examine entrepreneurial traits - Build a distributorship - Review regulations - Work a home-based operation - Look at future trends to prevent failure.

2. Planning and Developing

Want to be successful in your business? Then set objectives and a business plan to accomplish them.

Topics:

Understand your mission - Select sites (home based or outside) - Develop goals - Design appropriate organization - Compile data - Do estate planning - Write business plans - Control growth

3. Marketing, Advertising and Managing Customer Relations

Interested in continuing growth and business health? Master the basics of marketing, advertising, promotion and customer relations and retention.

Topics:

Develop bids, estimates and proposals - Evaluate costs and set budgets - Work at market planning and research - Determine pricing, servicing and set up an advertising program - Image - Obtaining proper exposure - Build customer relations - Identify customer needs.

4. Managing Legal Environment and Following Good Business Ethics

Determined to "keep things legal?" Study legal forms of business, tax implications and insurance requirements. Also, review current issues about social, ethical and environmental responsibilities.

Topics:

Study various forms of ownership - Determine insurance needs - Inspect articles of incorporation and filings - Review product and professional liability - Investigate details of contracts - See shareholder and partnership agreements - Build customer and product responsibility - Set social and ethical requirements.

5. Securing Financing

Need capital? Explore various ways to finance start-ups, continuing operations and growth.

Topics:

Obtain venture capital - Clear your credit history - Use government funding and subsidies - Build supplier credit - Try bartering - Listen to bank requirements for a loan - Apply for minority programs - Explore family sources of funds.

6. Working with Employees and Other Essential People

Need to manage people to run your business? Get some help in selecting, managing and developing employees.

Topics:

Learn basics of hiring and firing - Use fair and motivating compensation - Build skills training programs - Explore alternative forms of staffing - Plan for succession - Work with consultants - Evaluate performance - Control subcontractors.

7. Understanding Accounting and Finances

Bewildered by some terms and investment requirements? Get some help in learning the basics and some guidance in alternatives.

Topics:

Review profit/loss and balance sheets - Develop credit evaluation - Practice some budgeting - Explore audits, reviews and measure cash flow compilations - Control inventory, receivables and payables - Review taxes payroll to income - Examine accounting software packages.

8. *Using the Computer*

Determined to use this tool in making your business better? Look at many facets of equipment and programs.

Topics:

Determine your needs - Make your own graphics (desktop) - Identify basic terms - Set up a local area network (LAN) - Explore available hardware and software Use Internet - Practice in our computer lab Interface with computer contractors.

9. *Growing Your Business*

Anxious to plan for the future and manage change? Explore ways to grow your business,

Topics:

Explore the twists of the industry that led you to your present situation - Find new markets - Tap into data collection banks - Manage change and growth - Explore developing trends in your business - See if you want to go public - Expand your market Learn how to sell your business

THE NONTRADITIONAL STUDENT: A NEGLECTED RESOURCE?

Emma Lou May, Henderson State University
Ramona Akin, Henderson State University

ABSTRACT

The nontraditional student has become a common sight on the college campus. With enrollment figures decreasing and a growing concern for retention, could this be an untapped resource needing attention? This paper addresses that question.

BACKGROUND

Nontraditional student, NTS, a term rarely heard on college campuses 20 years ago, has become a new resource of income for college campuses. What an Arizona college professor has termed the "gray revolution" has begun (Lintner, 1997). In 1975, applications to postsecondary schools declined and inflation began to affect resource allocations (Mooney, 1994). The trend over the last few years has been a steady drop in the first-time enrollment figures and retention rates for traditional students, and a steady increase in the number of NTS returning to the classroom. Whether this is due to the increasing global market, changing technology skills, or lack of job training, older adults are finding that there is a need to complete a college degree.

Historically, young adults went to school, entered the work force, married and had children--usually in that order. Today, 50-year-old men have new families, 45-year-old women start to college as freshmen, and grandparents between the ages of 45 and 80 are graduating from college (Scholssberg et al., 1991). Higher education has seen the growth of a new student population which is more diverse in age, ethnicity, academic preparation, economic ability, motivations, needs and goals than their traditional aged counterpart (Ostrowski, 1992).

WHO IS THE NONTRADITIONAL STUDENT?

The NTS has been defined in several ways, such as the following: over 25 years of age, internationals, single parents with young dependents, those with different sexual orientations (Sedlacek & Kim, 1996), high school drop-outs, commuters, or married persons with families (Mooney, 1994).

NTS have also been defined as possessing one or more of the following characteristics: delayed enrollment into postsecondary education; enrolled part time; self-supported; working full time while enrolled; not having obtained a standard high school diploma (Horn, Carroll, 1996); not participating in extracurricular or social activities of typical campus life; pursuing clock hour rather than credit hour instruction; and one who returns to study on a full-time basis after a period of time spent in other pursuits (Mooney, 1994). According to the University of Ottawa, this period of time

spent in other pursuits is a minimum of two full years (Noble, 1987). Schlossberg et al., (1991) defined NTS as students for whom school is not a primary focus; rather it is one of the many demands competing for their time and energy. Students in this group are referred to as returners (Kurland, 1978), returning students, adult learners, adult students, veterans, single parents, reentry students, empty nesters, and displaced homemakers (Champagne & Pettipas, 1989).

The NTS typically is female, married, living within 30 miles of campus and between the ages of 21 and 40. Research further suggests that approximately 48 percent of adults returning to school have previously attended a college or university (Marlow, 1989; Moore, 1990; Richter-Antion, 1986).

When combining the above definitions, one might say that the NTS is the opposite of what a traditional college student is: an on-campus resident who pursues a college degree while participating in the "typical" extracurricular and social activities on the campus (Mooney, 1994).

There is a possibility that the NTS of today are becoming the traditional or majority students of tomorrow (Moss, 1995).

THE NUMBERS

Projections for college enrollment into the twenty-first century reflect a changing pattern. While the number of 18-22 year old students is on the decline, the number of NTS is increasing and will continue to increase into the next century. In 1995, NTS, age 25 and over, made up 43.8 percent of the student body in public four-year institutions with NTS comprising 67 percent of the part-time undergraduate student body (*National Center for Educational Statistics*, 1997).

A 23 percent decline in the traditional college-bound group of 18-24 year olds is predicted by the Carnegie Council of Policy Studies in Higher Education by 1997. The National Center for Educational Statistics projects that NTS will be 40% of all enrollments in the year 2007. As the baby boomer generation ages, the number of students over 35 who are returning to college has increased, and is, in fact, one of the fastest growing student populations in higher education (Millsap, 1996) with part-time NTS being the fastest growing college population group (*Lifelong Learning Trends, 3rd. Edition*).

The proportion of college students age 40 or older grew from 5.5 percent in 1970 to 11.2 percent in 1993. The 1993 numbers represent a growth of 235 percent or 1.6 million students (Gose, 1996). Thiel (1984) predicts that the dominant age group in colleges and universities will be 30-44 years old by the year 2000. Some community colleges are even finding it necessary to address the effects of the increasing number of adults over 65 (Hyams, 1996).

The United States is not alone in this changing demographic student body. Other countries experiencing this same phenomenon include Great Britain, Canada, and Australia (*Times Higher Education Supplement,* 1996; Noble, 1987; Farrugia & O'Brien, 1996).

REASONS FOR RETURNING AND BARRIERS

Several factors have contributed to the increasing number of adults returning to the college campus. One of these is the change in the demographics in the United States. In regard to age, projections for the beginning of the twenty-first century population show that the number of young children and teen-agers will decrease while a relative increase in the number of middle-aged and older

people will occur. Americans 30 years of age or older will make up approximately 60 percent of the population by the year 2000. Changing demographics will increase competition in the workplace. The demand for better skills will require people to improve their educational levels as the world continues to move from an industrial to a high-tech and service oriented economy (Mooney, 1994).

Many Americans no longer expect to choose a profession or job and maintain it throughout their lifetimes. They are changing jobs at a high rate, even changing professions two or three times, and these changes will also require more education (Mooney, 1994). One survey indicated that 83 percent of those students 25 years and older returning to college did so because of a change in their lives (The College Board's Office of Adult Learning Services, 1985).

Not only do NTS re-enter college to secure better paying jobs but also to obtain employment and to improve self-esteem (Opitz, 1990). Instead of pursuing a degree, they may be upgrading skills or simply enrolling in courses in which they have an interest (Mooney, 1994) and where they may find the social support and group membership which is so important to adults (Petermen, 1983). Although most individuals have several reasons for continuing or restarting their education (McClellan, 1990), the major motive for attending college is the necessity of obtaining a degree for career advancement (Paul, 1990).

When an adult returns to school, he or she is in transition, as is the traditional student. Traditional students are separating from their families and making the transition from adolescence to adulthood. For NTS, the transition may be initiated by a job layoff, divorce, career stagnation, mid-life change, or an abundance of free time. Whatever the reason, entering college is a big step and usually begins a time of significant personal change (Ostrowski, 1992; Marlow, 1989; Schlossberg et al., 1990).

Various adult life responsibilities create barriers for the NTS. These include being employed full-time and having the responsibilities of families and education at the same time. Juggling these responsibilities can be very difficult. Students who must schedule classes around their family and/or work often find a limited variety of class offerings in the evening, early morning, or weekends. Often student services such as counseling, job placement, and library access are geared toward the traditional student. Other barriers may be past academic failures, lack of self-esteem, and apprehension about competing with younger students in the classroom (Cross, 1981). Only since the 1980s have many educational opportunities been offered to older adults; prior to that time, educational opportunities were almost exclusively offered to youth (Mooney, 1994).

Adults not only face obstacles getting into college but also face obstacles after they are admitted. For example, financing is often a problem (Ostrowski, 1992). NTS are also concerned about adjustments to academic life, problems relating to younger faculty members, and a feeling of isolation. Other concerns are school-related stress, time management, and unfamiliarity with available university services (Ostrowski, 1992). A study by Ham, Houser, and Donstam (1990) points out the importance of a college counseling center that can assist married students as they cope with the marital adjustments incurred when one enters the world of academia.

Students over 40 generally earn better grades than younger students but take longer to complete their studies. One study concludes that the demographic wave of students over age 40 could overwhelm the traditional higher education institutions, especially when combined with the "baby boom echo" of students who will begin enrolling around the year 2000 (O'Brien & Merisotis, 1996).

NONTRADITIONAL STUDENTS' NEEDS

NTS turn to education to prepare themselves for role changes; higher education must be prepared to meet this challenge even if it means deviating from traditional procedures and standards (Mooney, 1994). An institution must gain insight from the NTS and recognize and respond to their unique needs (*Focus on Adults*, 1991). Enormous sacrifices have been made by NTS when they decide to enter college, including leaving a familiar environment, comfortable routines, and known resources to enter an unfamiliar environment with many uncertainties. An effort should be made to assist these adults in becoming self-sufficient throughout the educational process--from admission to exit from the institution. One of the most important services an institution can provide NTS, as well as traditional students, is the ability to "hang-in there" when the going gets tough (Mooney, 1994).

An important issue which universities and colleges must address is the number of scholarships available to NTS since many institutional scholarships have requirements that only traditional students can meet. Another issue is the manner in which students are treated by professors. Although many professors enjoy the participation and enrichment the NTS brings to the classroom, some professors, who perhaps feel threatened by older students, treat them as if they are youngsters and show little respect. Having adults in class can make teaching a new, exciting, challenging, and meaningful profession (Mooney, 1994; Sheckley, 1984). Coaches in forensics, for example, feel that NTS are a positive influence on their teams, partly because of their maturity and responsibility (Millsap, 1996).

The stress of family, job, and civic responsibilities alone can be enormous. With the additional pressure of returning to school, a NTS is susceptible to a wide range of personal crises. An institution should be prepared to assist them in coping with such pressures and time constraints (Mooney, 1994). NTS need child care services; scheduling of night, off-campus, and weekend classes; alternate locations for class offerings, such as the workplace, public schools, or libraries; and more student support services at night (Opitz, 1990).

While some studies indicate little or no difference between nontraditional and traditional students' needs and concerns in higher education (Arbuckle & Gale, 1996; Aslanian, 1997), other studies indicate that a NTS needs and concerns are different from those of the traditional student.

Adults must be emotionally comfortable in order to learn and made to feel that they are important to the institution that serves them. Clearly then, institutions of higher education can either facilitate or hinder adult learning. To begin with, institutions can strive to provide an environment that is supportive and stimulating (Mooney, 1994).

Rosenblum (1985) states that although NTS have many different roles as well as the psychological fear of change, they also have enormous adaptability when faced with new challenges.

HOW COLLEGES ARE MEETING NONTRADITIONAL STUDENTS' NEEDS

Colleges and universities are implementing a variety of plans to meet the needs of NTS, some by establishing new programs and others by giving special attention to the NTS within already-established programs and procedures.

Since initial enrollment may be the first contact with higher education, the NTS may not even know what questions to ask. University personnel should anticipate those questions and provide easily accessible and understandable information that will facilitate the entry and retention of this valuable resource. Workshops for university faculty, staff, and administration can assist in broadening knowledge about NTS needs and their roles in meeting those needs.

The NTS target market should be identified for recruitment purposes, and the establishment of a contact with area community colleges is a good source for recruiting.

Tognazzini (1992) recommends the following ten methods for recruiting the adult market: 1) institute aggressive financial support programs; 2) develop adult-oriented learning programs; 3) offer career instruction, counseling, and information; 4) develop an open house program; 5) develop campus-based support organizations; 6) develop child care alternatives for NTS; 7) understand and make available NTS housing; 8) establish a mental health counseling program; 9) begin an on-campus NTS newsletter; 10) market your services to the NTS.

Specific procedures should be designed to facilitate the actual enrollment of NTS, such as simplifying the registration process. No matter how well a student has been recruited and advised, an institution may lose that student very quickly if the registration process is complicated and frustrating. Telephone registration, as well as registration by mail, can make the process easy and accessible for NTS. Once NTS have enrolled, retaining them becomes important.

Academic advising is central to the success of both traditional students and NTS. Competent advisors should be well trained to provide information that NTS need. They should be available at night, on weekends, and at off-campus sites (Mooney, 1994). Since NTS are usually self-supporting, their tuition is paid either by themselves or by a third party such as an employer, the Veterans Administration, or a retraining program. Regardless of who ultimately pays, NTS are usually required to pay up front. A fair and flexible program for paying tuition and fees can help these students.

Many NTS return to school to change careers. Computer-assisted career counseling and job placement services should be available in the evenings and on weekends for their use. NTS programs and centers can provide a home base so that these students can meet to share problems and concerns and receive help from college personnel as it is needed (Mathiassen and Neely, 1988). To assess the quality of services offered, universities may utilize the Focus on Adults: A Self-Study Guide for Postsecondary Education Institutions, (Guide), an evaluation instrument developed by the American Council of Education (ACE) (Mooney, 1994; Marlow, 1989).

The literature provides examples of special NTS programs which have been established by institutions throughout the United States, such as the School for New Learning (SNL) at DePaul University. The SNL program was established in 1972 especially for NTS. In this program, the students are adults, age 24 or older, who want to accelerate their progress toward a degree by using real-life experience, as well as classwork, for academic credit, and who want to design their own programs with help from an advisory committee of experts (Mirel, 1995).

The following are other examples of nontraditional programs:

- Duquesne's "Saturday College" program in the Greater Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, area began in the spring of 1992. This program was designed for the working adult who wants to complete a bachelor's degree in four years by attending classes on Saturday (Newberry, 1996). You may gain access to their website at *www.duq.edu.*
- Thomas Edison College in Trenton, New Jersey, a nontraditional college with neither a campus nor scheduled classes, offers twelve degree programs.
- The University of the State of New York - Regents College, in Albany, New York, provides flexibility to students by acting as an organizing body, steering students to appropriate courses and programs at hundreds of other accredited institutions, and compiling those credits toward a Regents College diploma. It also evaluates each student's job experience and provides proficiency examinations that meet some course requirements (Manzo, 1997). Their website may be reached at *www.regents.edu*.
- Pennsylvania State University began offering off-campus academic programs a century ago through correspondence.

Delivery methods have improved dramatically since that time. In the last 25 years, programs have developed throughout the United States that allow students almost anywhere to take classes through the mail, cable television, and the Internet. Needs of the NTS are also addressed through distance learning and through scheduling evening and Saturday classes.

SUPPORT SYSTEMS AVAILABLE

NTS must be made aware of the various types of assistance available to them. One real-life scenario which illustrates a lack of information occurred recently when an NTS was surprised to discover that non-resident students could eat in the university cafeteria. She believed the cafeteria was only for students who lived on campus. If the university does not promote the services it provides for students, the chances of the services being used are slim. Newsletters can be used to communicate services and helpful tips for the NTS. News articles and briefs in the school paper can also be used to disseminate information.

Effective orientation programs can ease the NTS transition into the university setting by providing useful information. Orientation programs have been found to lessen stress and to create a better support system for NTS (Tines, 1993). These programs can be held either on campus or at off-campus sites where large numbers of potential transfer students are enrolled. Kirk has developed a gaming simulation, "Night Rehearsal," that is designed to familiarize both the NTS and faculty with some challenges inherent in entering college (Kirk & Kirk, 1995).

Northern Arizona University calls its orientation program "Adults Back to School" and gives one hour of credit on a pass/fail basis. Topics addressed include learning styles, life cycles, goals and expectations, and academic and personal support, as well as information about available services (Lintner, 1997). Studies have suggested that not only are NTS unaware of some of the support services available, but their perception is that most services are aimed at the traditional student and that these services do not accommodate the needs of the NTS (Ostrowski, 1992).

Orientation programs may be viewed positively as an attempt by the university to meet the NTS halfway. Students must know the rules of the game, and an orientation setting provides a vehicle for dispensing information about the regulations, norms, and expectations of the new

environment. NTS immediate families should be included in these programs, to the same extent as the traditional students' families. Support from family and others is important to the NTS (Spanard, 1991); should it be lacking from the family, the institution can make efforts to supplement this support (Lyon, 1998).

Personal counseling/mental health services to students, their spouses, and their children may be provided to furnish both interpersonal counseling and academic advising. The advising staff can assist students in coursework and career options and keep up-to-date records for NTS. This will enable them to communicate with the students and, hopefully, prevent or at least lower stop-out and drop-out rates, increase morale, and improve the overall performance of the NTS. If a college or university has a Counselor Education Department, the counseling center could be opened in the evening hours by counselor interns (Mooney, 1994).

Student Support Services (SSS), a part of the TRIO program, is a federally funded program sponsored by the United States Department of Education. SSS is found on many school campuses throughout the region, and its services are free to the clientele it serves. Its mission is to provide support for first-generation college students and students with economic and/or disability-related needs, approximately half of whom are nontraditional. SSS promotes its participants' academic success, retention, career planning, and graduation.

One small college in Nebraska established a special reentry support program to provide individual and group support for new NTS in their first academic year. Students in the program are paired with adult mentors who act as personal guides. These volunteer, adult mentors are carefully chosen for their role as resource and support persons to assist with registration, financial aid, part-time work, housing, and campus information (Mathiassen and Neely, 1988).

The University of South Carolina at Lancaster implemented a pilot project called Peer Intervention Program to identify needs, eliminate barriers, and provide participatory programming for its NTS. A telemarketing approach assisted with registration, parking, student IDs, classes, and advising. Student concerns are documented and special problems referred to the coordinator of student development for follow-up (Rice, 1991).

At Georgia State University, a support group program is offered to explore the interaction between academic stress and adult developmental issues (Levin, 1986). With group support, a student returning to school at midlife has a renewed opportunity for personal growth. Studies suggest that returning students have higher grade point averages, are more active on campus and in the community, and have fewer absences (Ostrowski, 1992), all of which makes them an even more valuable resource for colleges and universities.

Drake University, a private university in Des Moines, Iowa, uses the Internet to teach its students useful academic tools, such as note taking. For more information, their website is *www.drake.edu*. Other programs can be found in the book, *100 Ways Colleges Serve Adults*, published by the College Board's Office of Adult Learning Services in New York.

SURVEY AND RESULTS

Questionnaires were mailed to 50 four-year public institutions with reported student populations of 5,500 or less for the purpose of determining actual increases in NTS enrollment, percentages of NTS, and types of services offered to NTS. Six of the eleven responding institutions

reported higher enrollments. All respondents were located in Arkansas and its surrounding states. Seventeen yes/no questions and five open-ended questions were asked.

Respondents were asked to furnish their definition of NTS. Ten institutions defined these students as being 25 years of age or older, and one defined them as 24 years of age or older. Two other respondents considered the 25-year-old to be nontraditional, but included other characteristics as well; those characteristics included part-time non-residential, degree or non-degree seeking, enrolled at off-campus centers, with children, or having a commute of over 60 miles.

Respondents were asked total student enrollments as well as enrollments of NTS. Results are shown in Chart 1. The nontraditional segment at each of the institutions was reported to be at least one-fifth of the student body (one exception at 19%) with percentages ranging upward from that point.

Universities were asked about the total number of institutional scholarships awarded in the fall of 1997 and the number that were solely for undergraduate students entering college directly from high school. This information is shown in Chart 2.

While some respondents stated that scholarship information was not available, the information that was submitted suggests that many scholarship opportunities are theoretically available to NTS.

Chart 1
Enrollment Figures
Fall 1997

Total Enrollment	NTS Enrollment	NTS %
1393	515	37%
2404	505	21%
2963	615	21%
3221	619	19%
3946	1539	39%
3951	787	20%
5485	1758	32%
5613	1123	20%
5770	2158	37%
6004	N/A	
6381	2425	38%
6817	2129	31%
7240	1865	26%

Chart 2
Scholarships Awarded
Fall 1997

Total Number	Restricted
160	65
375	244
587	487
1140	295
1643	554
2416	755
2714	10

Several questions were asked about general concerns of the NTS and what services the universities made available to the NTS. Only two respondents had made some form of formal assessment to determine the needs of the NTS. Responses to these questions are shown below.

General Questions	Yes	No	N/A
Are courses offered by your institution in the following ways?			
• Distance learning	12	1	0
• Correspondence course	1	8	4
• Independent Studies	10	2	1
• Off-campus courses	12	1	0
• Evening courses	13	0	0
• Early morning courses	4	6	3
• Weekend courses	11	2	0
• Mini-semesters	7	3	3
Is registration available during the evening and/or weekend hours?	11	2	0
Are academic advisers available to assist students with degree planning in the evening and/or weekend hours?	8	5	0
Has a formal assessment been made to determine the needs of the NTS?	2	11	0
Is there a recruitment plan focused toward the NTS?	4	9	0
Is academic counseling available to NTS having difficulty in their courses?	12	1	0
Are the following services available to the NTS?			
• Child Care	7	6	0
• Food Service	13	0	0
• Center for NTS (i.e., commuter lounge)	7	6	0
• Student employment opportunities	13	0	0
Is separate housing provided for the NTS?	1	12	0

Support for the NTS and the types of support services provided for the NTS were major concerns of this survey. Questions were asked about the types of services the universities provide to the students.

Support Questions	Yes	No
Is there an office/department on campus for the purpose of assisting the NTS?	5	8
Do entering NTS have an opportunity to participate in orientation activities?	13	0
Are seminars or mini-courses conducted to equip the NTS with academic tools (i.e., time and stress management, study skills)?	8	5
Are informational sessions held for the families of NTS?	1	12
Are tutors available to students who need extra assistance with their studies?	12	1
Are personal counseling/mental health services available to NTS?	13	0
Are personal counseling/mental health services available to families of NTS's?	1	12
Are support groups/organizations for NTS available on a regular basis?	8	5
Is there regular communication (mailouts, newsletters, etc.) informing NTS of available services?	5	8

Four comments were made in the space provided for observations or recommendations.

• Historically black university, HBU. Statewide special purpose institution providing special services to students of 'diverse ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds.'

• This is the fastest growing segment of the student body and care is given to provide for needs without special treatment per the request of the Non-traditional Students Association.

• Non-traditional aged students are generally perceived by faculty as an advantage in class discussions. They are usually more focused on studying and have life experiences to draw on when finding applications of course content. We are 90% a commuter campus, so non-traditional aged students are not set apart because they don't live on campus. Many are involved in campus organizations as much or more than traditional-aged students.

• The greatest weakness for NTS at this campus is lack of academic support. The advising is quite weak in many departments, and no academic counseling or tutoring is available.

Six institutions were interested in the findings from this survey.

CLOSING

Although many institutions of higher education are now recognizing the need for providing programs and services to the NTS, continuous improvement in this area is needed. Figures show that this is an increasing population on the college campus and is a resource that needs more attention. Colleges and universities face the problems of declining numbers of high school graduates and

budgetary constraints; an increase in the number of NTS on the campus may be the solution to this problem.

When implementing improvements in an institution's services to students, all areas of operation should assess the services provided to the student, accept the concept of constant change, and engineer new programs and services as needed. Services provided for NTS not only benefit this population but the entire college community and population as a whole. Many of the recommendations included in this paper will require minimal financial assistance; but they will require a commitment of time, energy, and creativity (Mooney, 1994).

When more is done to accommodate the student, the return is increased recruitment and retention of a new and a more diversified student body and an increase in revenues for the university.

> "Students are...
> the most important people on the campus
> ...not cold enrollment statistics but flesh and blood human beings with feelings and emotions like our own.
> ...not people to be tolerated so that we can do our own thing. They are our thing.
> ...not dependent on us. Rather we are dependent on them. ...not an interruption of our work, but the purpose of it. ...Without students there would be no need for the institution." (Paraphrased from L. L. Bean Customer Creed)

REFERENCES AVAILABLE ON REQUEST

EVALUATING DIFFERING EXPECTATIONS CONCERNING EFFECTIVE TEACHING: "DIFFERENT STROKES FOR DIFFERENT FOLKS"

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, there has been an acceptance and widespread use of student evaluations of teaching for administrative personnel decisions in higher education. Faculty salary, promotion, and tenure decisions are increasingly influenced by student ratings. Nevertheless, there is a continuing debate over the reliability and validity of instruments used to measure student opinions. Perhaps one of the reasons for debate over the validity concerning these instruments stems from a failure in many cases to recognize differing preferences held by sub-groups that compose an increasingly diverse student population. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to evaluate perceived differences among various student sub-groups concerning the importance of indicators commonly used to measure teaching effectiveness.

Data for this study were collected from a convenience sample of 165 undergraduate and MBA students taking accounting courses. The questionnaire developed for this study consisted of 45 items related to teaching effectiveness, course effectiveness, and teaching behaviors that students associate with successful learning. Students were asked to rate the importance of each factor on a scale of 5 (very important) to 1 (not at all important). Mean ranks using Mann-Whitney U were used for three post-hoc comparison groups: traditional vs. non-traditional students; undergraduate vs. graduate students, and male vs. female students. Findings of the study indicate that traditional students value teacher concern for student progress significantly more than their non-traditional peers. Results of the study also indicate that female students value: clear explanations of subject matter, learning factual information, and courses that directly enhance career-related skills, more than their male counterparts. Additionally, results indicate that undergraduate students value teacher attributes (such as demonstrated respect for students) more than their graduate student contemporaries. Thus, differing preferences between student sub-groups may help to explain the lack of consensus concerning student evaluation instruments, since results of these instruments may vary according to the sub-groups that compose individual classes, departments or disciplines.

INTRODUCTION

Systematic student evaluation of teaching is widely used to support curriculum and personnel decisions in higher education. In recent years it has become just as likely for students to evaluate

teachers as it is for teachers to evaluate students. This is due in large measure to a reform movement in higher education that demands faculty be more accountable to the student population (Seldin, 1993). This has lead to the acceptance and widespread use of student evaluations as an index of instructional quality. In fact, more than 70 percent of all institutions use student opinions of teaching (Ory, 1991). This type of teacher evaluation is believed to encourage effective teaching and to increase accountability.

Teaching effectiveness has been defined as the teacher's ability to facilitate students to achieve their highest level of independent thinking. It therefore involves more than merely presenting information in an organized, interesting format. Effective teaching requires a meaningful interaction and dialogue between teacher and student. Faculty attributes that have been associated with teacher effectiveness include: enthusiasm, clarity, preparation/organization, and love of knowledge (Sherman, Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale, & Reif, 1987). Facilitative teaching behaviors also include good communication skills, positive attitude toward students, and the ability to encourage students to think for themselves. On the assumption that these attributes are measurable, students are routinely asked to evaluate teaching effectiveness. This has led to a long standing debate over the reliability and validity of instruments used to measure student opinions. Perhaps one of the reasons for debate over the validity concerning these instruments stems from a failure in many cases to recognize differing preferences held by sub-groups that compose an increasingly diverse student population. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to evaluate perceived differences among various student sub-groups concerning the importance of indicators commonly used to measure teaching effectiveness. Examining characteristics deemed important by various sub-groups constituting student populations, may help explain the variability of results derived from various teaching evaluation instruments, since results may vary according to the sub-groups that compose individual classes, departments or disciplines.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In recent years, student evaluations of faculty have played a greater role in administrative personnel decisions. Faculty salary, promotion, and tenure decisions are increasingly influenced by student ratings. A perceived misplaced emphasis on the results of student surveys has lead many faculty to reject outright their validity and usefulness. One unfortunate result of this is a reluctance on the part of some faculty to accept the usefulness of student ratings for other purposes, such as faculty improvement and development. This negative view of student surveys is reinforced by the opinion of many faculty that student ratings do not provide a true reflection of teaching ability. This has lead to evaluations being referred to as a "necessary evil" by many academicians (Benson & Lewis, 1994; Headrick, 1991).

Much debate exists in the literature concerning whether student evaluation instruments are reliable and valid. As a measure of reliability, Marsh (1984) found that evaluations at the end of the course were highly correlated with the evaluations by the same students 1-3 years later. Other researchers, while accepting the reliability of student ratings, maintain there is only limited evidence of their validity (Craig, Redfield, & Galluzzo, 1986). A number of extraneous variables are viewed as contributing to this lack of validity. These variables include instructor personality and popularity, sex and rank of the professor, class size, class level, and expected grade (Rotem & Glassman, 1979). For example, ratings were found to be marginally higher but not statistically significant in small

classes, discussion classes, classes in the humanities (Seldin, 1993), and electives (Arden, 1989). However, no consistent relationship has been established between student ratings and the instructor's rank, sex, or research productivity (Seldin, 1993; Tanner, Manakyan, & Hotard, 1992). Furthermore, little or no relationship has been found between student ratings and student demographic data such as age, year in college, sex, grade-point average, or academic ability.

Many instruments that evaluate teaching effectiveness focus principally on classroom instruction. Giving a student the opportunity to evaluate the quality of teaching is generally not objectionable to most faculty. There is general agreement that students are in the best position to assess a faculty member's ability to communicate ideas in a logical, understandable way. In addition, students are able to judge ethical and professional behavior in the classroom, to assess faculty rapport with students, and to evaluate an instructor's ability to stimulate interest in the subject (Seldin, 1993). However, it is not reasonable to expect students to be able to evaluate whether a teacher has an adequate command of subject matter or whether the content is appropriate for the level of students enrolled in the course. Nevertheless, while some believe students have limited ability to evaluate teaching effectiveness, others do not believe students should evaluate faculty on any criteria.

An important aspect of student evaluations that is often overlooked relates to the identification of factors deemed by students to be important or relevant to their learning. How often do universities ask students to validate whether items on the questionnaire contribute to their successful learning? Furthermore, if recent curriculum changes are designed to encourage creativity, independent thinking, strong communication skills, and expertise in developing logical thinking, then universities should consider revising current evaluation instruments to incorporate appropriate indicators reflective of a wide range of teaching/learning strategies. These evaluation instruments should reflect learning skills needed by students to survive in a competitive world. Perhaps faculty should be evaluated on their ability to teach students the ability to communicate, analyze, reflect, integrate, understand, and appreciate. The lack of research from the students' perspective generated the research question for this study: To what extent do students believe frequently used indicators are important to learning?

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected from a convenience sample of 165 undergraduate and MBA students enrolled in accounting courses. The questionnaire used as the data collection instrument was developed for this study and consisted of 45 items generated from an extensive review of the literature. Items included reflect teaching effectiveness, course effectiveness, and student behaviors believed to contribute to successful learning. Students were assured confidentiality and that their standing in the course, college, or university would not be jeopardized if they choose not to participate. Instructions were given to rate the importance of indicators without any one professor or course in mind. Possible responses ranged from 5 (very important) to 1 (not important at all).

Among the examined demographic characteristics of respondents were age, gender, and class standing. Over half of the respondents (66%) were traditional students between the ages of 18-25 years. The majority of respondents (56%) were female. Sixty-one percent of the sample were undergraduate accounting majors while 39% were MBA students taking an accounting course. Both undergraduate and MBA courses were required in their respective degree programs.

DATA ANALYSIS

Because teaching effectiveness is a multidimensional construct, it was deemed appropriate that each item be used for comparison between groups. Mean ranks using Mann-Whitney U were used for three post-hoc comparison groups: traditional vs. nontraditional students; undergraduate vs. graduate students; and male vs. female students. Mann-Whitney U was used because it does not require normally distributed data but is sensitive to the central tendency and the distribution of the scores (Munro & Page, 1993). To protect against a Type I error, a Bonferroni correction was employed by dividing the level of significance by the number of comparisons. Therefore, a significance level of $p \leq 0.02$, not 0.05 was used for this study.

In Table 1, mean ranks according to traditional vs. nontraditional students are summarized. Only those items that were significant are reported. First of all, traditional students rated teacher concern for student progress significantly higher than did nontraditional students. Perhaps older, nontraditional students are more mature and self-reliant and thus need less reassurance from the teacher than do younger, traditional students. In addition, three indicators indirectly related to grades were rated significantly more important by traditional students. These indicators were that bonus points should be given, tests should come from class material, and that tests should not be too long. This suggests that younger students are interested in learning only a finite amount of material to pass the course. Nontraditional students, on the other hand, felt course work that encourages creative and original thinking should be encouraged. One explanation for this may be that older students may have a perspective that allows them to appreciate the benefits of courses that require thinking rather than mere rote memorization. Also, older students may have more life experiences to draw upon when asked to apply new information to various situations.

In Table 2, mean ranks according to gender are summarized. Female students rated the desire for clear explanations of subject matter, learning factual information, and courses that enhance their career-related skills as more important than did their male counterparts. This may suggest that female students are generally more focused on their school work and career-related preparation than are male students. Furthermore, female students rated the teachers' concern for student progress and the teacher's responsiveness to student needs as significantly more important than did male students. This may indicate that, for females, establishing a relationship with faculty is important to their learning.

In Table 3, mean ranks comparing undergraduate and graduate students are summarized. Interestingly, teacher attributes were rated consistently more important by undergraduate students when compared to graduate students. For example, undergraduates rated the item "teacher demonstrates respect for students as individuals" as significantly more important than did graduate students. Furthermore, undergraduate students, compared to graduate students, felt it was very important that teachers provide clear explanations of the course material as well as provide students the opportunity to review their exams. Undergraduates seemed to express greater expectations of faculty than graduate students regarding these issues. In addition, compared to graduate students, undergraduates tend to be focused on the more immediate aspects of school. High ratings by undergraduates on issues such as classes beginning and ending on time and course objectives being made clear demonstrate this. The greater emphasis by undergraduates on the short-term aspects of schooling is further revealed by the importance they place on having test questions come from

material covered in class, having test that are not too long, and receiving a good grade in the course. Undergraduates students (apparently with one eye on the future) rated the item "the course enhances my career-related skills" as being more important than did graduate students. However, when given the opportunity to rate the importance of items such as course requirements that assist in the development of speaking and creative thinking skills, undergraduate students rated these items as significantly less important than did graduate students. The higher ranking of items related to speaking and critical thinking skills by graduate students may be due in part to their having a broader perspective concerning what knowledge and learning skills are necessary for success in today's job market.

Several indicators not significantly different among the three comparison groups are worth noting. Table 4 summarizes in rank order of importance indicators included in the questionnaire that were not rated significantly different between the group comparisons. Not surprisingly, indicators rated most important by all respondents relate to student grades, while indicators that relate to students being intellectually challenged were rated much lower in importance by the students. For example, items such as clear and unambiguous test questions, fair grading process, and a clear basis for determining grades received the highest rating of importance to students. On the other hand, courses that require assignments that assist in the development of writing skills, intellectual effort greater than that of most courses, and out-of-class homework assignments receive much lower ratings of importance by students. Further, the respondents do not seem to highly value courses that have a challenging pace, challenging examinations, or teachers that ask thought-provoking questions. Nevertheless, perhaps not even surprisingly, students ranked as highly important a course that affords the opportunity to learn a great deal!

One criticism often made of student evaluations is that they are essentially popularity contest that favor teachers with a good personality or sense of humor. The results of this study only partially support this assertion. While students did rate a friendly personality as important, a sense of humor was not rated as important as many other indicators. "Having a friendly personality" may speak to the development of rapport with students, which also was highly rated among indicators.

A number of indicators were rated much lower than anticipated. For example, one might assume that business students would expect faculty to dress professionally. However, this item was not rated as important as other indicators. This may suggest that students are able to evaluate faculty teaching based upon factors more important than how instructors dress. Perhaps more surprising, however, was the fact that the item "the teacher curves the grades" was rated so low on the importance scale. And finally, the use of teaching aids, such as audio and video presentations, was rated as having the least amount of importance of all factors. Future studies should try to determine which, if any, audio/visual aides are viewed by students as beneficial to learning. This is particularly important given the fact that many business schools are increasing their use of technology in the classroom.

DISCUSSION

Student evaluation scores generated to document improvement in teaching effectiveness is one way faculty speak to instructional quality for the purposes of the tenure and promotion. Marsh (1984) suggested the most widely accepted criterion of effective teaching is student learning. This assertion was confirmed in this study by the fact that students rated the opportunity to learn as one of the most important indicators. Consistent with other studies, the questionnaire developed for this study used instructional indicators to assess the quality of teaching (Orpen, 1980). These indicators of instructional quality included items such as teachers writing test questions that are clear and unambiguous, being fair in grading practices, motivating students to do their best work, and communicating the expectations of the course.

The importance of various indicators of teaching effectiveness differed among students in the study sample. For example, undergraduate students rated assignments and tests that require original or creative thinking as significantly less important than graduate students. Additionally, undergraduate students rated the development of speaking skills as less important than did graduate students. These findings underscore the reason many argue against allowing students to evaluate effective teaching. If students do not value the types of activities that faculty believe help students learn, students may in turn rate demanding faculty lower than less demanding faculty who require less rigorous course work (Carey, 1993; Seldin, 1993). Another argument against student ratings is that some student groups want learning to be "easy". For example, traditional students rated giving bonus points, testing the material covered in class, and giving tests that are not too long as significantly more important than did nontraditional students. What happens to student ratings for those faculty who teach traditional students and do not engage in the types of activities these students view as important? One concern is that faculty may subconsciously or even knowingly change their teaching strategies in the hopes of getting higher student evaluations.

Giving students what they want can erode instructional quality in institutions of higher learning in a number of ways. Faculty may feel more pressure to give less challenging exams, which can result in grade inflation. It is reasonable for students to feel test questions should be clear and unambiguous, but is it reasonable for students to believe tests should not be challenging? Additionally, when faculty know students do not value certain course attributes, such as a challenging pace with a demanding workload or thought provoking questions, they may be more inclined to lower standards. This may be especially true for faculty teaching traditional, undergraduate students. It is especially difficult for untenured faculty not to feel they must solicit favors and even lower their academic standards in order to obtain job security (Cholakian, 1994). This may be one reason why Young (1993) argues that future generations will look back to this time in university history and wonder why this generation allowed "predominately immature, undisciplined, naive, and academically weak students to wield such enormous influence in determining what they should be taught, as well as how and by whom it should be done."

In recent years, the quality of the indicators used by administrators to determine teaching effectiveness has come into question. The relatively recent widespread use of student ratings to judge "excellence" in teaching, has resulted in a great deal of faculty frustration associated with the process of trying "to get the ratings up." This frustration has been compounded by the fact that as the

emphasis of education moves toward active learning and away from passive learning, current instruments used to evaluate teaching may not be able to adequately measure teaching effectiveness.

The dichotomy between administrators' emphasis on using student evaluation scores to judge teaching effectiveness and faculties' belief that these scores are not valid as an indicator of teaching effectiveness is growing in the academic community. Much has been written arguing the merits and limitations of using student generated scores to measure teaching effectiveness. For example, Cholakian (1994) points out that with so much emphasis placed on the "performance" of the teacher, young faculty may become motivated to concentrate on style over substance. The results of this study support this argument. For example, female students rated teacher responsiveness to their feelings and needs as significantly more important than did males. Additionally, undergraduate students felt strongly that classes should begin and end on time. Also, all students felt faculty should demonstrate respect for them as individuals. A positive teacher-student relationship should be expected from every faculty member. However, should one faculty member who is better than another at generating higher scores on these particular indicators be rated by administrators as a more effective teacher? The point is that teaching effectiveness is multidimensional and several indicators should be used for evaluation.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The fact remains that if a student-teacher model is adopted where students are considered active, adult learners, then student opinions of teaching will continue to play a role in faculty evaluations. From a faculty's perspective, the real issue is not whether student evaluation instruments are valid or whether they can be used to improve teaching. The issue is whether or not too much emphasis has been placed upon the student ratings by administrators for purposes of tenure, promotion, and merit raise decisions. Because of the emphasis on students' opinion of teaching, faculty may feel that they have to change their teaching strategies in order to "please" students. This loss of integrity may be insidious, and ultimately may lead to grade inflation that erodes the quality of higher education. In fact, Vasta and Sarmieto (1979) found that liberal grading on the part of an instructor does improve student evaluations, but not student performance.

Student evaluations of teaching can provide valuable insights that assist faculty in improving their teaching effectiveness. However, faculty who receive low ratings and critical student comments may be more likely to experience anxiety, frustration, and ultimately, diminished enthusiasm for teaching (Seldin, 1993). Therefore, it is important that universities provide a strong faculty development program to assist faculty and administrators in interpreting and improving the results. This will ensure that student ratings are not used only as an evaluation tool, but as a means to improve faculty teaching effectiveness while at the same time maintaining high standards of academic excellence. Furthermore, because a number of variables can bias the responses of students, student ratings should not be used as the sole criteria by which teaching effectiveness is evaluated.

Table 1. Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness by Age			
Item	Mean Rank for Traditional Students between 18-25 years of age	Mean Rank for Nontraditional Students > 25 years of age	p
The teacher displays concern for student progress	90.05	69.29	.002
The teacher gives bonus points	89.18	70.97	.01
Tests questions come from material covered in class	90.22	68.94	.0001
Tests are not too long	91.18	67.08	.0008
The course work includes assignments and tests that require original or creative thinking	75.46	97.68	.002

Table 2. Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness by Gender			
Item	Mean Rank for Males	Mean Rank for Females	p
The teacher provides clear explanations of subject matter	74.50	89.74	.004
The course requirements involve learning factual information	73.47	90.57	.009
The course enhances my career-related skills	72.36	91.45	.002
The teacher displays concern for student progress	72.94	90.97	.007
The teacher is responsive to my feelings and needs	70.03	93.29	.0009

Table 3. Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness by Class Standing			
Item	Mean Rank for Undergraduate Student	Mean Rank for MBA Student	p
The teacher demonstrates respect for students as individuals	88.7	74.02	.01
The teacher provides clear explanations of the course subject matter	88.3	74.64	.01
The teacher provides students an opportunity to review their exams	90.65	70.92	.003
Classes begin and end on time	92.71	67.8	.0005
Course objectives are made clear	89.26	73.13	.01
Test questions come from material covered in class	88.10	74.95	.01
Tests are not too long	89.56	72.64	.01
Receiving a good grade in the course	89.35	72.98	.01
The course enhances my career-related skills	91.59	69.44	.0004
The course requirements include assignments that assist in the development of speaking skills	72.18	100.08	.0001
The course work includes assignments and tests that require original or creative thinking	75.5	94.8	.007

Table 4. Rank Order of Importance of Indicators Not Significantly Different Among Comparison Groups	
Item	M (SD)
The teacher gives examination questions which are clear and unambiguous	4.8 (.46)
The grading process is fair	4.8 (.57)
The teacher makes clear the basis for determining student grades	4.7 (.52)
The course affords me the opportunity to learn a great deal	4.6 (.55)
The teacher is aware when students are confused	4.6 (.65)
The teacher makes clear my responsibilities for success in the course	4.5 (.60)
Agreement exist between stated course objectives and what is actually taught	4.5 (.64)
The teacher relates the course content to real world situations	4.5 (.71)
The teacher is articulate and expressive in manner of speech	4.4 (.62)
The teacher has good rapport with students	4.4 (.67)
Tests provide me a fair opportunity to demonstrate my knowledge	4.4 (.68)
Tests are returned within a reasonable period of time	4.4 (.69)
The teacher exhibits enthusiasm about the subject matter	4.4 (.71)
The teacher is readily available outside of class	4.3 (.65)
The teacher has a friendly personality	4.3 (.69)
The teacher has the ability to motivate me to do my best work	4.3 (.75)
The teacher encourages student comments and questions	4.2 (.74)
Regular feedback about my progress is provided	4.2 (.74)
The course requirements involve the learning of general principles or theories	4.1 (.78)
The teacher challenges me with thought-provoking questions	3.9 (.79)
In relation to other courses, the workload is not too heavy	3.9 (.79)
Examinations are challenging	3.8 (.75)
The teacher has a sense of humor	3.8 (.83)
The course requirements include out-of-class homework assignments that help me achieve the course objectives	3.8 (.94)
The pace of the course is challenging	3.6 (.71)
The teacher curves grades	3.6 (.96)
The teacher is professional in appearance and attire	3.6 (1.06)
The course requires intellectual effort greater than that required by most courses	3.5 (.78)
The course requirements include assignments that assist in the development of writing skills	3.5 (.90)
Teaching aids such as audio and video presentations are used	3.4 (.94)

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GRADE INFLATION: DEFINING THE REAL ISSUES

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ABSTRACT

Many people have raised concerns that the rise in the average grade awarded to colleges students in recent years is an alarming matter of grave concern. In this paper we argue that complex issues underlie this concern and that the concern should be less the level of grades than a comparison of the purpose of grades with what grades accomplish in the current state of higher education. We examine the history of concern over grades and grading processes and offer some insight into what the real research issues regarding grades ought to be.

INTRODUCTION

Ever since those first professors at Yale in 1783 decided to issue grades, the professoriate has been plagued each term with nagging questions about the role of grades in the system of higher education throughout the world. In recent years, a number of voices have been raised in objection to the upward trend in grades given by professors. This phenomenon, commonly referred to as *grade inflation*, has been fodder for many critics of higher education as they look for ways to attack the status quo. The attackers include the popular press, academics and former academics that have become pundits who revel in taking shots at existing academic structures (see, for example, Arenson, 1997; Basinger, 1997; Foster, 1998; Gose, 1997; Marshall, 1997; Pedersen, 1997; Sowell, 1994). We argue that the discussion of grade inflation issue masks a deeper and more significant issue that should be the center of learned dialogue. This issue centers on the role that grades play in the academic lives of students, faculty, administrators, and other stakeholders in the higher education process today.

Higher education has evolved from its humble beginnings in which a few scholars gathered students around them and led them in reasoned inquiry. This Platonic model of higher education is the paragon of all we strive for even today. Unfortunately, the business of higher education has intruded into this idyllic scenario and has brought with it the apparent need for evaluations of and scientifically defensible motivators for the students involved in this process.

Early in this century, researchers began the quest for scientifically defensible measurements of the learning process (Johnson, 1918). By the 1930s, we had began to see the effects of the transition from small learning communities to larger organized educational structures. The effects of this transition on grading policies and research into those policies became apparent in the educational research literature of that time (Corey, 1930; Davis, 1930; Good, 1937; Heck, 1938; Hill, 1935; Middleton, 1933). The decades that followed saw continuing interest in the subject of grades and grading (Bruner, 1961; Page, 1958), but little in the way of resolution. Many of these studies suggested that there were potential conflicts between the two grading goals of motivation and ranking.

The 1980s saw the publication of a monograph on the subject that has been much cited since. Milton, et al. (1986) published an analysis of existing research, reported some of their own research, and drew conclusions that are worth considering as we once again argue the role of grades in the higher education process. Milton, et al. (1986) made five recommendations for future research and administrative considerations regarding college grades:

1. We must decide whether grades are to be the tools of teaching and learning or the tools of ranking and sorting.
2. Tests must be designed more carefully and must be congruent with their purpose.
3. We must give students far more feedback than grades on tests and other assignments currently provide.
4. We should seriously consider using a less differentiated grading scheme that better mirrors the crude and imprecise evaluative techniques from which we derive grades.
5. We should abolish the grade-point average as a summary measure of student performance or rank.

TEACHING AND LEARNING VS. RANKING AND SORTING

One of the hallmarks of scholarly enterprise is the careful, reasoned, consideration of evidence and issues. Sadly, we have seldom brought to bear our typical scholar's eye and thinking to the subject of student grades. We doubt that many professors have spent much time at all considering the grading process and its congruence with grading goals. We fear that too few professors have ever spent any time thinking about the goals of the grading process. After all, most of us have become professors because we excelled at obtaining good grades.

As we began to think seriously about the objectives and goals of the grading process, we identified two main purposes. The first is to help students learn and teachers teach. In other words, grades should serve a diagnostic role. If the goal of higher education is to instill the process of learning in students, we should use grades to check on how efficiently and effectively that process is instilled in a given student.

Curiously, the research on the connection between stringent grading policies and learning outcomes has suggested that the connection between grading and learning outcomes is tenuous. Most studies suggest that student performance does not improve when instructors grade more stringently and conversely making it relatively easy to get a good grade does not lead students to do inferior work (Vasta and Sarmiento 1979, Abrami, et al. 1980).

On the issue of whether grades serve as motivators, we turn to the work by Kohn (1992a, 1992b, 1993, 1994) and find excellent arguments that grades as motivators not only do not work, but cannot work. Kohn (1994) notes that there is a significant difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Grades are extrinsic motivators. Kohn and others have conducted a number of studies that suggest people lose intrinsic motivation when offered extrinsic motivators (Grolnick and Ryan, 1987; Harter, 1978; Kage, 1991; Vasta and Sarmiento, 1979). Butler (1987, 1988) and Butler and Nissan (1986) have found that this interference effect is particularly strong when people are engaged in creative tasks.

Current grading standards are quite arbitrary and vary from course to course (even courses taught by the same professor) far too much to be an objective sorting device (Kirschenbaum, et al., 1971). Even the use of so-called "objective" questions, such as the ubiquitous multiple-choice question, are nothing more than an easily-graded manifestation of the professor's subjective feelings about what is important in a given course.

Most faculty members truly believe that they can separate their perceptions of student behavior from performance evaluation. The literature in personnel psychology on the "halo effect" suggests that this is not possible. Indeed, Hills (1991) found that a student's behavior can significantly affect a teacher's grade.

To summarize, we really do need to decide on one purpose for grades. One might argue that we could devise two grading systems, one for reporting to students their learning accomplishments and another for reporting to external parties. Unfortunately, the current research in management control systems and accounting reporting for businesses suggests that this is not a viable alternative (Zimmerman, 1997). The opportunities for information leakage destroy this any hope for success in such an approach.

CAREFUL TEST DESIGN

Once we decide which of our two purposes, learning enhancement or sorting, will be served by our testing regimen, we can then go to work on improving the design of our testing procedures. If we want to influence learning, we can accomplish a great deal by carefully designing tests. Far too many tests ask students to regurgitate isolated factual information. Such tests appear to be objective and are certainly easier to grade. Unfortunately, most professors will state that a goal of the courses they teach is to teach students "how to think." At the very least, most professors wish to see students obtain information from their courses that the students will be able to use later and apply in different contexts. To obtain the higher-order objectives of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom, 1976) requires a great deal of effort and carefully structured analogies for training (Detterman and Sternberg, 1993).

It is interesting to note that faculty members often complain about the rating systems used by administrators to evaluate their teaching performance. In most schools those evaluation systems are very similar to the evaluation systems used to generate student grades. Milton et al. (1985, 211-212) point out the irony in the inability of faculty to transfer the knowledge they gain from the personal pain they experience in such systems to the pain they inflict on students by using a grading system that is so very similar to the system they revile. Sadly, few teachers receive adequate training in grading or reporting grades to students (Boothroyd and McMorris 1992). Many receive no training at all.

IMPROVE FEEDBACK TO STUDENTS

Few students can discern exactly what a professor means by a grade of "87" or "C+" on a paper, project, or other assignment. The best way to provide feedback that will help students learn is to give the student detailed written comments on his or her work followed with an oral exchange in which you ensure that the student has understood the written comments and internalized them to the point that he or she can take the knowledge and apply it in a different context. Page (1958) found

that students who received individualized written comments on their work performed better on subsequent tests (tests of any type) than did students who received no feedback or who received standardized feedback. Whether or how the current educational system can provide this sort of "hands-on" education is beyond the scope of this paper, but it is clear that this is not the direction in which higher education has been heading for the past few decades.

FEWER GRADE CATEGORIES

If we cannot invest the time and resources necessary to provide a true feedback experience, and we cannot refine our testing procedures to better measure the learning outcomes of individual students, we should at least be honest about our lack of ability to accomplish these objectives. It is a wonder that we can map our imprecise perceptions of student performance to the nice, tidy thirteen points offered by the A+ to F scale that many schools use.

One solution to the overly-precise metric problem is to reduce the number of categories in the metric. Many schools use a pass/fail grade option for some courses. It makes some sense to use a variant of that option for all courses. Most faculty members can decide on the basis of student performance whether a given student has mastered the essential subject material or skills taught in a given course. Milton, et al. (1985) suggest that this two-condition course grading system would work quite well and that universities could fulfill their obligation to truly outstanding students by creating one other, sparingly used, category for "Honors" that would indicate mastery at an exceptional level.

Such a two- or three-level system would move the focus of grades away from some kind of magical metric to a more believable measure of knowledge learned. We believe most faculty would welcome the relief from the grading burden that this system would provide. It would significantly reduce the competition-inducing nature of grades, yet it would ostensibly retain the true value of grades as knowledge measures; and it would do so with an appropriate level of fineness in the metric.

ABOLISH THE GRADE-POINT AVERAGE

One of the main problems with Grade-Point Average (GPA) results is that they are used by people outside the educational institution who have no business using a number that they understand so little about. The fact that a bad freshman year can stay with a person for the rest of his or her life is somewhat ridiculous when we really consider it. If we use the honors/pass/fail grading system proposed by Milton, et al. (1985), we should remove all historical records of failures before any transcript is sent outside the institution. If employers and graduate schools have an interest in what students have learned, one might argue that they should be provided with a record of what subjects a student has mastered. The logic of reporting those subjects a student has failed to master, frankly, eludes us.

For those potential employers of students that desire a GPA to use as a rough screening device, we offer our sympathies; they are certainly not getting what they think they are getting in a GPA. We offer these potential employers a suggestion that they devise entry tests that measure the knowledge, skills, and attributes of potential employees. Such entry tests will provide them with

much more information about the current knowledge levels of the students they wish to interview than the GPA ever did.

CONCLUSION

We conclude with our arguments against grading as currently practiced. These arguments are that no school has really thought through what the purpose of grading is and, therefore, no school has a grading system that accomplishes objectives. We believe that a grading system should help schools teach their students and enhance the learning environment. We do not believe that current grading systems do either. Finally, we object to being forced to serve other institutions and potential employers of our students that are seeking a cheap and easy way to identify the better students. If they really want us to provide this function, many faculty members have personnel selection skills and would be happy to do so at an appropriate hourly rate.

The issue of grade inflation is hot air and arm-waving that occludes the real issues. There certainly are issues to be resolved that relate to grading processes on university campuses, but the inflation of poorly constructed indices is not the crux of the matter. Making changes to a widely-used and historically accepted grading process will not be easy, but we firmly believe that the benefits to students, faculty, administrators, and the world in general are worth any effort it might take to accomplish this sea change.

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ENHANCEMENT OF BUSINESS TEACHING USING A PROFESSOR WEBSITE

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INTRODUCTION

Business school education has experienced a new awakening with the development of rapid technological change in recent years. Because business is an applied discipline, business education must constantly adopt realities inherent in the business world in promoting quality job market entrants. Some of the new skills required for recent graduates are familiarity with computer capabilities, an aptitude for using new communications technology, and increased adaptivity to change. These skills are taught in a variety of ways. Professors often include assignments in their curriculum that require the use of office and analytical software. As the internet becomes more sophisticated as an efficient way to seek information, students are sometimes required to become familiar with search techniques or are required to carry out assignments using particular websites chosen by the professor.

This workshop deals with another way to incorporate extensive use of the internet. A website designed by a professor has the potential to enhance teaching effectiveness and produce a memorable and rewarding learning experience for students. The variety of activities that can be accomplished through use of a professor website is limited only by the imagination of the professor and student. The purpose of the workshop is to demonstrate a sample website and to train participants in how to develop and use their own websites.

GETTING STARTED

The first step in developing a website for teaching is, of course, to become familiar with what activities websites are capable of performing. This requires, simply, getting on your surfboard and trying it out for yourself. Of course, you need a minimum of one surfboard, and one ocean. This is analogous to the appropriate computer equipment, and access to the world wide web (often mistakenly used interchangeably with 'internet'). The world wide web can be explored using a 'browser' such as Netscape Navigator, Microsoft Internet Explorer, Mosaic, or other web browsers. These software packages read files posted on public information server computers. The browsers can read a variety of file types. The most common type of internet file is a type called 'Hyper Text Markup Language' (HTML), a word and graphic document encoding language that can be read by the browser.

As one surfs the net, a sequence of 'pages' are viewed. Information is publicly posted for viewing by producers of websites, known as webmasters. Businesses, nonprofit organizations, hobbyists, discussion groups, individuals, and allied academies (like this one) have produced websites they hope will be visited by the desired guests. Many business pursuits have flourished on the internet, because of the virtually unlimited market for products. Purchases, payments, and information transfer can easily be carried out electronically.

Pages are linked through 'hypertext', a word link that can be activated by positioning the cursor and clicking. This action takes the user to either another page on the same site, to a different position on the same page, or to an external website. The same transfer can be carried out by inserting active graphical icons or 'buttons' which similarly transport to different positions on the web. A user can generally move forward or backward through these page sequences.

A professor desiring to produce and use their own website should first become familiar with the process described above. The actual internet, of course, can be much more complicated than the description above, but a user can get a good idea of how websites can be used simply by exploring what others' websites are capable of. As professors learn how to use the internet, they should keep in mind the types of features they would like to incorporate in their own website. One of the best ways to learn the capabilities of professor websites is to visit other professors' websites. Often, faculty at their own institution already have websites, and these can be readily accessed and studied. A nice feature of the internet, though, is that it is just as easy to visit a website halfway around the world as it is to visit one across town.

After familiarizing oneself with the workings of other websites, the professor should set a few basic objectives that they wish to accomplish through use of their own website. Some objectives might include lecturing using prepared web pages as slides, creating online course syllabi, setting up interactive learning modules, posting lecture notes for student review, posting grades and current assignments, etc.

DEVELOPING CONTENT

The content that appears in a website has several characteristics. One of these characteristics is structure. Since HTML encoding is capable of handling nested transport commands (links that access other pages and locations), the website can take on a kind of heirarchy. Normally, an introductory or index page is the first contact the user has with the website. From the index page, hypertext or active icons or buttons can be chosen that allow users to select where in the heirarchy they want to go. A simple website, for example, may include an index page with links to two courses that the professor teaches. Clicking on the course names would take the user to the online syllabi for each course. Online syllabi can just be simple word files that appear in a similar way to holding a hard copy syllabus. Of course, the syllabi can also take on some nice capabilities themselves, such as search mechanisms or links to pages relating to each section of the syllabus.

The content for each page should be thought out ahead of time. Examples of content may include text, graphical images, use of color, backgrounds, special effects, animation, or sounds. Browsers are very flexible in terms of the experience they can allow the user to achieve. Sound and animation, for example, can be experienced if the user has installed 'plug-in' modules (supplemental software) with the browser. The professor can customize the experience to whatever they feel is useful in enhancing teaching. An important aspect of content is that large, high resolution graphics and animations take a long time to load into a browser window. Although these features give the site character, there is a tradeoff in that the user may become impatient waiting for the content to become usable.

TRANSLATING CONTENT TO HTML

The content of each page in the structure of the website can be produced in a variety of ways. One of the easiest ways to translate word files to HTML is to use one of the more modern word processing packages (e.g. Microsoft's Word 97). Most of these allow document saves as HTML format files, which are then readable by browsers. These are fairly effective even if tabular sections are included. Unfortunately, the 'look' that is achieved is not exactly as the document appeared in the word processing software. In order to retain flexibility in the ability to make an HTML document appear as desired, one should learn at least the basics of HTML editing.

HTML editing is really very similar to some of the old (now archaic) word processing packages that were in existence before the WYSIWYG (what you see is what you get) type software was developed. These word processors were really a guessing game in terms of what the printout would look like. Only upon printing could one be sure. HTML uses similar encoding tags to create boldface type, color, different font sizing, and spacing, as well as tags that identify active (linking) words and images. Only upon viewing these files with a browser can the final appearance be known. Unfortunately, the browsers do not necessarily display the same file in the same way. A user viewing the page in Netscape Navigator, for example, may encounter a different overall effect than a user viewing the page with the Mosaic browser. The differences are often greater when more complicated codes are used. A simple text page with some links is usually consistently displayed among browsers. Some of the desired effects, however, may involve complicated encoding. In that case, the professor must assess the relative value of consistent display across browsers versus the presence of an interesting effect.

Browsers can read several graphical formats. The most popular are probably JPEG's and GIF's. JPEG's have the suffix ".jpg" and GIF's have the suffix ".gif." Both of these are basically pictures. They can take the form of drawings, buttons, icons, photos, or other graphic images. Any of these can be placed in HTML documents by identifying them in the encoding. They can be juxtaposed relative to text and relative to other graphics. Some very nice visual effects are possible through the use of graphics.

Backgrounds and layouts can also be incorporated in HTML documents. A useful software program used to accomplish this is Microsoft's *Frontpage*. *Frontpage* allows for the selection of a "look' for the pages, including frames, backgrounds, and effects. In order to fully utilize these features, the website author will be required to gain the extra knowledge to do so.

Web pages can also be produced using browser utilities, available on some browser software packages. These have the advantage of producing the 'look' of the page concurrent with the encoding; in fact, the page is constructed and the effect viewed concurrently. Microsoft's *Frontpage* works in a similar fashion, showing the page author what the page would look like in a browser window.

After the pages are all produced, a trial run is usually possible by opening the index page in your browser and following each of your links to your subordinate pages. Outside links can be accomplished at any point simply by linking to a location (URL) for the external site. In summary, many methods of producing the HTML documents are possible. For simple pages, only a rudimentary understanding is required, whereas more complicated effects require more sophisticated software and/or a greater understanding of HTML.

DISPLAYING A WEBSITE ON THE INTERNET

Once the pages for a website are constructed and the heirarchy of links intact, the website is ready for public display. Websites are made available through a computer provided by the professor's university, by independent internet service providers, or if the professor wishes to have substantial control and memory capacity, a personal website server can be assembled.

The first place many professors seek for placement of a website is their own teaching institution. A website often only requires a small quantity of storage space. Many universities have some facility where professor websites can be made available to the internet. The process of uploading varies from institution to institution, so the professor should seek the assistance of someone familiar with the system and the policies that govern website availability.

Local internet service providers (ISP's) and online services (such as America Online, Erols or Compuserve), whether national or local, also have website services. A subscriber to internet access and email will often find that the provider makes space available for website use. Some providers will provide websites for free for subscribers as long as the website is not for the purpose of commercial gain. Even if the site has some commercial character, the extra cost is sometimes very reasonable. Again, services and costs vary from company to company, so it pays to shop around.

There are even some virtues in setting up a server system that exclusively serves the professor's needs. This option is typically a complicated process requiring specialized knowledge and considerable hardware and software investment. It can also be rather risky in terms of the likelihood of system failure, and possible lengthy downtime when repairs and software manipulations are necessary. It does have the advantage of larger memory capability, especially useful when a professor incorporates complicated and memory hungry applications as features of the webpage.

USING PROFESSOR WEBSITES FOR CLASSES

There are unlimited uses for websites in teaching. A professor website can be used to introduce students to courses with online syllabi, facilitate the review of lecture materials, display assignments, promote interactive learning/drills, post available materials such as cases, problems, and reviews, and provide students with practice tests.

The posting of course materials that are in verbal form is relatively easy, because word documents can be effectively translated into HTML using popular word processors. The addition of hypertext and graphics, sound or animations is more complicated, since the HTML document has to be augmented with more sophisticated encoding. Some of the easier types of website applications , however, include lecture slides and interactive learning. Slides can be easily produced by selecting a consistent look as a background and using color and font size commands. Most HTML editors have automated heading sizing and autoformatting for bulleted lists. Interactive learning can be accomplished by using hyperlinks to response pages when the student clicks particular responses to questions. The response pages can indicate whether the response is correct or incorrect, and give the student an explanation of why. It can also include references to other course materials should the student need to review the topic.

A necessary step for web based courses is an introductory session showing students the basics of using the website. At the beginning of a course, an announcement that the course will utilize a

professor website, and discussion about requirements for its use, are usually sufficient to differentiate the web based course from traditional approaches. The reaction is usually either enthusiasm or dread. In some cases, students may be attracted to the innovative approach. Other students may seek to change course sections to avoid the new approach.

Students need to have at least minimal training about how to make use of the features included on the website. This might best be accomplished through an extensive demonstration, preferably with some degree of hands-on experiences. It is also very helpful to include and seek the help of lab technicians and workers, so that if questions arise about the use of the website, students can seek help from someone other than the professor.

REFINEMENT OF THE WEBSITE

In most cases, professor websites begin with simpler applications and evolve over time to be more inclusive, and hopefully, more efficient at carrying out their intended purposes. Professors can constantly find new uses, new users, and extensions of the original site. The site featured in the teacher training session, for example, is used for recruitment purposes, as a retention aid, to facilitate networking between current and former students, in students' job searches, personal finance, and simple entertainment like photos of former students and campus scenes. A graduates database contains names addresses, email links, links to recruiting firms, and other information. The response from current and former students is generally very enthusiastic.

Changing the features of websites is becoming easier with the advent of automatic formatting and design available in more sophisticated webpage authoring software. Usually the best way to get one's feet wet is to develop a website and make it operational, however simplistic it may be. Once the process of initiating the website is accomplished, it is generally easier to affect desired changes. It is the author's experience that nearly all professors who develop and utilize websites are satisfied that the time and effort involved was well worth it.

Attendees at the Allied Academies are invited to visit the author's website at:

http://members.visi.net/~stre

and to address any comments via email, mail, or telephone.

A CLASSICAL LITERATURE APPROACH TO TEACHING LEADERSHIP AND MEETING AACSB MISSIONS STANDARDS

Stewart W. Husted, Lynchburg College in Virginia

ABSTRACT

Lynchburg College in Virginia is currently in its second year of AACSB candidacy. The College of approximately 2000 students describes itself as a "liberal arts college." The School of Business and Economics in its mission statement goes as far as to state, "We strive for excellence by providing a high quality professional education within a liberal arts tradition." This statement was challenged by the AACSB Candidacy Committee in 1996. They wanted to know what the School of Business and Economics did that was any different than any other college with a general education requirement. This paper addresses one solution to implementing a mission driven curriculum which includes an emphasis on integrating the liberal arts by using a "classics across the curriculum" approach and meeting AACSB mission standards.

BACKGROUND

Over the years a number of colleges and universities such as Columbia College, University of Chicago, the University of Virginia, Harvard, Mercer, St. John's College and others have provided students a curriculum based on the "Great Books" or "Classics." Since its founding in 1903, Lynchburg College, a private, coeducational, liberal arts college, has fostered a learning environment that has encouraged the reading of good books, the asking of meaningful questions, and reflections on great ideas. As a continuation of this tradition, in 1976 the College developed the Senior Symposium as a capstone course for seniors. It is organized around ten major themes which represent continuing concerns for humanity. The College publishes its own ten-volume set of classical readings for the course through the University Press of America. Lynchburg College Symposium Readings (LCSR)- Classical Selections on Great Issues addresses such themes as: "Poverty and Wealth";" Tyranny and Freedom;" - " The Nature of the Universe;" "Imagination and Creativity;" "Ends and Means in Education:" and "Faith and Morals." Through lectures by visiting scholars on related current issues and small-group discussions based on the lectures and readings, students grapple with the great issues facing humanity from the perspectives of Western civilization and thought from other traditions.

In 1988, an ad hoc committee of faculty members began meeting to discuss their concerns about the reading, writing, and speaking skills of students. The faculty members were also troubled by the lack of integrating forces in the general education curriculum. As a solution, they pondered the possibility of introducing readings from the Senior Symposium in various courses for undergraduates. Their conclusion was that all this could be brought together as a single project. The result would be reading, writing, and speaking across the curriculum. This would introduce some

integration into the curriculum while emphasizing the development of writing and speaking skills. At the same time all students would become acquainted with many classical works, and they would have a chance to explore them from different viewpoints and contexts.

The deliberations of the ad hoc committee resulted in a proposal for a two-year pilot. After approval by the general faculty in December 1988, the committee sought and received a FPSE grant from the U.S. Department of Education. The project was one of only 75 out of 1,900 funded in 1989. Much of theses funds were used to provide faculty members summer workshops and in-service training. The training enables faculty to contribute more fully in inter-disciplinary communication and further to help students discover the kind of connected knowledge that Plato called "the only kind of knowledge that takes lasting root."

LCSR PROGRAM

The LCSR Program has the following mission: "Our mission is to foster interdisciplinary study by all students to read from the classics and write, and to speak about them in the context of contemporary society throughout their four years at Lynchburg College. Further, we aim to work in partnership with our students, both inside and outside the classroom and to encourage them to take responsibility for their learning. Finally the Program seeks to create an atmosphere of shared learning within the college and beyond, therein fostering an academic climate conducive to teaching and learning."

The LCSR Program includes the following goals:

1. To enhance the integration of basic skills, interdisciplinary knowledge, and the classics by encouraging students to read analytically and to think critically by participating in reading, writing, and speaking activities across the curriculum through discourse, rather than through the mere memorization of facts.
2. To encourage students to become full partners with faculty in their education not only by taking more responsibility for their learning, but by working with faculty to publish The Agora, the official publication of the program, by participating in state and national conferences, by working on program committees and in-service workshops, and by serving with the Steering Committee of the program.
3. To promote among faculty cross-disciplinary communication via training workshops, monthly presentations, and ongoing involvement in the standing LCSR committees and national, international, and regional presentations.
4. To reach beyond our campus by developing workshops and institutes which expand participation in the program.
5. To expand faculty development opportunities in the areas of interdisciplinary/ integrated studies, writing, speaking, and critical thinking through in-service training and by sending faculty to external institutes with the intent to make greater use of faculty expertise in these areas.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LCSR PROGRAM AND THE GOALS OF THE COLLEGE

The LCSR Program was developed primarily to respond to two perceived needs - to provide an early introduction to the Senior Symposium Readings and to improve student reading, writing, and speaking competencies. The faculty soon realized that the program fostered collaborative learning among the students and between faculty and their students. The program fulfills the Colleges goals for its students: To build intellectual competencies-reading, writing, speaking...through completion of the curriculum. To understand and enjoy teamwork through participation in a wide variety of activities, including.....academic learning activities. To acquire the habit of intellectual curiosity, independent learning and the tolerance of new and different ideas through participation in the intellectual life of the College.

The LCSR Program assists the College in meeting it stated goals for general education. Accordingly, the Program provides a forum for students to meet its first goal to "Communicate effectively in written and oral forms of English." Further, the Program assists the College in meeting its first and second goals of student attainment: 1) "Appreciate the importance of art and literature to humanity; and 2) To understand the nature of historical events as they influence decision-making at the present time." All members of the faculty wishing to teach in the LCSR Program must submit a syllabus which clearly requires that 20% of the students' grades be based on oral and written forms of communication within the classroom. Course syllabi are reviewed each year by members of the Steering Committee.

INTEGRATING THE CLASSICS INTO BUSINESS COURSES

The use of the LCSR program to meet our objectives and mission statement was a natural for the School of Business and Economics. LCSR courses are characterized by discussion and collaborative learning approaches rather than a traditional lecture format. Faculty engage in more dialogue with one another about effective teaching and empower students to take more responsibility for their own learning. Increased creativity and excitement in the classroom often result from the integration of the readings with different disciplines. In the early years of the project several business faculty volunteered to participate in such courses as Auditing, Introduction to Business, and Principles of Management. However, the number of faculty and the number of courses involved was not widespread. One professor noted that by using readings from Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* and Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*, he was "able to help students" in his management class "understand the causes of modern labor-management conflicts and the growth of unionism more clearly than I have ever been able to do in the past."

To insure that the School of Business and Economics had a curriculum which matched its mission, the School reviewed and revised the curriculum in 1997 to include four new core (required) courses which integrated the LCSR classical readings and writing and oral requirements. To fund the development of these new courses, a grant was applied for and received from the Lemelson Foundation. This grant will pay summer stipends for four faculty members who will work to complete the first course prototypes by the end of the summer of 1998. In addition, an 11th volume of LCSR readings on management and leadership topics is being developed by SOBE faculty.

LEADERSHIP AND THE CLASSICS

Leadership and the Classics (BUAD 465) is a two (2) hour, senior capstone course. The course is designed to teach the concepts and techniques of effective leadership. Using selections from the LCSR readings (a minimum of three) and *The Leader's Companion - Insights on Leadership Through the Ages*, and cases from the *Hartwick Classic Cases* series, students will analyze different leadership styles of past leaders and compare them with modern business leaders selected from Fortune's annual issue "Most Admired Business Leaders." To meet LCSR requirements, a minimum of 20 percent of the final grade will be assigned to oral and written assignments. Written assignments will require students to utilize critical thinking skills (see attachment). The oral presentation will require a five minute dramatization of a famous leader. The dramatization must reenact or recall a moment in history where a leader from the classical selections demonstrated his/her leadership skills. In addition, students will complete a leadership self-assessment to determine their readiness for leadership roles. The leadership analysis should include a plan of action for improving their leadership skills after graduation.

CONCLUSION

Every business school desiring to be accredited or reaffirmed by AACSB must be mission driven. Each mission statement will determine the type of curriculum, instructional resources, faculty, students, and intellectual contributions. It is extremely important that mission statements clearly provide a distinct niche for each school/college. The growing number of small, liberal arts colleges pursuing AACSB candidacy must avoid using a "cookie cutter" approach to developing mission statements. Instead they should develop mission statements which reflect their unique heritage and educational philosophy. Since teaching (learning) is touted by most liberal arts colleges as a main strength and focus, then resources and scholarship must reflect efforts to maintain and strengthen the teaching emphasis area. Using the "classics" in the business classroom is but one example of how business schools at liberal arts colleges can demonstrate uniqueness and at the same time enhance the mission statement of the institution as a whole.

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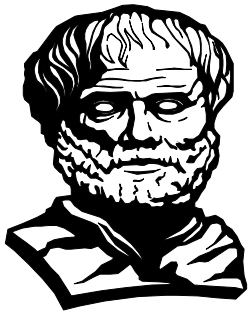
Syllabus
Senior Seminar:
Leadership and the Classics
BUAD 465



Instructor: Dr. Stewart W. Husted
311 Carnegie Hall
husted@lynchburg.edu
804-544-8261

Office Hours: by appointment

Course Description: This LCSR course studies the concepts and techniques of effective leadership. The classics will be used as a resource to gain insightful knowledge into how these concepts and techniques of leadership work in a business environment.

Goals of the Course:

Upon completion of the course the student will be able to:

1. Differentiate between leadership and management.
2. Analyze and understand their personal leadership abilities.
3. Demonstrate effective communication skills such as speaking, listening and writing.
4. Recognize leadership themes and leadership characteristics found in personalities from classical books.
5. Apply problem solving and critical thinking techniques to leadership dilemmas.

Required texts and cases: J. Thomas Wren, *The Leader's Companion* (The Free Press, 1995); Selected cases from the *Hartwick Classic Leadership Cases* series; LCSR Volumes

Methods of Evaluation:		
	Personal Leadership Analysis	20%
	Modern Business Leader Analysis	20
	Role Playing Exercise	20
	Mid-Term Exam/Final Exam	40
		100

Attendance Policy: Daily attendance is expected. Two points will be subtracted from the final grade for more than two unexcused absences.

Honor Code: The honor code has detailed in the Hornet handbook is in effect.

Assignments

Role Playing: Each student must select an historical character (or other approved characters) from the LCSR Readings and role play or reenact a scene or moment in history when the character spoke on leadership or demonstrated his/her leadership skills. The scene/moment must be between 3 and 5 minutes. An appropriate costume would add to the effect and students are encouraged to use their theatrical speaking skills to maximize points. Others from the class can be drafted to assist and if appropriate a team presentation could be done where two characters from history meet to discuss their ideas on leadership.

Modern Business Leader Analysis: Students must select a current business leader from Fortune's "Most Admired" list. The current list includes Jack Welch (GE), Bill Gates (Microsoft), Michael Eisner (Disney), Andy Grove (Intel), Herb Kelleher (South West Airlines), Warren Buffet (Berkshire Hathaway), and Lewis Pratt (Merck). Others modern business leaders can be selected with prior approval of the instructor. The paper should be between 5-7 pages not including a reference page (papers should have footnotes or other references). The paper should analyze the skills of the leader and compare and contrast the leader to historical leaders who demonstrated those skills. The use of examples is critical in this paper.

Personal Leadership Analysis: Each student will complete the leadership self-assessment provided by the instructor. The results of this survey will be summarized and the student will use the results to analyze their state of readiness for future leadership roles. Papers will be 3-5 pages.

Mid-Term and Final Exams: The mid-term and final exams will cover all material up to the point of the exams. Exams will be essay in nature and could include cases.

Tentative Course Outline: Leadership and the Classics BUAD 465		
DATE/CLASS #	Topic	Reading/Assignment
#1	Introduction	
#2	The Leadership Crisis	Wren, pp.1-23
#3	What is Leadership?	Wren, pp. 25-43
#4	Historical Views of Leadership: Leo Tolstoy	Wren, pp. 47-80
#5	Plato	LCSR Reading
#6	Aristotle	LCSR Reading
#7	Niccolo Machiaveli	LCSR Reading
#8	Lao-tzu	LCSR Reading
#9	Mohandas Gandhi	LCSR Reading
#10	Gandhi Video	Hartwick Case
#11	Gandhi Video	
#12	W.E.B. Du Bois	LCSR Reading
#13	Mid-Term Exam	
#14	Contemporary Leadership Theory	Wren, pp. 88-113
#15	What Leaders Really Do	Wren, pp. 114-123
#16	Personal Factors and Traits Associated with Leadership	Wren, pp. 127-145
#17	Woman and Minorities in Leadership	Wren, pp. 149-181
#18	The Followers	Wren, pp. 183-242
#19	Situational Leadership	Wren, pp. 207-211
#20	Charismatic Leadership: Martin Luther King	Wren, pp. 318, LCSR
#21	Leading Individuals	Wren, pp. 325-350
#22	Leading Groups: Video	Wren, pp. 353-373
#23	Video: Dead Poet Society or Hoosers	Hartwick Case
#24	The Skills of a Leader	Wren, pp. 375-450
#25	Leadership in Practice	Wren, pp. 451-480
#26	Moral Leadership: Jesus	LCSR Reading, Wren, pp. 481-508
#27	Role Playing	
#28	Role Playing	
#29	EXAM	

PART-TIME BUSINESS FACULTY: ARE STUDENTS GETTING THEIR MONEY'S WORTH?

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ABSTRACT

As colleges throughout the country struggle to cope with dwindling budgets, more and more of them are having to depend on adjunct faculty to teach courses because of the lack of available full-time faculty. Schools of Business Administration are not immune to this trend, and many are using more part-time faculty to fight the budget crunch. This paper compares the quality of instruction between part-time faculty and full-time faculty in a School of Business at a small university located in the Southeastern United States. Final suggestions and recommendations are made based on the results of the analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Higher education has been hit hard with budget cuts over the past years, and many institutions are hiring more inexpensive part-timers. According to the American Council on Education, which represents 1600 colleges, more than half the colleges in the country increased their use of part-time faculty in 1993 and another one-third did the same in 1994. The American Association of University Professors reported that 43 percent of all faculty in American higher education are part-time (AAUP, 1996).

Business Schools are not immune to this current trend and are hiring additional part-time faculty due to a lack of available full-time faculty. Many Business departments appear to view part-time faculty as an economical way to cover class sections. As long as student evaluations appear to be adequate, Deans and Department Heads are for the most part satisfied. Nevertheless, with the continuing increase in the use of part-time business faculty, the question must be asked as to whether the students are receiving a comparable quality of teaching from the part-timers as they would receive from full-time professors. In other words, are students getting their money's worth? Part-time business faculty usually only possess a Masters degree since most Business Schools do not have the luxury of having a pool of part-time applicants that have terminal degrees in their area of expertise.

COMPARATIVE STUDIES

An analysis of the literature suggests a need for improved professional development activities for part-time faculty to ensure instructional quality. However, the implementation of creative plans

for improving the effectiveness of part-time faculty has been primarily aimed at community colleges (Williams, 1994; Eggers, 1990; Andrews, 1987; Norman, 1984). Needless to say, most of the significant research with regard to comparing adjunct faculty with full-time faculty also has been done at the community college level, where the majority of the faculty are usually part-time (Banachowski, 1997). Some research (Ostertag, 1991; Sprangler, 1990) supports the notion that full-time faculty are more effective than part-time faculty. For example, a study was conducted in the Business Division at Fayetteville Technical Institute (Jackson, 1986) to compare the effectiveness of full-time and part-time faculty in terms of student evaluations. Students gave full-time instructors significantly higher ratings than part-time instructors with respect to four areas: 1) knowledge of subject area, 2) formal classroom presentation of material, 3) knowledge of teaching methods, and 4) starting classes on time. Yet, other studies (California Community Colleges, 1987) suggest there is no significant difference between the quality of instruction for part-timers and full-timers. One such study was conducted at Corning Community College (Turgeon, 1983) to develop profiles of full-time and part-time faculty based on student evaluations. Part-time faculty performed as well or better than full-time faculty across the board. Based on the study, a recommendation was made to increase the number of part-time faculty as an economic expedient and as a means of providing flexibility and expertise.

The literature suggests that very little research have been done recently in the area of comparing the quality of part-time faculty with full-time faculty. Most of the research in this area has been limited to situations where part-timers account for a majority of the total faculty, which are primarily community colleges. The literature indicates a need to analyze the instructional effectiveness of part-time faculty versus full-time faculty in four-year institutions, especially with regard to Business Schools. Part-time faculty are often evaluated in Business Schools through the use of various evaluation tools such as student and/or peer evaluations. However, statistical analysis comparisons between part-time and full-time faculty are seldom if ever performed.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The data used in this study were based solely on a national student evaluation tool that has been administered in 453 sections of business classes over the past nine semesters in the School of Business at a small university located in the Southeastern United States. Approximately twelve percent of the classes (54 sections) were taught by part-time faculty, while eighty eight percent of the classes (399 sections) were taught by full-time faculty. The differences between part-time faculty evaluations and full-time faculty evaluations will be analyzed using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. This test is a nonparametric procedure that is widely used in testing for differences between the median of two populations. Additionally, the Wilcoxon rank sum test has proven to be almost as powerful as the parametric t test when the assumption of normality is met, and is considered more powerful than the t test when this stringent assumption is not met (Levine, Berenson, and Stephan, 1997).

ANALYSIS

Hypotheses were developed to test for significant differences between the two faculty groups concerning various aspects of teaching. Sets of hypotheses were developed for each of the following areas under the appropriate category. The number of questions on the survey instrument that

corresponds to each particular area is placed in parentheses (see Appendix A for a complete listing of the questions). For example, there are six questions on the survey that measure the degree to which the instructor involves the students. The four general perception areas are based on individual questions.

Teaching Methods Category:
- Involving Students (six questions)
- Communicating Content and Purpose (six questions)
- Creating Enthusiasm (five questions)
- Preparing Examinations (three questions)

General Perception Category:
- Progress on Course Objectives
- Would Like Instructor Again
- Improved Attitude Towards Field
- Overall, this Professor is Excellent
- I Learned A Great Deal in Course

The general hypotheses to be tested for each of the nine areas are as follows:

Ho: student perception of full-time faculty performance $\leq$ student perception of part-time faculty performance

Ha: student perception of full-time faculty performance > student perception of part-time faculty performance

The results are ranked from lowest to highest to allow calculation of the Wilcoxon rank sum test. Z scores were calculated with the associated probability values (p values) to test for significant differences. The results from the ratings of teaching methods are presented in Table 1. These results indicate that the only significant difference in the area of teaching methods is "creating enthusiasm". Full-time faculty received significantly higher marks on the average of the five questions that account for this area.

A positive Z score indicates that part-time faculty have a lower median than full time faculty, but only in the "creating enthusiasm" area is the difference large enough to be considered statistically significant. None of the other areas of teaching methods showed significant differences between full time and part time instructors. And in fact, part-time faculty had a higher median score than full-time faculty in the area of "preparing examinations".

Table 1: Results of Wilcoxon Rank Sum Tests, Teaching Methods

	Z SCORE	P VALUE
Involving Students	.705	.240
Communicating Content And Purpose	.089	.465
Preparing Examinations	-.431	.667
Creating Enthusiasm	2.96	.002

The other ratings compared in this study are more general and not directly linked to teaching methods. These ratings consist of summary profiles for each course section as well as an overall rating for both the course and the instructor. The results of these ratings are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of Wilcoxon Rank Sum Tests, General Perception

	Z SCORE	P VALUE
Progress on Course Objectives	3.45	.0003
Would Like Instructor Again	.461	.3223
Improved Attitude Towards Field	.406	.3425
Overall, this Professor is Excellent	1.72	.0430
I Learned a Great Deal in Course	1.77	.0386

The results consistently favor the full time instructors in this section. Three of the general perception questions are statistically significant (at .05 level), and all five Z scores are positive indicating lower median ratings for part-time faculty compared to full-time faculty. In particular, the students rated progress on course objectives to be significantly higher for full-time faculty. They also gave full-time instructors higher ratings as "excellent" teachers, and perceived more learning in those sections taught by full-time faculty as compared to those taught by part-time faculty.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study should provide helpful insight for Schools of Business in evaluating their policies concerning the hiring and evaluation of part-time faculty. Deans and Department Heads are encouraged to look beyond comparable academic credentials and consider whether students are well served by increasing the number of part-time faculty in the business program. While this study focuses on one small university, questions must be raised as to the impact on students when full-time faculty teach fewer courses. Student perceptions are not the only measure of learning, but the lack of assessment instruments means that it is one of the few measurements available and thus should be a part of the overall evaluation of the impact of using part time instructors. Students deserve comparable quality regardless whether or not the instructor is full-time or part-time. Simply assigning

part-time faculty to meet class offerings will not suffice within the current onslaught of academic accountability and assessment. Student's tuition is not reduced when their classes are taught by part-timers. Therefore, it is essential that students perceive no difference between the quality of instruction between the two faculty groups.

APPENDIX A
Questions Related to Teaching Methods

Involving Students
Promoted Teacher student Discussion
Helped students answer own questions
Encouraged students to express themselves
Changed approaches to meet new situations
Explained reasons for criticisms
Encouraged comments even if irrelevant

Communicating Content and Purpose
Demonstrating the Significance of the Subject
Made it clear how each topic fit
Summarized in ways which aided retention
Clearly stated objectives of the course
Explained course material clearly
Related material to real life situations

Preparing Examinations
Gave exams stressing unnecessary memorization
Gave examination questions which were unclear
Exam questions were unreasonably detailed

Creating Enthusiasm
Seemed enthusiastic about the subject matter
Spoke with expressiveness and variety
Made dry and dull presentations
Stimulated students to high intellectual effort
Introduced stimulating ideas about the subject

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DELIVERY AND MANAGEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN A CLIENT/SERVER ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

Instructional Web sites have been long due a makeover to involve users more actively in the educational experience. With modern technology and an expanded perspective, web authors can transform passive sites into information processing systems that exercise a fuller range of capabilities. A three-tier client/server model for Web development is explained and an on-going project to build a dynamic, interactive Web site is described.

INTRODUCTION

Web technology has proved a generally passive medium for delivering on-line education. As an instructional tool it often serves as a high-tech page-turner, dutifully displaying pages of uninteresting text and graphics to disinterested observers. Student visitors to instructional sites often invest no more effort in the experience than passing acknowledgment of the content as it speeds by under the click of a mouse.

Even so, considerable effort may be expended in developing, organizing, and preparing materials for Web access. Plus, the effort required to keep the content fresh can be troublesome, resulting in sites that become historical archives rather than dynamic presentations of timely information. Countless hours can be spent on Web development that, in the end, has little impact on student learning or even in student interest in learning. Even so, universities promote this development as technological gain defined in terms of the sheer volume of information provided on line.

If the Web is to become integral to education, however, then it must play a more dynamic, interactive role. Students need to become active participants in the educational experience, interacting with the content in an educational give-and-take. The content itself must be adaptive to student needs. A one-size-fits-all approach must make way for individualization, and the content must remain up to date without burdening the instructor or distracting from other educational chores. Finally, the instructor must be able to manage instruction through the Web, using it as a feedback mechanism as well as a source of educational content.

WEB PAGE AUTHORING

Developing Web pages can be as simple as applying HTML (HyperText Markup Language) codes to the text in a document and making the resulting page Web accessible. All that is required to produce a page is passing familiarity with HTML and a text editor to embed the codes within the

document. Often, knowledge of HTML is not even required, as certain page authoring software permits direct WYSIWYG design.

The technical environment within which Web authoring takes place need involve only a Web server computer and a Web client computer. The Web server is the repository of Web pages, which are delivered to the client computer through requests entered through the browser software on the desktop machine. The browser interprets the HTML codes embedded on the delivered page and formats the accompanying text and graphics for screen display.

It can be a relatively simple task to set up a Web site within this environment. Likewise, it can result in relatively simplistic applications. In this instance the Web is no more than a source of one-way communication between the instructor and the student, and the usefulness of the information provided is largely determined by the amount of effort needed to keep it fresh.

WEB APPLICATIONS DEVELOPMENT

The most useful Web pages, however, are more than these static displays of fixed content. They are dynamic presentations of timely, changing information, with links reflecting user preferences and with methods of user interaction to individualize content. Also, Web pages can be methods of collecting as well as displaying information, and they can manage this information within on-line files and databases to deliver dynamic, personalized content for specific user needs.

In order to produce dynamic, interactive Web sites the developer must have a change of perspective. No longer can the Web be viewed solely as an output device for displaying educational content embedded in a collection of Web pages. Instead, Web sites must be viewed as full-featured information processing systems, involving input, processing, and storage functions in addition to output displays. Plus, these applications must take advantage of the full technical capabilities of client/server computing whereby the full capabilities of the Web are brought to bear on the instructional task. In short, the "Web page author" must become a "Web applications developer," utilizing the full repertoire of Web capabilities.

In this scenario Web development requires more that a basic knowledge of HTML or software that insulates the author from formatting codes. It requires knowledge of various other languages for browser- and/or server-side processing of user requests and it requires basic know-how in file and database design and access. Besides this increased technical know-how, the developer also needs an understanding of the system framework within which authoring takes place and of the relationships among the functional and system components of the Web site. The developer requires a new conceptual model for this more complex environment within which Web development takes place.

THE THREE-TIER CLIENT/SERVER MODEL

Modern Web development takes place within what is called a "three-tier client/server" environment. Under this model, Web applications, or Web pages, are broken down into three functional components, and these functions, in turn, are assigned to the three system components of a Web site. The three functional components of a Web application are termed the "user interface," the "business rules," and the "database management" functions; the three system components of a Web application are the Web browser, the Web server, and the database server. The three-tier

client/server model attempts to assign the three processing functions to the three system components best positioned to service those functions.

WEB FUNCTIONS

Web applications can be decomposed into user interface, business rules, and data access functions, or activities.

The user interface function pertains to Web page interactions with the user. It encompasses activities such as formatting of text and graphic content for display in the browser, inputting user requests and information through mouse clicks on buttons and links and through data entry in text boxes, and validating user input prior to its processing. In an educational setting, for example, the user interface might refer to formatting an on-line test for display in the browser, collecting student responses through a form composed of clickable buttons or text boxes, and validating the responses for completeness prior to calculating test scores and summarizing results.

Business rules pertain to the policies, procedures, and methods implemented by the Web application. They are the standard operating procedures by which an organization carries out its work and reaches its goals. These rules are represented in the Web application by the processing logic used to massage data collected from users and/or extracted from files and through which these input data are transformed into output information to accomplish the purpose of the application. To continue the above example of Web-based testing, the business rules would include the grading policies and practices of the school as implemented in the application to score test responses, assign grades, and produce statistical summaries of the results.

The database management function pertains to the storage, maintenance, and retrieval of information central to the Web application. It involves placing information collected from users into files and databases, updating the information to keep it current, and retrieving it for display on Web pages. In the on-line testing example, responses from students can be written to a file or database, retrieved for scoring and summarizing, accessed for display in reports, and retained over time as a test archive.

SYSTEM COMPONENTS

Once the Web application has been decomposed into these three parts, then the task remains of assigning these parts to the appropriate system components. The three primary hardware/software components to which functional components are assigned are the Web browser, the Web server, and the database server.

The Web browser is associated with the user interface function. Residing on the desktop computer, the browser has the responsibility for formatting the Web page, displaying forms for user input, validating input prior to processing, and responding to user clicks on navigation links. By interpreting HTML codes embedded on the Web page, the browser renders the enclosed text and graphics in various layouts and styles for display on the computer screen; plus it transmits navigation requests to the Web server to locate and retrieve other pages for display. Recently, scripting languages have been added to the browser's repertoire of tools to expand its user interface capabilities. The JavaScript language, for instance, adds programming logic to the Web page. Now,

Web pages have additional intelligence for activities such as validating user input, setting user viewing preferences, controlling navigation, and responding to user processing requests that can be handled at the browser side, or client side, of the system.

The Web server is responsible for implementing the business rules imbedded in the application. It is on the server side where the primary information processing activities take place—where organizational policies, procedures, and methods show up in the processing logic of the application. Unlike the browser, the server has the workhorse capacity to handle processing request from multiple clients scattered locally and around the world and it has the software tools and information access methods necessary to handle these requests. Traditionally, server-side processing software has included standard programming languages such as C++ and Visual Basic along with newer and specialty languages such as Java and Perl. Recently, however, Web technologies such as Microsoft's Active Server Pages (ASP) has made it possible to employ easy-to-use scripting languages such as VBScript (Visual Basic scripting language) for server-side information processing. Like its client-side JavaScript companion, VBScript contains most of the processing commands and control structures to handle almost any Web-based information processing need.

The database server manages the collections of data that support the Web application and provides access to the information contain therein. Virtually all information processing and delivery systems have databases at their core. Maintaining these collections of data is itself a specialty function, which often is assigned to separate servers, using specialized database management software. Depending on the size and complexity of the application, though, database management can be assigned to the Web server. The database management system (DBMS)—the software that oversees database processing—normally includes a query language to permit easy access to the data. Through languages such as SQL (Structured Query Language), embedded within scripting languages such as VBScript, Web developers can easily add, change, delete, or access information contain in the database.

In summary, then, the Web developer needs to think of the Web application as a three-part entity composed of user interface, business rules, and data access functions. Then, these functions should be assigned to the system components—the Web browser, Web server, or database server—that can best handle the particular processing. Adopting this three-tier client/server model ensures that processing is handled by the component designed to perform the function; plus, it eliminates excessive or unnecessary network communications between the components. The relationships among the functions and components are summarized in Table 1.

WEB DEVELOPMENT TOOLS

Discussion of the client/server information processing model reveals the collection of software tools important for Web development:

The Hypertext Markup Language is the main tool used by the Web page author to deliver text and graphic content in the desired format. Markup codes, called tags, surround the text in the document and control the manner in which paragraphs, headings, lists, tables, forms, and the like are rendered in the browser and how picture elements appear amidst this text. In addition, selected words, phrases, and graphics can be designated as mouse-clickable links to permit navigation among the several pages of the Web or to other pages at other sites on the World Wide Web.

Table 1. Components in a Three-tier Client/Server Web Processing Model

	Web Client	Web Server	Database Server
Function	User Interface	Business Rules	Data Management
Activities	Client-side Processing output formatting data input data validation site navigation	Server-side Processing policies procedures methods	Database Processing file access file maintenance: additions changes deletions
Development Tools	HTML JavaScript	VBScript (JavaScript) ASP Components	VBScript SQL ASP Components

The JavaScript language is a browser-side scripting language. Although not as complete as standard, full-featured programming languages, it nonetheless contains the processing commands and control structures necessary to handle most client-side tasks. JavaScript is often employed to bring increased user interaction to the Web page, to handle user preferences, to manage window displays, to respond to user navigation requests, to validate form data and perform preliminary processing, as well as to implement information processing tasks that can be performed at the client. From an information processing standpoint, JavaScript integrates with HTML to ensure that valid data are collected from the user for transmission to the Web server for processing.

The Visual Basic scripting language is primarily a server-side processing language. It contains the commands and control structures needed to access and process information contained in files and databases and to produce the information content that appears on the Web page. VBScript integrates with Active Server Pages technologies and with database query languages to turn the Web site into a true information processing and delivery system.

A database management system organizes, stores, and maintains information pertaining to the Web site or to a particular Web application. DBMS software is available to run on a desktop computer for managing local files or to run on specialized servers to maintain Web-wide information. Most importantly, DBMS software comes with an ODBC (Open DataBase Connectivity) driver that permits its information to be accessed through the standard VBScript and JavaScript languages embedded on the Web page rather than through specialized or proprietary command languages.

Structured Query Language is a command language for maintaining database information. SQL commands are embedded within VBScript or JavaScript code in order to retrieve information for screen display or to add, change, or delete database information. The syntax of SQL resembles natural language moreso that computer code, so it is convenient to learn and use. Most dialects of SQL follow common standards making it easy to migrate between versions.

Through ASP technologies the above software tools are brought together to provide a full-function applications development environment. ASP is an integrating technology. Its various server

functions and database linking capabilities make it possible to use simple scripting languages combined with HTML and database management software to perform information processing tasks previously associated with expensive, large-scale, proprietary, and difficult-to-use development systems. ASP creates close linkages among these various languages and tools, and a Web page is likely to contain sections using all of them.

The way in which the various tools come together on a Web page is illustrated in Figure 1. This figure is a single page containing combinations of HTML, client-side JavaScript routines, server-side VBScript routines, and SQL access to a database. The structure of this example page could illustrate an application that displays an HTML form to gather data from the user, uses client-side JavaScript routines to validate the entered data, transmits the data to the server with an HTML button, updates a database through SQL commands embedded within VBScript routines, displays the updated file in the browser using an HTML table with embedded ASP references to the data items, along with some secondary processing.

It should be obvious that Web page capabilities have been enhanced well beyond the text and graphic displays of the past. No longer is it necessary to accept as the norm those static, inert displays or the visitor's role as passive viewer of outdated content. Today, the Web page is a component of a dynamic information processing system, one that interacts with and adapts itself to the user and one that provides current, pertinent content designed for user action and participation.

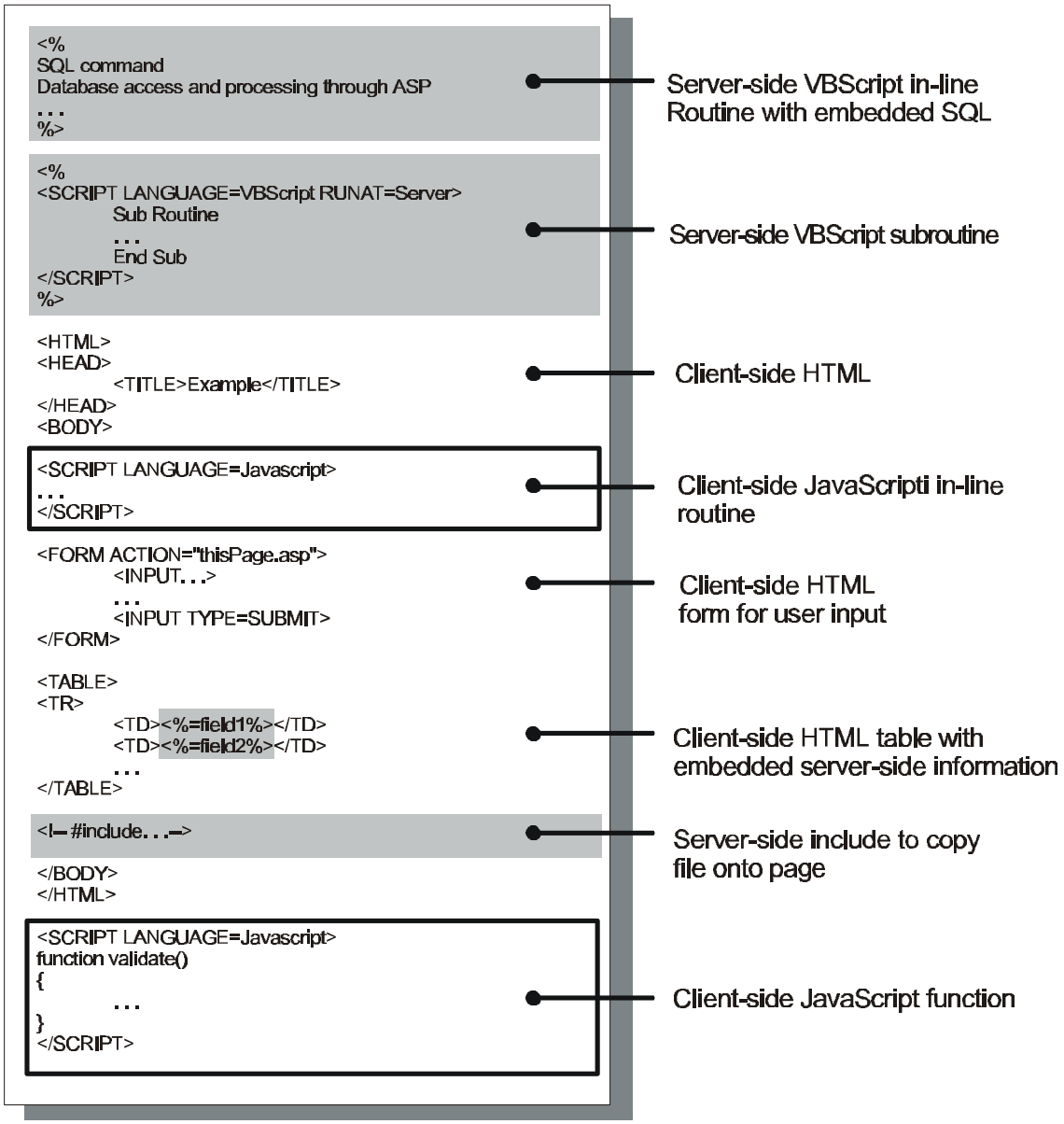


Figure 1. Contents of a Web Page for Client- and Server-Side Processing

THE SOPHIA PROJECT

An attempt to apply these newer Web technologies is currently under way at Northern Kentucky University under the direction of the authors. It is a project to create an interactive instructional Web site for use in new Web-based courses and for integration with existing courses at the university. It is a cross-disciplinary effort involving faculty, students, and administrators in building an infrastructure for course development and instructional delivery on the Web.

The project has several objectives: (1) To promote the use of new technologies for building dynamic, interactive Web sites for instructional support, (2) To investigate ways to apply the new technologies to current courses and for creation of new Web-based courses, (3) To provide training programs for faculty to learn and implement the new technologies, (4) To acquire the necessary technology to train faculty, prototype applications, and provide implementation support, and (5) To develop standardized applications that can be easily adopted for use by nontechnical faculty.

The project grew out of evangelizing efforts by the authors to promote the use of Web technologies to colleagues and administrators. Several prototype applications were developed to demonstrate capabilities, and presentations were made around campus to generate interest. The response was very enthusiastic and resulted in solicitation of a formal proposal from the Office of Vice-president for Academic Affairs. The project received initial funding to purchase necessary hardware and software to provide funds for faculty development.

Home for the instructional Web site, designated as SOPHIA and located at http://sophia.nku.edu, is a Dell PowerAde 4300 network server. The server runs Microsoft Windows NT Server 4.0 network operating system with services for PC and Macintosh client computers. The web site operates under Microsoft Internet Information Server (IS) 4.0 with Active Server Pages technologies. The authors serve as administrators for the site with assistance from the Office of Academic Computing. It is currently in use for prototyping instructional applications and is serving as a test bed for implementation.

FACULTY TRAINING

An instructional Web site is as effective as the faculty who use it. Therefore, a major part of the project involves faculty training and uses a two-phase approach. First, four faculty from across the university were invited to join a "Pioneer" group of technical specialists. This group includes faculty from the Colleges of Arts and Sciences, Professional Studies, and Business. They are receiving intensive training in the technologies and will form a cadre of trainers, along with the authors, for the second phase of the project.

Members of this Pioneer group were chosen on the basis of their past experience with Web technology and their interest in learning and promoting the new technologies. Expectations for this group include: (1) to become technically skilled in the use of the new Web technologies, (2) to participate in the development of instructional applications based on this technology, (3) to use prototype applications in classes and to refine applications for general faculty use, (4) to serve as instructors and mentors in faculty development workshops, and (5) to promote the use of new Web technologies within their respective colleges, to evaluate emerging technologies, and to make recommendations to university decision makers.

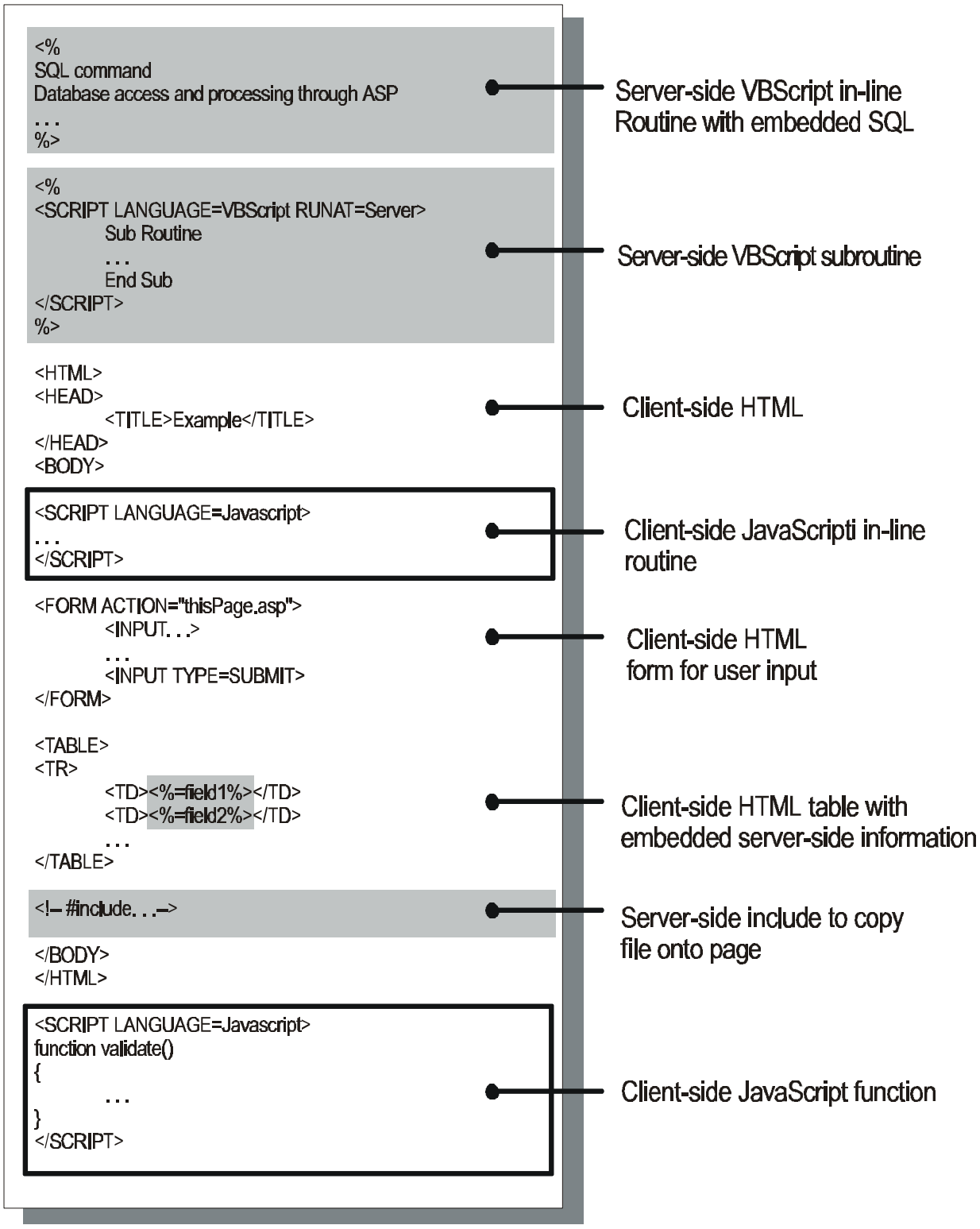
During the second phase of the project an additional 20-some faculty from across the university will be invited to a series of workshops to propagate Web usage. The program will involve several days of orientation on the Internet, Web technology, and Web applications that have been developed or adopted by the Pioneer group. Participants will be assisted in preparing instructional materials for Web access and on implementing applications developed by the Pioneer group.

By the close of this second phase, the site will be turned over to the Office of Academic Computing for integration within the University's existing computing framework. It will remain,

however, a faculty-driven site for instructional development apart from the normal Web presence provided through the University site.

To date, most of the pieces are falling into place. The basic technology is installed, Pioneer training programs are well under way, and Web-based applications are under development. Enthusiasm remains high among those directly participating in the project and expectations are high among future workshop participants and end users. This has proved to be an energizing process for all.

The key component, however, has been the change in perspective needed to take advantage of the emerging technologies. It is not enough to view new technologies as better facilitators of old methods. Web authors need to expand their thinking to encompass information processing models and client/server systems as well as simple output models and page-fetching servers. These changes need not be intimating, even to Web novices.


<%
SQL command
Database access and processing through ASP
. . .
%>
Server-side VBScript in-line Routine with embedded SQL
<%
<SCRIPT LANGUAGE=VBScript RUNAT=Server>
Sub Routine
. . .
End Sub
</SCRIPT>
%>
Server-side VBScript subroutine
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</HEAD>
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. . .
</SCRIPT>
Client-side JavaScripti in-line routine
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. . .
<INPUT TYPE=SUBMIT>
</FORM>
Client-side HTML form for user input
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<TR>
<TD><%=field1%></TD>
<TD><%=field2%></TD>
. . .
</TABLE>
Client-side HTML table with embedded server-side information
<!– #include. . .–>
Server-side include to copy file onto page
</BODY>
</HTML>
<SCRIPT LANGUAGE=Javascript>
function validate()
{
. . .
}
</SCRIPT>
Client-side JavaScript function

REASONS WHY A SCHOOL SHOULD NOT IMPLEMENT BLOCK SCHEDULING

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ABSTRACT

Block scheduling advocates declare that providing more time per classroom period will increase learning, enhance teaching, and lead to a host of other positive school changes. These claims are generally unfounded. Block scheduling does not benefit average and below average students. Above average students are provided year long classes, thus defeating the whole idea of block scheduling. A number of other unforeseen consequences develop in schools that adopt the scheduling concept. Benefits are for teachers and disadvantages are for students.

INTRODUCTION

> Still, schools reflect both the strengths and the weaknesses of the nation. Caught in a crossfire of competing goals, faced with serious financial problems, and struggling to respond to profound social changes, most secondary schools in the United States are--like the communities that surround them--surviving but not thriving (38).

This description of schools provided by Ernest Boyer (1983) represents one of the last sympathetic statements concerning schools to be printed for a decade. A Nation at Risk (1983), published the same year, cited the need for overhauling the way that schools operate. Many education gurus expressed the need for schools to be *re-formed*, reshaped to create a new environment. True to the nature of capitalism, the most enduring of these visions were eventually packaged and sold to schools as panaceas guaranteed to accomplish all the goals of schooling if only the teachers would correctly implement the program as directed. Such clarifying statements permitted teachers to be blamed for the failure of each of these highly acclaimed reforms.

Educational leaders are by definition seekers of plans and schemes to benefit instruction, increase learning, and improve the school climate. Leaders of schools have the duty and responsibility to investigate possibilities and suggestions to determine their appropriateness for the given situation. One innovation debated by school leaders is block scheduling. Schools in the Southeast and in isolated pockets across the nation are giving the practice a trial run. This innovation advances longer but fewer class periods for high school students. The most popular form of this scheduling concept is the semester system whereby a student takes four classes during each semesters, a schedule known as the four by four (4 X 4) system.

Goodlad (1979) noted long ago a severe problem of our schools lies with the accumulation of nonlearning caused by students not having time to finish and learn a topical sequence of information before beginning a new set of requirements. Block scheduling proponents claim their reform tackles this issue of time and learning. Proponents theorize that the systematic change to block scheduling will produce enhanced teaching and learning, for an extended class period will not

permit traditional teaching practices to prevail, and a longer class period permits a greater depth of learning by not providing the artificial end to a class inherent in the 50 minute class period.

However, block scheduling represents a relatively new reform and there exists inadequate data concerning its effectiveness (Edwards, 1995). Consequently, we know very little about the relationships among the theories of the block scheduling advocates, the actual inputs of teacher practices, and outputs of student learning in schools operating with the reform.

THE RESEARCH EFFORT

This research effort attempted to determine to the degree possible how many of the promises of block scheduling have been realized and to what degree. Research questions revolved around three general themes centering on the issues raised by the advocates of block scheduling.

The literature review proved simple for the sources were so few. Researching the references cited by these few sources revealed a circular pattern of citations all returning to Daniel Rettig, Robert Canady, or Joseph Carroll. Carroll fails to cite any evidence that his program works. Canady and Rettig, who often publish together, cite their own work as proof. Canady also finds proof in the research of doctoral students supervised at the university at which he teaches and publishes. There exists a paucity of information regarding the interrelationships present with block scheduling and the overall functioning of the public schools. This dearth of information refers not only to the number of articles but also to their quality. One can acquire an adequate portrait of block scheduling by reading either Carroll's "The Copernican Plan Evaluated" (1994) or Canady's and Rettig's book Block Scheduling: A Catalyst for Change in High Schools (1995).

Furthermore, no articles exist favoring the concept outside the publications of Educational Leadership, Kappan, and the May 1995 NASSP Bulletin. Subject specific and research journals have not printed articles on the topic aside from a couple of anecdotal reports from teachers. Finally, all the "new ideas" advanced by these gentlemen are cited in works published in the 1970s as efforts that tried and failed during the revolutionary 1960s.

Not only do these gentlemen fail to establish any viable proof to their claims for the concepts they sell, they also misrepresent the government studies they often cite as proof of the need of their innovation. A Nation at Risk (1983) and Prisoners of time (Report, 1994) are cited as references justifying the need for and support of this particular reform. Both publications from the United States Department of Education have demands for longer school days and years and a greater emphasis on the education basics. Block scheduling creates fewer instructional hours and emphasizes the advantages of electives. These two separate approaches are not compatible.

An unpublished report by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (The Block) highlights this fact by illustrating the number of hours per course per year fell from 165 with the traditional schedule to 135 with the 4 X 4 schedule. This translates to 36 fewer class periods a year with the traditional schedule of 50-minute classes or 20 fewer class periods a year for a 90-minute class. Over a period of four years, this translates into a reduction of 144 fewer 50-minute class sessions for a student taking four years of any subject, such as English or math or a foreign language. One can see why a primary argument of block scheduling advocates lies with the catchy phrase "less equals more."

This researcher's efforts uncovered the fact that standardized test scores generally fell in schools using block scheduling (AP, 1996, Carpenter, 1997, and Raphael, 1986 Spring and Fall). Ironically, grades rose and more students made the honor rolls. State test results did not change, but they are geared to mandated curriculum standards and are not standardized. The reality gap between rising student grades and declining SAT and ACT scores proved troubling to parents who complained loudly. Schools implementing block scheduling answered these criticisms by instituting schedules to shield special students from the consequences of reduced class sessions. Honors and Advanced Placement classes became year long classes with two course titles to protect the integrity of the scheduling design. Strong, vocal advocacy by band parents ensured that band also became a year-round course to accommodate the need for continual practice.

This research into the actual practice and benefits of block scheduling had to be conducted using qualitative measures. The terms used by block scheduling advocates are qualitative ones with no accepted definitions such as "more," "less," "greater understanding," and "indepth." A series of open-ended questions were devised. All participants were high school teachers, music teachers, media personnel, or guidance counselors who had worked in the traditional schedule and were then working in a form of block scheduling. The questions involved perceptual comparisons of classroom instruction, student learning, and student behavior before the implementation of block scheduling and within the implementation of block scheduling. Teachers were also given the opportunity to add any comments they wished at the end of the questionnaire.

Demographic data was also requested. From this data, no differences could be discerned between male and female respondents. Differences between core academic and noncore teachers are explained later in this narrative. Generally speaking, the demographic data revealed that the longer the number of years teaching with block scheduling (1-5 years), the more negative the remarks. The greater the years of teaching experience (1-5, 6-10, +10) the greater the number of negative remarks.

THE FINDINGS

Research Question One reads as follows: Have teachers who worked with the traditional schedule and now work with some form of block scheduling changed their instructional practices? Results displayed a lack of change possible. Teachers cannot begin doing what they already do. Eighty percent of the responses indicated that more of some strategies and less of others were used, but no new ones were developed. Longer planning periods did not permit more reflective time for preparation. The longer time for which to prepare consumed the longer planning periods and did not allow teachers time to share. Collegiality did not increase for there was no additional time during the school day for it to do so. And fewer class changes meant fewer unstructured moments for teachers to have a few words with each other.

An interesting highlight of the responses came with references to classroom activities. Teachers reported using more "activities" with block scheduling than with the traditional schedule. No mention of what these activities might be was ever made. By far the most common rationale for using these activities was to fill time, not to improve teaching and learning.

Research Question Two reads as follows: Are students taught in a block scheduling environment provided access to more meaningful learning experiences than students who are taught

in the traditional system? The second research question pertained to teaching and learning. Responses taken from this question produced a dichotomy between core and noncore academic teachers. Core academic teachers produced the bulk of the negative remarks. They believe that with block scheduling less is being taught and less is being learned. They also cite using fewer projects and even eliminating projects from their instructional methodology.

These responses brought to the forefront the question of time. It is the definition of this term that separates those who favor block scheduling from those who despise the reform. Negative responses derived from teachers who held a perception of time as the duration of the semester. This is the same definition advanced by authors of A Nation at Risk and Prisoners of Time. These teachers regretted the shorter instructional year that forced the elimination of teaching the interesting sidelights to the subject matter, that forced an end to or reduction in the assignment of student projects, and that produced a substantial reduction in the number of homework opportunities for lesson reinforcement. Core teachers who disliked block scheduling spoke repeatedly of the reduced time available to prepare students for the end-of-course tests and the pressure to "cover the material." For these teachers, block scheduling means less time, more pressure, and a teaching more to "the facts" than before.

Positive remarks from teachers were dominated by the perception of time as the longer instructional period. This is the definition advanced by advocates of block scheduling. These teachers believed that what could be accomplished in a day represented a holistic picture of their teaching. The majority of positive remarks came from teachers not involved with core academic subjects. Art and PE teachers rendered high percentages of positive remarks. Vocational and office technology teachers also provided ample positive remarks for block scheduling.

Block scheduling advocates advance the cause of their scheduling design for science teachers in particular. Science teachers in this research effort did not favor the reform. Not one of them indicated that students are learning more. On aspects of block scheduling appreciated most, labs came in a distant fifth behind longer planning periods, fewer classes at one time to teach, fewer students at one time to teach, and getting rid of a bad class at mid-year. These are the same aspects of block scheduling favored by all other core academic teachers.

Research Question Three reads as follows: Is the school-wide change to block scheduling beneficial for all students? The third research question pertained to benefits for students. Grades have risen but standardized test scores have not. There is no indication that rising grades translate into greater student learning. Research has shown that learning requires the hardening of memories, and that this hardening takes time and drill and practice (Gordon, 1995). The pace of instruction found in the core academic classes to "cover the material" does not allow the time for memories to harden, thus reducing actual learning. Classroom discipline is generally worse. Core academic and noncore teachers alike mentioned the difficulty of keeping student attention for a full 90 minutes. Restlessness and inattention in students has increased. Research by others on this topic indicate that these phenomena simply represent natural biological limitations on attention and that the 90 minute class period exceeds this limit (Parasuraman, 1979, Stallings, 1985).

The third research question sought benefits that block scheduling offered to students. Generally speaking, block scheduling produced negative effects on student activities and a variety of school functions. Interschool competitions, school organizations, and vocational classes are suffering. With students not in a year-long course, enrollment in clubs sponsoring competitions is declining.

Students are not enrolled in a class during the semester of competition and therefore do not compete. With only a semester relationship, teachers have less time to prepare students for a competition and to teach the subject matter of the course. Goals of increased student teamwork, hands-on learning, and socialization advanced by the advocates of block scheduling and inherent within interschool competitions seem defeated by the very engine designed to foster them.

Open-ended questions allowing teachers to provide any response, as opposed to questions directed to a specific concept, produced a surprisingly important ingredient to this research effort. One question asked for the aspects about block scheduling teachers appreciated most. The aspects teachers like about block scheduling are those that reduce the overall teaching effort. These are teaching fewer classes a day, changing students at mid-year, longer planning, and fewer students at any given time. The last item is noteworthy for it does not relate to smaller classes.

A second open-ended question asked for aspects of block scheduling teachers found most troublesome. Aspects of block scheduling not appreciated by teachers include a multitude of student-oriented concerns: increased classroom misbehavior, lag time between the semester a student takes Course I of a sequence and then enrolls in Course II, effects of absences due to the faster pace of instruction and the greater amount of instruction a student misses with each absence, and interruptions which consume a greater percent of the instructional time because of the fewer number of instructional hours. Teachers displayed a great amount of concern for the average and especially the below average student whose social and intellectual maturity seem not ready for the longer class and whose academic maturity appears hindered by this schedule. Core academic teachers bemoan the far fewer instructional hours and reduced subject matter retention in students. Noncore teachers display a particular interest in the decline of interschool competitions, clubs, and vocational classes.

Participating faculty outside the classroom provided responses often reinforcing the opinions of the teachers. The most noteworthy mention from guidance personnel pointed out lower quality teacher/student relationships. Music instructors noted scheduling conflicts, loss of student continuity of participation, and reduced competitive skills. Media personnel noted a lack of enrichment activities by teachers and reduced media center use by core academic classes.

Some issues arose from the responses on the questionnaires that were not anticipated. A student transferring into or out of a block scheduling school from or to a traditionally scheduled one cannot break even. The transfer produces a loss for the student as course scheduling in the two systems are not compatible. The Southern Association Standards (1995) state that a teacher can teach up to a majority of the school day in areas other than the primary certification. With block scheduling, two of three instructional periods represents half of the school day. A teacher may teach two-thirds of his classes outside the area of primary certification with the semester system.

This researcher determines the most critical element of the block scheduling debate revolves around its definitions. There are no definitions other than specific situational ones to the terms "more," "less," "flexible," and "meaningful." No examples that might be used for comparison are ever provided by the advocates of block scheduling to help explain what is meant by these terms. A primary focus of the block scheduling debate lies with the definition of the word "time," which has two distinct and incompatible definitions as revealed in this research effort.

CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Research efforts uncovered little to no validation for the potential advantages or successes of block scheduling aside from those originating from persons with a personal stake in the reform. This researcher uncovered no evidence in the literature review that indicated block scheduling had fulfilled any of its promises after being implemented. Educators seem to be jumping on the train using only the "trust me" promise from advocates as a ticket. This researcher found no evidence that the claims of block scheduling have ever been tested or questioned or substantiated by any independent scrutinizing effort. Block scheduling, with its exemption for advanced placement students and other exemptions being instituted for other programs such as band, appears to have developed into a sorting machine for "haves" and "have-nots" instead of a reform to help schools provide better instructional methodologies and greater learning opportunities for all students.

This researcher acknowledges that all segments of time are blocks of time. The traditional schedule represents a block schedule of a different length. With designated beginning and ending times for a class period, neither schedule displays advantages of flexibility. The current wave of "block scheduling" merely breaks up time differently. The successes of the scheduling concept touch the aspects of the school day not directly associated with teaching or learning. The failures of block scheduling relate directly to teaching and learning. This researcher has come to the conclusion that, with all the exceptions placed into the block scheduling scheme to accommodate advanced and talented students by making them exempt from the block, this form of block scheduling is not needed at all. If the purpose of school reform is to improve teaching and learning, "block scheduling" appears a failure. This researcher thus far fails to determine any merit to the school reform effort of block scheduling.

The complete study on this topic is found in the doctoral dissertation completed at East Tennessee State University (Muse, 1997).

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF HOW ACADEMICIANS AND BUSINESS MANAGERS PERCEIVE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS IN ALABAMA

Emmanuel Chijioke, Talladega College

INTRODUCTION

Using the t-test statistics technique, the researcher examined the perceptions of 37 academicians from 29 colleges and universities, and 52 business managers in Alabama regarding the desirability ratings, objective of, and program determinants of undergraduate business management programs in Alabama. The researcher also examined the opinions of the same 37 academicians and 52 business managers in Alabama regarding the appropriateness of preparation by undergraduate business management programs for effective performance in the business world.

Out of the five null hypotheses tested, there were no significant differences in (a) the perceptions of academicians from institutions accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and from institutions not accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business regarding the appropriateness of 13 selected undergraduate business management offerings; (b) the perceptions between academicians and business managers regarding undergraduate business management program determinants in Alabama; and (c) the perceptions of academicians and business managers regarding academic preparations of business graduates necessary for effective performance in the business or professional world.

On the other hand, significant differences existed in (a) the perceptions of academicians and business managers in Alabama regarding the desirability ratings assigned to 13 selected undergraduate business management courses, and (b) the perceptions of academician and business managers in Alabama regarding the objectives of undergraduate business management programs. The academician had higher desirability ratings than the business managers. Academicians also had higher level of perceptions regarding undergraduate business management objectives than the business managers.

These results led to the following suggestions and conclusions (a) that the 13 selected courses be included in the curriculum of undergraduate business management programs' planning where not currently available; (b) that it is necessary to re-examine the areas (desirability) ratings and objectives) where the null hypotheses were rejected on a periodic basis with appropriate consultation of representative academicians and business managers in Alabama; (c) that both constitutiencies (academicals and business managers) are highly perceptive regarding undergraduate business management preparations for effective performance of business graduates in the business or professional world, and (c) that American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) academicians and non-AACSB academicians in Alabama have the same perception regarding the appropriateness of 13 selected undergraduate business management offerings.

SIFE: A NON-TRADITIONAL CAPSTONE COURSE

Darren Hayes, Southeastern Oklahoma State University
Deborah M. Barnes, Southeastern Oklahoma State University

ABSTRACT

In our fast-paced society, organizations are looking for employees who are already up and running in their chosen profession. They are looking for experience--a proven ability to perform in an environment already established. How are our graduating students to compete with others unless they have this valuable experience?

The traditional capstone courses offered in today's colleges and universities are exactly that--traditional. However, the "real world" doesn't follow the same tradition. While making strides in changing the focus of our capstone classes to such practices of a case-based approach and others, the fact remains that we are not offering everything our students need to be successful after leaving school. Colleges and universities can offer this to our students through a non-traditional capstone course. They can offer it through Students in Fee Enterprise (SIFE).

By using Students in Free Enterprise as a capstone course, graduating students will learn to apply the theory they have learned throughout their undergraduate career to actual situations encountered in the world around them. SIFE students experience, firsthand, how to design and implement projects, assume leadership and followership roles with ethical foundations, and work and communicate in a teaming environment. It allows our students an opportunity to experiment with these skills while being mentored to help them assume the same types of roles in their organizations, chosen professions, and communities. This paper and presentation presents the creation of a capstone course utilizing high-performing teams in an academic setting to challenge students over and above the traditional capstone course setting.

THE NEW FACE OF THE ADULT LEARNER

Mirta M. Martin, Averett College
Lisa J. Calongne, Averett College

ABSTRACT

During the next five years, adult learners and their professors will be faced with a multitude of challenges that were not previously present. Technology, the influx of older students into the student pool as well as multi-cultural and multi-lingual students whose first language is not English are among some of the characteristics that need to be addressed by educators.

For many years, it was assumed that the principles and techniques used in education were the same for children and for adults. Consequently, it was taken for granted that any reasonably well-educated person would know how to do a good job motivating adult learners. As the years passed and knowledge increased through research and experience, it became apparent that adult learners possessed certain unique characteristics that made them different.

As a result, the role of the educator has changed. No longer is the educator in need to transmit knowledge to adults through endless lectures. His job is no longer geared to entice learners to learn or to tell them what they ought to know. Rather, the role of the educator has shifted toward that of a facilitator. In this role, educators look to facilitate the learning experience in order to enact change in students. This change allows students the possibility to achieve their full potential.

Most adult students are not in a classroom to compete with each other. Depending on individual circumstances, education for adults has become necessary for some, desirable for others, and certainly more acceptable and attainable for almost everyone. Almost any worker in our society has the problem of keeping up with new knowledge. But technology is changing so fast that oftentimes it is difficult to adapt.

Because the combined impact of demographic, social and technological change is so overwhelming, adult learners correlate the rising need in educational level to increased job security. Consequently, they see their return to college as a needed stepping stone to organizational growth, promotions and career success. In returning to school, they are looking for a challenge, they are looking to improve themselves and to succeed.

This paper explores the question, "Who are these adult learners in a non-traditional business program?" A survey was administered to all undergraduate students enrolled in a non-traditional program in a central Virginia institution. Information was gathered on a series of variables (i.e., demographics, management hierarchy). The data suggest that the face of the new adult learner is changing.

PANEL DISCUSSION ON FACULTY EVALUATION

Moderators

Charlotte S. Stephens, Columbus State University
Jennie Lou Hunter, Western Carolina University

PANEL TOPICS

I. Teaching
- Student evaluations
  - Weight, administration procedures, percent of classes used for evaluation, comparisons to norms for the course, comparison to grade distributions
- Teaching portfolios
  - Review procedures, content
- Classroom observation/evaluation
- Assessment instruments for curriculum, individual courses
- Percent of total evaluation
- Comparisons or rankings with other faculty members

II. Intellectual Activity
- Relative weight of different types of activity
- Quality measures
- Treatment when one activity has multiple authors
- Percent of total evaluation
- Comparisons or rankings with other faculty members

III. Service
- Relative weight of different types of activity
- Percent of total evaluation
- Comparisons or rankings with other faculty members

IV. How faculty evaluations are used
- Salary adjustments, continuous improvement, promotion and tenure, new opportunities

V. Who completes the evaluation
- Administrator, faculty team, outside review

DESIGNING A HEALTH CARE ADMINISTRATION UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM: A CHALLENGE TO HEALTH CARE INDUSTRY
(LANGSTON UNIVERSITY MODEL)

Edward Kiwuwa-Khiwa, Langston University

ABSTRACT

The field of health administration as it integrates in the module of the national health industry, is becoming exciting and a challenge to scholars as they strive to meet the growing needs of the modalities of the emerging population and its uncertainty future; in relation to designing the undergraduate academic program that could attract young people especially minorities to partake in it.

In the past, the field of health administration did not receive major attention by career counselors in high schools, community colleges, hospitals, nursing homes, and four year traditional colleges and universities. Major attention of health care counseling in health as a major field of learning was exclusively focused on disciplines of other sciences such as medicine, pharmacy or dentistry. Since this branch of career was not clearly comprehended by the appropriate counselors and other parties involved, a good number of potential students have graduated, and others gone through such institutions with decimal or zero awareness of various health related careers. The intent of this paper is to address inequity into this area. Langston University School of Nursing and Health Professions has devised curriculum for health administration students and how such a concentration would meet the demands of the future health care industry. Comparative courses of academic offering from several universitates and colleges both in US and abroad were utilized in determining the ideal undergraduate academic programs for health administration students. The devlopment of core courses and related courses from areas of other schools, with emphasis on course sequence, are suggested means to increase opportunities to placement of its graduates to professional schools and employment market, the main goal/thrust of the department of health administration at Langston University professors and counselors in both universities, colleges, high schools and two year colleges and others, should act as mentors to students and provide a broadened technical-know how as they increase student awareness in opportunities available to discipline of learning available in the health care industry.

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