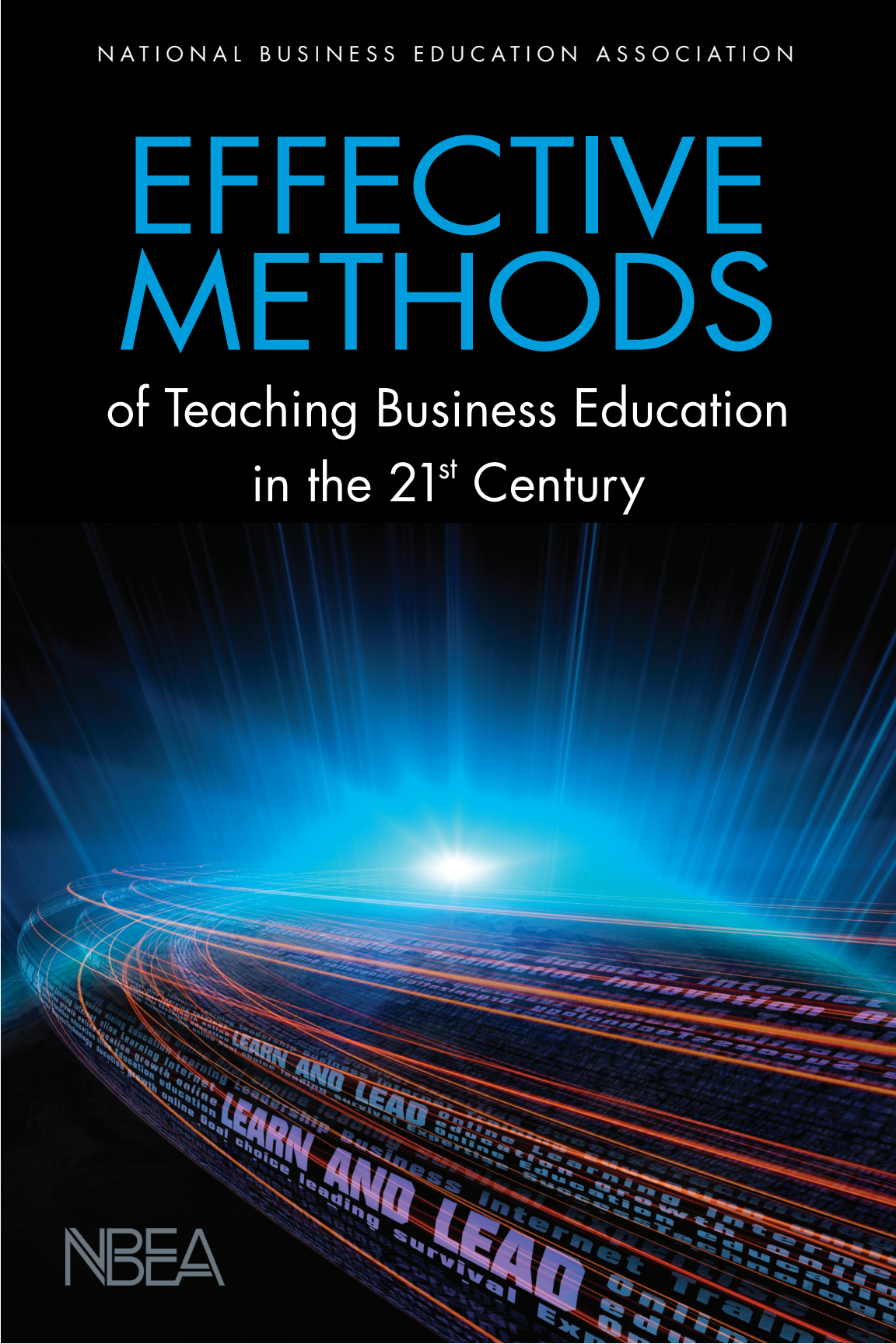


NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

EFFECTIVE METHODS

of Teaching Business Education
in the 21st Century



NBEA

Effective Methods of Teaching Business Education in the 21st Century

National Business Education Association

2020

Editors

Beryl C. McEwen
North Carolina A&T State University
Greensboro, NC

Margaret O'Connor
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bloomsburg, PA

Betty Brown, Associate Editor
Ball State University (Retired)
Muncie, IN

Published by



National Business Education Association
1914 Association Drive
Reston, VA 20191-1596
(703) 860-8300 • Fax: (703) 620-4483
www.nbea.org

Effective Methods of Teaching Business Education in the 21st Century

Copyright © 2020
National Business Education Association
1914 Association Drive
Reston, VA 20191-1596

ISBN: 0-933964-84-6

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electrical or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or information storage and retrieval, without written permission from the publisher.

Any view or recommendations expressed in this book do not necessarily constitute official policy of the National Business Education Association.

The Web addresses listed were accurate when this book was written but may have changed since publication.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface.....viii

Board of Reviewers.....xii

PART I: BUSINESS EDUCATION PERSPECTIVES

Chapter 1 1

The Foundations of Business Education

Mary Margaret Hosler
University of Wisconsin
Whitewater, WI

Peter F. Meggison
Massasoit Community College
Brockton, MA

Chapter 2 25

The Business Education Curriculum in the Educational System

Edward C. Fletcher, Jr.
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL

PART II: INSTRUCTIONAL CONCEPTS FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

Chapter 3 37

Planning for Instruction

Stephen D. Lewis
Middle Tennessee State University
Murfreesboro, TN

Robert B. Blair
Middle Tennessee State University
Murfreesboro, TN

Vincent W. Smith
Middle Tennessee State University
Murfreesboro, TN

Chapter 4	54
Evaluating and Assessing Student Performance	
Nancy Zelif	
Northwest Missouri State University	
Maryville, MO	
Kimberly Schultz	
Kirkwood Community College	
Cedar Rapids, IA	
Chapter 5	70
Providing Differentiated Instruction for Diverse Student Needs	
Christina Force	
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania	
Bloomsburg, PA	
Chapter 6	83
Classroom Management	
Diane Fisher	
University of Southern Mississippi	
Hattiesburg, MS	
Sharon Rouse	
University of Southern Mississippi	
Hattiesburg, MS	
Chapter 7	99
Teaching in the Virtual Classroom	
Lisa Gueldenzoph Snyder	
North Carolina A&T State University	
Greensboro, NC	
Sherrie Drye Cannoy	
North Carolina A&T State University	
Greensboro, NC	

Chapter 8	112
Common Core and Business Education	
Donna Gavitt	
Selinsgrove Area High School	
Selinsgrove, PA	
Jorge Gaytan	
North Carolina A&T State University	
Greensboro, NC	
PART III: THE BUSINESS EDUCATION CURRICULUM—METHODS AND RESOURCES	
Chapter 9	132
Information Technology	
Herbert Brown	
Appalachian State University	
Boone, NC	
Alicia Finnell	
Appalachian State University	
Boone, NC	
Chapter 10	146
Communication	
S. Ann Wilson	
Stephen F. Austin State University	
Nacogdoches, TX	
Marsha Bayless	
Stephen F. Austin State University	
Nacogdoches, TX	
Christine Haririan	
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania	
Bloomsburg, PA	
Chapter 11	165
Accounting	
Sharon Garvin	
Wayne State College	
Wayne, NE	

Chapter 12	182
Business Foundations and Management	
Pamela Scott -Bracey	
Mississippi State University	
Starkville, MS	
Chapter 13	190
Economics and Personal Finance	
Tamra S. Davis	
Illinois State University	
Normal, IL	
Ben C. Owen	
Genoa-Kingston High School	
Genoa, IL	
Chapter 14	201
Business Law	
Timothy R. Koski	
Middle Tennessee State University	
Murfreesboro, TN	
Sandra S. Benson	
Middle Tennessee State University	
Murfreesboro, TN	
Chapter 15	223
Entrepreneurship	
Jane Brooker	
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania	
Bloomsburg, PA	
Chapter 16	236
International Business	
Les R. Dlabay	
Lake Forest College	
Lake Forest, IL	
Chapter 17	251
Marketing	
Elisha C. Wohleb	
Auburn University	
Auburn, AL	

Chapter 18 263

Work-based Learning

Allen Truell

Ball State University

Muncie, IN

PART IV: ORGANIZATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Chapter 19 277

Managing Student Organizations

Jessica DeVaal

North Dakota Department of Career and Technical Education

Bismarck, ND

Sandra Braathen

University of North Dakota

Grand Forks, ND

Jan Repnow

Minot State University

Minot, ND

Chapter 20 294

Lifelong Professional Development

Connie M. Forde

Mississippi State University

Starkville, MS

Kellie A. Schumack

Auburn University at Montgomery

Montgomery, AL

PREFACE

Teaching business education to millennials is an ever changing proposition, especially for those of us who weren't born using technology. Our goal in the *Effective Methods of Teaching Business in the 21st Century* is to bring together important core strategies in business content areas and updated resources that can be accessed on the World Wide Web.

It is our responsibility to update the methods text in a way that moves NBEA forward into the future. Therefore in some cases, new content areas are addressed, which have not been included in past editions. In other cases, outdated content has been removed. This publication has been extensively reviewed and updated to advance the profession.

PART I: BUSINESS EDUCATION PERSPECTIVES

Chapter 1: The Foundations of Business Education defines important terms, including business education, vocational education, career and technical education, and discusses the historical development of the profession as well as the relationship of business education to vocational education and general education.

Chapter 2: The Business Education Curriculum in the educational system outlines the role of business education programs in traditional settings and describes the structure for the delivery of business instruction at all levels from elementary school through college and into the workplace.

Part II: Instructional Concepts for Business Education

Chapter 3: Planning for Instruction discusses alignment of the national and state curriculum standards and lesson and unit plans, strategies for integrating essential skills, and introduces assessment of learning.

Chapter 4: Evaluating and Assessing Student Performance carefully defines assessment and evaluation and then discusses the evaluation process as an integral part of classroom instruction and learning, including the relationship between course, unit, and lesson objectives/competencies and the assessment of those competencies.

Chapter 5: Providing Differentiated Instruction for Diverse Student Needs briefly describes the diversity in business education classrooms and presents differentiated instruction as a tool for responding to learners' varied needs. It includes an extensive list of suggestions to organize/adapt lessons and materials for students with disabilities and special needs, as well as second-language learners.

Chapter 6: Classroom Management discusses the role of classroom management in effective teaching and learning, shares research and theories related to effective classroom management as well as focuses on strategies for managing student behavior in the business education classroom and teaching labs.

Chapter 7: Teaching in the Virtual Classroom provides the theory and strategies for teaching and learning in the virtual classroom; discusses current research on teaching online and presents considerations for building effective online courses and programs, including measures to maintain the privacy of online learners.

Chapter 8: Common Core and Business Education discusses best practices and suggests authentic activities for incorporating reading, mathematics, social studies, science and other academic content areas into business education courses to improve student learning outcomes. It also shares research that helps to highlight the value of curriculum integration and discusses strategies and resources for integrating cross-discipline content and technology into the business education curriculum.

Part III: The Business Education Curriculum—Methods and Resources

Chapter 9: Information Technology presents the content of information technology courses, including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching information technology courses at the junior high/middle school, high school, and college levels. It also addresses strategies for teaching adults and introduces modern technology.

Chapter 10: Communication includes the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching communication skills at the junior high/middle school, high school, and college levels. It discusses the national standards, identifies performance expectations, and presents strategies for teaching business communication skills including reading, writing, speaking, listening, and nonverbal communication.

Chapter 11: Accounting presents various approaches to introducing accounting instruction, including planning meaningful day-to-day teaching and learning activities that include goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching financial accounting courses at the high school and college levels.

Chapter 12: Business Foundations and Management presents the content of general business and basic management courses including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching these courses at the junior high/middle school, high school, and college levels. Concepts such as business ethics, global awareness, international management, diversity, environmental awareness, information technology, social media and other contemporary issues are addressed.

Chapter 13: Economics and Personal Finance provides the goals, methods of instruction, and resources for teaching economics and personal finance courses at the junior high/middle school, high school, and college levels. This chapter includes the National Business Education and the National Endowment for Financial Education (NEFE) standards, addresses the problem of economic and financial illiteracy in the U.S. and the importance of teaching economics and personal finance at all levels of the school system.

Chapter 14: Business Law presents the content of business law courses, including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching these courses at the high school and college levels. It discusses the national standards, identifies performance expectations, and discusses strategies for teaching business law.

Chapter 15: Entrepreneurship includes the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching entrepreneurship courses at the high school and college levels. It explores the nature and role of entrepreneurship in the economy as well as class projects, simulations, business plan development, and business incubators that can be used to reinforce these concepts.

Chapter 16: International Business provides an overview of global trends that impact the international business curriculum and presents the content of the international business course, including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching international business at the high school, and college levels.

Chapter 17: Marketing provides the content of beginning and intermediate marketing courses, including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources for teaching marketing education. It presents information regarding curriculum organization of marketing education programs, discusses national standards, identifies performance expectations, and outlines the marketing teacher's responsibilities. New marketing areas are included.

Chapter 18: Work-Based Learning presents the content of work-based learning courses, including the goals, methods of instruction, and resources (including Internet resources) for teaching work-based courses at the middle/junior high, high school, and college levels.

Part IV: Organizational and Professional Responsibilities

Chapter 19: Managing Student Organizations presents the goals of student organizations in the business/marketing education program and discusses the purpose and benefits of integrating such student organizations as FBLA/PBL, DECA, Business Professionals of America, and Junior Achievement into students' learning experiences. It outlines the background/history, membership advantages, and shares student activities of each organization.

Chapter 20: Lifelong Professional Development examines the importance and benefits of participating in professional organizations, such as NBEA, ISBE, NABTE, ACTE, ARBE, Pi Omega Pi, and other business education organizations at the local, state, regional, and national levels. The chapter discusses the advantages of attending business education meetings and conferences, including networking with other attendees and engaging in professional development.

We extend our gratitude to the authors and reviewers who spent countless hours writing, editing, and revising the manuscripts. Our thanks also to those authors of the similar chapters in earlier editions of this methods yearbook and to the many authors who have written chapters for other yearbooks. Your dedication is an example to us at NBEA and the business education discipline. We welcome all new authors with expertise in this discipline, who will continue to research, write and renew our profession. Special appreciation is extended to Marcia Anderson who spent countless hours working on the individual chapters in preparing the final copy for publication. Finally, we express our thanks to Peter Meggison, NBEA Publications Committee Chair, and the entire Publications Committee for your leadership, dedication, and many hours of work reviewing this yearbook.

Beryl McEwen, Co-Editor
North Carolina A&T State University
Greensboro, NC

Margaret O'Connor, Co-Editor
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bloomsburg, PA

Betty Brown, Associate Editor
Ball State University (Retired)
Muncie, IN

BOARD OF REVIEWERS

Elaine Adams

University of Georgia

Marcia Anderson

Southern Illinois University Carbondale

Barbara Ash

Suffolk University

James Bartlett II

North Carolina State University

Nancy Brandon

South Lakes High School

Marcia L. Bush

Lincoln, California

Diane Carver

Clover Park School District

Lindsay Cassel

Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania

Sherrie Drye Cannoy

North Carolina A&T State University

William Egan

New Canaan Public Schools

Margaret Erthal

Illinois State University

Diane Fisher

The University of Southern Mississippi

Madge Gregg

Hoover High School

Barbara Hagler

Southern Illinois University Carbondale

K. Virginia Hemby

Middle Tennessee State University

JoNell Henderson

Elizabeth Community & Technical
College

Ann Kieser

North Penn-Mansfield High School

Margaret Kilcoyne

Northwestern State University

Marietta Koch

Tamaqua Area School District

Jason Kulasa

Victor J. Andrew High School

Kris Labbus

Neenah Joint School District

Steven Lewis

Middle Tennessee State University

Linda Cabral Marrero

Roy C. Ketcham High School

Robert B. Mitchell

University of Arkansas at Little Rock

Donna Orr

University of Idaho

Loreen Powell

Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania

Jacqueline Prester
Mansfield High School

Martha Rader
Arizona State University

Amber Reed
Bremen High School

Denise Route
Rock L. Butler Middle School

Ralph Ruby
Arkansas State University

Karla Saeger
University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

Ty Septer
Management and Training Corporation

Jennifer Schultz
Ben Davis High School

Michelle Taylor
Glendale Union High School District

Irina Weisblat
Ashford University

Steven Welch
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania

JoAnn Whiteman
University of Central Florida

The Foundations of Business Education

Mary Margaret Hosler
University of Wisconsin
Whitewater, WI

Peter F. Meggison
Massasoit Community College
Brockton, MA

Business education has an interesting story of transformation since the early 1600s when the purpose of the discipline was little more than to teach penmanship and book-keeping. Through the centuries, business education has expanded its focus, broadened its curriculum offerings, and widened its appeal to a larger population of students. In the 21st century, the business education program prepares students to function as a consumer—the *about* business mission—and to work in a global economy—the *for* business mission. This chapter describes the evolution of business education from its inception to the present, with emphasis on its chronological development, federal funding and laws, curriculum, and mission.

ELEMENTS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business education is often referred to in the context of vocational education, or career and technical education. A definition of each of these terms will provide an explanation of each concept and how the three are related.

Business Education

Business education or *commercial education* (an earlier term for business education) is a term dating back hundreds of years. Some form of education for commercial endeavor-

ors can be found throughout the history of education. Even though a type of shorthand was used in ancient Greece, it was not until the rise of the Roman Empire that it became widespread. Cicero's secretary, Marcus Tullius Tiro, was the author of a shorthand system that lasted until the Middle Ages and was a forerunner of today's cursive systems (Glatte, 1959). Bookkeeping, too, has an equally long history. Today's double-entry method can be traced back to the Middle Ages. Fra Luca Pacioli, considered the father of accountancy, was the first to present this method, commonly referred to as the Italian method, in 1494 (Andruss, 1943). In several statements in the past, the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education (PCBEE) has defined business education. Statement No. 71 (PCBEE, 2002) stated that business education is "education *for* and *about* business." Education *about* business means preparing all learners for the various roles they will play as economically literate citizens. Education *for* business means building on these general understandings about business in a way that prepares learners to be employed in a variety of careers.

The National Business Education Association's (NBEA's) *National Standards for Business Education* (NBEA, 2013) defined business education in the following statement: "... education for and about business offers students the opportunity to master the fundamental knowledge and skills needed to succeed in business—wherever in the world it is conducted—and more importantly, an equal opportunity to succeed in life" (p. x).

Vocational Education

The term *vocational education* historically has meant instruction designed to prepare individuals for the world of work. Early vocational education served to provide workers with agricultural, industrial, and homemaking skills. As business education and marketing education were added to the curriculum, they were included in the term "vocational" education because the courses prepared students for the world of work. The 1968 amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 specifically excluded preparation for professional-level jobs (generally requiring a baccalaureate degree) from the definition of federally aided vocational education, except for the training of students and teachers preparing to become teachers in a vocational education program (Roberts, 1971).

Career and Technical Education

After many years of discussion about the word "vocational," the American Vocational Association at its December 1998 convention voted to change its name to the Association for Career and Technical Education or ACTE (Roberts, 1999). ACTE answered the question "What is career and technical education?" as follows: "Today's cutting-edge, rigorous, and relevant career and technical education (CTE) prepares youth and adults for a wide range of high-wage, high-skill, high-demand careers" (ACTE, 2013). Following the adoption of the new name, state associations and student organizations began changing to the new terminology (Roberts, 1999).

Relationship between Business/Vocational/Career and Technical Education, and General Education

Is business education a part of the general education provided to students in school? This question has been debated since the early 20th century with no clearly defined answer. When comprehensive high schools formed in the early 1900s, business education and other vocational offerings became a part of the curriculum. Educators assumed that by offering vocational as well as academic subjects under one roof, all students would have access to both types of programs and would be able to transfer readily from one to the other as interests or aspirations changed (Shimberg, 1971). When the Cardinal Principles of Education were published in 1918, vocational efficiency was included as one of the priority goals (Barlow, 1974). This goal provided the impression that business education had a definite place within the general education program of the student. When general business courses were added to the business education program in the 1930s, the mission of business education took on the “how” of business, giving a broader definition to the field.

However, with the advent of Sputnik in 1957, educators began a campaign to fill the high school curriculum with “solid subjects,” such as mathematics, science, and foreign languages, so graduates could compete with their Russian counterparts. Vocational educators reported a high degree of separation between academic and vocational subjects (Shimberg, 1971). Business education was viewed as nonacademic, nonessential for graduation or college entrance, a belief based on a narrow view of the field as specific job training (Sapre, 1989).

In an apparent effort to bridge the divide that was occurring between those studies perceived as academic and those as vocational, the newly formed PCBEE spoke to the role of business education in the curriculum. Statement No. 1 (PCBEE, 1961) read “Business education in American secondary schools consists of both general education and vocational preparation for store and office occupations. These two elements of business education are essential parts of secondary education in America.” The commission reiterated its position in Statement No. 47 (PCBEE, 1989) when stating that business education is a critical component in the general education of all students. Even with these commission statements, business education still did not enjoy equal standing with college preparatory subjects (Hall, 1990).

Toward the end of the 20th century and upon entering the 21st century, a trend toward recognizing the importance of business education/career and technical education as an integral part of the general education of students began to unfold. The Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act of 1990 departed from previous acts in separating career and technical education from the rest of the school by now emphasizing the integration of career and technical education with academic instruction (Hosler, 2003). Daggett and Jaffarian (1990) commented that business education is a broad and diverse discipline that should be a part of the general education of all students. The PCBEE (2005) issued Statement No. 76 to again emphasize the importance of business education in the total school curriculum: “Learning for and about business is inher-

ently academic. Business education provides a rigorous and relevant contextual learning opportunity for core content (English, math, science, and social studies)” (p. 1). Technological advances will require even more connection between academics and career and technical education creating some form of career and technical education to be imbedded in all of education (Reese, 2009).

Business education is forming a closer partnership with academics in the general education of all students, as the educational system works to define the appropriate curriculum for the 21st century. The reality of this partnership was evidenced when, in an interview, U.S. Education Secretary Arne Duncan stressed that K–12 educators have the responsibility to prepare all students to be college- and career-ready, not either/or (Kidwai, 2011).

THE EVOLUTION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

The following paragraphs detail the history of business education in the United States from colonial times to the present, with an emphasis on federal legislation that provides money to support career and technical education programs.

17th and 18th Centuries

A dual and differentiated system of education existed in the 1600s. The provisions of the English Poor Law of 1601 that were adopted by the colonists encouraged an apprenticeship system by requiring parishes to place the children of poor families with masters to teach them a trade.

From 1620 to 1640, 20,000 persons known as Puritans arrived in New England. These included college-educated men. A need was recognized, therefore, to establish a formal system of education for youth, resulting in the establishment of the Latin grammar schools.

To serve the children of the elite, Boston Latin Grammar School, a college-preparatory school for boys, opened in 1635; Harvard, the first college, opened in 1636 (Thompson, 1973). Vocational education became the preparation for learning a trade, whereas students entering the Latin Grammar School went on to a profession (Thompson, 1973). During this period, however, colonists recognized a need to provide some structured education for persons involved with rudimentary commercial activities. One of the earliest records of formal training in this area indicated that James Morton taught children to “read, write, and cast accounts” in Plymouth in 1635 (Monroe, 1917). “Casting” was not bookkeeping but more a form of arithmetic with commercial applications. Casting seemed to be a popular course offering in the organized schools that developed in ensuing years.

Private schools operating on a tuition basis offered a curriculum of handwriting, arithmetic, bookkeeping, and English. Governing boards, usually appointed by the churches, dominated public schools. These schools offered commercial courses such as handwriting, arithmetic, and bookkeeping. Only a few admitted girls (Bartholome, 1997).

Even though formal business education was observable during these colonial days, it was through the apprenticeship system that most boys who desired to pursue business careers received their training. As a forerunner of today's cooperative programs, apprenticeships allowed boys to leave school early and work in stores and offices to gain practical experience in bookkeeping and business practices.

Discussions continued in the 1700s about control over public versus privately run schools. In 1779 Thomas Jefferson stated that, for the public schools to serve the entire population, they must be free from religious or private control; this concept eventually became accepted. In the public schools, which would be established and maintained by the states, vocational education could develop as the states saw fit (Thompson, 1973).

English grammar schools started to develop during the 18th century to cater to the needs of young men who did not wish to enter the professions. Bookkeeping was included in the curriculum of these schools. John Green taught the subject in Boston in 1709; George Brownell in New York City in 1731; and Andrew Lamb in Philadelphia in 1733 (Haynes & Jackson, 1935). Records show that bookkeeping also appeared in Maryland and South Carolina schools shortly after this time. Evening schools established during these years included bookkeeping as a course offering. Penmanship was also offered as it was felt that good handwriting should be demonstrated by those involved with commercial pursuits.

A different type of education was established with the founding of Franklin's Academy in Philadelphia in 1749. The trustees listed four aims of the academy:

1. To educate boys at home in America
2. To fit bright youths for government positions
3. To prepare the poorer type to become teachers
4. To attract students from the neighboring colonies for the commercial advantage resulting from their patronage of local businesses (Haynes & Jackson, 1935, p. 10).

In the last quarter of the 18th century, a number of commercial textbooks were written, particularly in the area of bookkeeping. They had a significant impact on the development of business education, as they were written by teachers for use in their own classes and later came to be used in other schools as well (Knepper, 1941).

19th Century

Three events in the early 1800s—the Embargo Act, the Non-Intercourse Act, and the War of 1812—closed American markets to foreign manufactured goods. These events led to the promotion of vocational education or training as a national economic policy because a large labor force was needed to produce goods (Thompson, 1973).

Private business schools. The rapid growth of industry in the United States in the early to mid-19th century necessitated the development of an educational enterprise

that would more readily meet the needs of businesses than was possible in other forms of education of that time. Private business schools, commonly referred to as “commercial colleges,” were established as business ventures to meet this need. Through the rest of the 19th century, they remained as one of the chief, if not the major, agencies for teaching business subjects and the preparation of clerical workers (Meggison, 1989). The first business college was established in 1824 with instruction in reading, penmanship, arithmetic, algebra, astronomy, history, geography, commercial law, and political economy (Bartholome, 1997).

James A. Bennett was an early leader in the development of private business schools. An author of bookkeeping textbooks, he developed teaching materials that were the forerunners of today’s “practice sets” and “simulations.” He used facsimile business papers for recording transactions and thought the schools should apply procedures found in “counting houses” to student practice work. Two distinguishing features of Bennett’s schools were the practice of unlimited attendance and the short-term course, which became very popular as these early schools were composed mostly of adults (Haynes & Jackson, 1935). Bennett also advocated the general education values of business training, a precursor of the consumer education movement a century later.

The first “commercial college” is said to have been opened in Philadelphia in 1834 by R. Montgomery Bartlett, a bookkeeper who saw the need for education in the field. This pioneer of business education was associated with the business college movement for more than half a century. Following his Philadelphia venture, he subsequently opened colleges in Pittsburgh in 1835 and Cincinnati in 1838. At that time, “Bartlett’s Commercial College” emphasized bookkeeping and penmanship. Following his death, his son continued to manage the college until 1909 (Reigner, n.d.).

The U.S. Commissioner of Education credited Dolber’s Commercial College, which was organized in New York City in 1835, as the first institution in America devoted solely to commercial education. During this period, private business schools grew rapidly; schools were located in other major cities such as Boston, St. Louis, New Orleans, and Providence (Haynes & Jackson, 1935).

These schools filled a very specific need—providing clerical training to young men in order to obtain employment. The establishment of these schools showed that this type of training could more appropriately be accomplished through formal school training rather than through the unstructured apprenticeship system. A common criticism of these schools was that the training was very narrow and that broad business concepts were not being developed. Because the schools were organized around the profit motive, another criticism was that the owners sometimes exploited students by allowing students to enroll who did not have the ability or the background to be successful academically.

Tonne and Nanassy (1970) described the formation of the first chain of business colleges:

According to R. C. Spencer, writing in 1888, the earliest step toward formal organization was taken about 1850 by R. C. Bacon who founded Bacon's Mercantile Colleges in Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Madison. This unified management lasted only a short time. The Bryant & Stratton chain was started in Cleveland in 1852. By 1865 this chain was composed of 44 schools in 44 cities, all under the same general management. (p. 376)

Among the more notable individual schools of this period were the Eastman Schools, which opened in Rochester, New York, in 1853, and Packard Business College, which opened in New York City in 1858. Shorthand was introduced in the Packard Business College in 1872, followed by typewriting in 1873. Many of the business college chains failed because of the Civil War and subsequent economic depression during the 1860s. However, this trend was reversed in the period immediately following the Civil War, as Tonne and Nanassy (1970) explained:

A great opportunity for the private business school to flourish came during the period of reconstruction following the Civil War. Thousands of young men, mustered out of the armies where they had tasted various experiences, did not care to go back to the farms. They wanted speedy and efficient preparation for some kind of employment in the cities. The opportunities on the farm, moreover, had declined somewhat because of the increased farm efficiency resulting from Civil War manpower shortages. The best opportunities were apparently to be found in bookkeeping and related clerical occupations. This desire for rehabilitation resulted in a rapid growth of private business schools. (p. 377)

First federal aid: the Morrill Act. In the first half of the 1800s, the agricultural sector of the economy demanded vocational and practical education, leading Congress to pass the Morrill Act in 1862 (Gordon, 1999). This act, the first legislation passed by the federal government to support collegiate-level vocational education, established land-grant colleges that offered programs in agriculture, mechanical arts (engineering), and military science.

High schools. The first public high school in the United States was founded in Boston in 1821. Known as the English Classical High School for Boys, it included bookkeeping in the curriculum (Daughtrey, 1965). In 1827 a law was passed in Massachusetts that mandated that every community of 500 or more families establish a high school and include bookkeeping as a subject (Wanous, 1957). During these early years of the development of public high schools, however, only the subjects of bookkeeping, penmanship, grammar, and arithmetic were available for persons preparing for business (Knepper, 1941).

Shorthand, then known as phonography, was offered in the high schools of St. Louis and Philadelphia in 1863 (Lyon, 1922). Isaac Pitman published the first shorthand system in 1837, and most of the shorthand systems taught in the 19th century were a derivative of his system. John Robert Gregg brought his shorthand system, first published

in England in 1888, to Boston in 1893. Nearly all schools teaching shorthand in the 20th century used the Gregg system (Douglas, Blanford, & Anderson, 1973).

The first practical typewriter was invented by Christopher Latham Sholes and patented in 1868 (Clem, 1955). Combined with shorthand, this development provided an impetus for schools to provide training for office occupations and eventually opened the doors to women to office positions (Bliven, 1954). Typewriting eventually became the most popular business subject offered in the curriculum and became a graduation requirement in some school systems. Touch typewriting was developed by Frank McGur-in in 1878 (Russon & Wanous, 1973). Within a few years several textbooks employing his method were being marketed (Knepper, 1941).

Other business subjects, including commercial law and business correspondence, were also introduced in various schools during the years following the Civil War.

20th and 21st Centuries

At the turn of the 20th century, private business schools taught typewriting and shorthand, along with the traditional business subjects of the past. As comprehensive high schools began to form at the beginning of the century, “commercial” courses moved into the secondary curriculum. In a survey completed by Lyon, the number of students enrolled in business courses in the public high schools increased from 15,220 in 1893 to 278,275 in 1918—an increase of 1,728.35% (Lyon, 1922). By the 1920s, business education began to experience significant enrollment at the high school level (Hosler, 1971). Much of the training that was formerly available only through private business schools was now being offered in high schools, which resulted in a markedly decreased number of private business schools.

Data show that in terms of actual student enrollment, typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping—which had come to be known as “the big three” (Knepper, 1947)—commanded the largest percentage of student enrollment, a trend that would continue for most of the 20th century. Other business courses such as elementary business training, commercial law, economic geography, and office practice started to find their way into high school business programs (Nolan, Hayden, & Malsbary, 1967). Larger high schools were able to develop complete programs of business training with courses sequenced over a three- or four-year period.

A leading business educator of the late 19th century was Edmund J. James of the Wharton School of Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania. As a result of his investigation of European commercial schools, his influence began to impact the development of improved programs and courses (Knepper, 1941). James advocated a four-year commercial curriculum at the high school level. The National Education Association Committee of 1915 advocated two different tracks in the commercial program—one in bookkeeping and the other in stenography (Graham, 1933).

Jessie Graham analyzed the evolution of business education in the United States. As a result of her study of early aims and curricula, she identified the following, in rank order, as the 10 major purposes of business education as expressed in 47 published statements from 1825 to 1918:

1. To prepare pupils for specific office positions (as clerks, bookkeepers, stenographers, etc.)
2. To give that form of general education which will prepare young people to enter business pursuits (related knowledge)
3. To adapt business education to social and civic life
4. To prepare pupils for later promotion
5. To provide opportunity for mental discipline
6. To fulfill the general objectives of all secondary education
7. To give business information and skills useful to all pupils in personal, social, and civic life
8. To give practical training to boys and girls who cannot meet the examination requirements of other courses
9. To prepare for university work in commerce
10. To help the United States win commercial supremacy (Graham, 1933, pp. 42–43).

Commercial high schools. The first commercial high school was opened in Washington, DC, in 1890 (Nichols, 1933). Shortly thereafter, others were established in other large cities, and by 1925 there were 20 such schools in the United States. Even though the programs were not too different from those found in comprehensive high schools, the chief aim of these institutions was to prepare students for careers in business. Sequential programs, covering a three- or four-year period, were found in most of the schools. Specialized options included bookkeeping, secretarial, and merchandising sequences.

Although these high schools did flourish for a short time, they were eventually discontinued in most cities. Critics felt that their objective was too narrow and that youth could be better served by affiliating with a comprehensive high school. The few high schools of commerce that continue to exist today are more comprehensive than was their original intent.

Marketing education. At one time, the concept of training workers for jobs in retail sales did not exist. Lucinda Wyman Prince, a member of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union in Boston, conducted the first comprehensive investigation of retail occupations in 1905. At that time sales clerks' wages were low; the job was looked down on and lacked social approval. As a result of her findings, she concluded that sales clerks could be trained to sell. She proposed to the management of W. A. Filene's ready-to-

wear store that a few clerks be sent to her for training in how to sell merchandise. A condition was that the company would increase the wages of each trainee; the lowest increase was 50 cents and the largest was \$14 a week (Nichols, 1979). Thus, retail store training was begun.

The first cooperative education program was established in 1914 by a business teacher—the head of the commercial education department at the Fitchburg (Massachusetts) High School. The business teacher arranged with local employers to take his seniors for a few hours a week with the belief that his students would benefit from real office experience (Nichols, 1979).

For some educational leaders, the next move was to convince high schools to include retail store training in their business education programs. Boston's superintendent of schools recognized the need for retail training and attempted to lead the effort to such a plan. However, the heads of business departments and business teachers were opposed. In their view, stenographic jobs were more attractive than store jobs, for the latter had traditionally been considered unskilled labor. Besides, they reasoned, the retail courses would "drain from the enrollment in the shorthand courses" (Nichols, 1979).

Business teacher education. Little if any formal training was available to teachers of business subjects until the beginning of the 20th century. Before that time, teachers of business secured their training through practical office work experience on the job, through private business schools, or through self-instruction. The first collegiate institution to offer a program of preparation for business teachers was Drexel Institute in Philadelphia in 1898 (Graham, 1933). Ten years later, the Salem (Massachusetts) Normal School was credited with becoming the "first public state institution to provide for the professional as well as the technical training of business teachers in an integrated approach" ("Timeline," 2004, p. 34). The school awarded 36 bachelor's degrees in commercial education in 1925 ("Timeline," 2004).

Business teacher education experienced a slow growth during the first 20 years of the 20th century. By 1923 only 37 schools had started courses for training commercial teachers. Some of the outstanding programs were found at the state normal schools at Salem, Massachusetts; Whitewater, Wisconsin; Plattsburg, New York; Trenton, New Jersey; Albany, New York; and Willimantic, Connecticut (Haynes & Jackson, 1935).

During this period, business teacher education programs were also being established in private universities. One of the first to offer such a program was New York University, which shortly thereafter started to offer graduate course work in business teacher education (Sapre & Gillespie, 1981). As programs became somewhat standardized, attempts were made to develop curricula with a balance of requirements in general education, business content, education, and specialized business education methods courses. Most business teacher education programs offered various options to prospective business teachers. These options included concentrations in accounting, secretarial skills, computer information systems, basic business, or a combination thereof.

By the mid-1960s more than 400 collegiate institutions were offering programs of business teacher education. During the past 30 years, though, many of these programs have been eliminated due to declining enrollment, lack of administrative support, and pressures from outside accrediting agencies. Currently, 44 programs in colleges and universities throughout the United States offering business teacher education preparation are affiliated with the National Association for Business Teacher Education or NABTE ("Business education," 2016). However, a number of smaller programs offer similar preparation but are not affiliated with NABTE.

Smith-Hughes Act. An advocacy group called The National Society for Vocational Education formed in 1906 to work for several years to obtain support for vocational education as Congress considered different bills. On February 23, 1917, President Wilson signed into law the Smith-Hughes Act (PL 64-347), which provided federal funding for vocational education in secondary schools. The act specified that, before a state could receive funds, it must establish a responsible state vocational board to develop a state plan on how the federal funds would be used (Thompson, 1973). The boards fostered the notion of vocational education as separate from academic education (Gordon, 1999).

Although the Smith-Hughes Act did not appropriate funds for business education programs, it did provide assistance to states to conduct studies, investigations, and reports. The act created a seven-member Federal Board for Vocational Education with one spot on the board for business education. Because of the work he had done on behalf of business education, Frederick G. Nichols, an administrator for the New York City Schools who later became a professor at Harvard University, was appointed to the board to represent business education. In October 1933, the administrative functions of vocational education were transferred to the U.S. Office of Education, and the federal board continued in an advisory capacity until President Truman abolished it in 1946 (Nichols, 1979). Nichols is considered "the father of business education" because of his pioneering and all-encompassing efforts to raise the status of business education in the American educational system.

Nichols believed that retail selling education should be placed in the business department and that it should be regarded as a type of business education. *Bulletin No. 22* issued by the Federal Board for Vocational Education and written by Nichols, carried this statement: "This Board has decided, after careful investigation, to consider training for retail selling as belonging in the commercial department of vocational training" (Nichols, 1979, p. 141).

Economic education. Economic education in the public schools in the United States started with the Junior Business Training course developed by Nichols in the early 1920s. The emphasis in economic education shifted during the depression years of the 1930s from the junior business model, which enabled those who did not complete the high school program to get a job, to an emphasis on consumer behavior such as budgeting and thrift and then to the study of economic principles in later years (Bahr & Wegforth, 1976).

After writing a series of books on junior business training, in 1936 Nichols authored *Junior Business Training for Economic Living*, designed for the eighth and ninth grades (Nichols, 1936). His memoirs (Nichols, 1979) mentioned that the text was an attempt to move away from the vocational emphasis of the curriculum toward economics—an introduction to the fundamentals of thrifty living, or making the most of one's resources. As more and more people completed high school, however, the focus of the course changed into a general business course for economic understanding. The course received renewed interest as a result of the consumer movement of the 1960s and, more recently, has been spurred by the need to educate youth in personal finance concepts. Some states have mandated that such a course be taught as a course required for high school graduation. Organizations supporting personal finance and economic education include Next Gen Personal Finance (NGPT), Working in Support of Education (WISE), Jump\$tart Coalition, National Endowment for Financial Education (NEFE), and financial literacy collaboratives in various states.

International business education. Business education has historically incorporated international business in the curriculum since the late 19th century. Economic geography, originally known as commercial geography, was offered in private business schools and later found its way into both high school and college business curricula. In many schools, economic geography was a required course for students pursuing a business sequence.

Objectives for the courses varied with its grade placement, and a frequent criticism of the course—often due to lack of teacher preparation in the subject matter—was that it was just a presentation of disparate factual information without any relationship to the global economic scene. Weersing reported that teachers of the subject believed its chief objective was for students to gain “a better understanding of the factors controlling commerce and industry” (Weersing, 1929). Nearly half a century later, Daughtrey (1974) found “the development of an understanding of the influence of geographic factors on the economic development of a country and its people and their trade and commerce with other countries” as the key objective of the course (p. 560).

Nationwide, more than 178,000 high school students were enrolled in the course in 1934 (Strong, 1944); the number diminished to 80,000 by 1960 (Tonne, 1961). With the advent of information technology in the latter part of the 20th century, the course lost the prestige it once held and, by default, was eradicated from the curriculum.

During more recent years, however, with the impact of globalization on all aspects of American business endeavors, business educators have found the need for their students to understand how the countries of the world are interconnected, not only economically but also socially and politically. Specific courses in international business are now required in nearly all collegiate-level business programs; bachelor's and master's programs allow for a concentration in this specific area. In addition, most business textbooks (marketing, management, ethics, human resources, communication, information tech-

nology, and other areas) contain chapters devoted to globalization and its relationship to these various facets of business activities.

Vocational education legislation, 1929–1946. Following the trend of federal support for business education, the next half century would see the passage of a series of laws that expanded the field even further. The federal government continued to support those vocational areas funded by the Smith-Hughes Law by passing the George-Reed Act of 1929 (PL 70-702), which provided funding for vocational home economics education and vocational agricultural education. The George-Ellzey Act of 1934 (PL 72-245) provided additional funding for vocational education in agriculture, trades and industry, and home economics. The George-Deen Act of 1936 (PL 74-673) authorized about \$14 million a year for vocational education to agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial education (Gordon, 1999). This act was particularly significant because *distributive* (marketing) occupations were recognized for the first time with an authorization of \$1.3 million (Thompson, 1973). The law was passed in the middle of the Depression, when much had been written about the inefficiency of the distribution system. In this economic atmosphere, the George-Deen Act was designed as an in-service program for employed individuals, as the act stipulated that students in a supported program must be employed 15 hours a week. Subsequently, some states and schools began requiring their vocational education students to work 15 hours a week to meet the stipulation of the law. The 1963 Vocational Education Act removed this requirement.

The George-Barden Act (PL 79-586) of 1946 doubled the money authorized for annual appropriations for marketing education. Funding was limited to supporting only cooperative education (part-time) programs and evening courses for employed workers (Gordon, 1999).

Vocational Education Act and Amendments. The 1960s and 1970s saw a round of federal legislation that infused new life into business education. In the early 1960s unemployment was high, and vocational education was criticized for failing to respond to manpower trends. At the same time, a concern for persons with special needs began to emerge. In 1961 President Kennedy appointed a panel of consultants to study vocational education. The report resulting from this panel set the stage for the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the 1968 amendments.

After the report of the panel of consultants in 1962, President Kennedy sent an education bill to Congress that included one section dealing with vocational education. This bill eventually became the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (PL 88-210).

The bill, signed into law by President Johnson in December 1963, originally read that the act was to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs of vocational education. The original wording specified continued funding for agriculture, home economics, marketing education, and trade and industrial education, but *not* business education.

A committee consisting of Hamden L. Forkner, Russell J. Hosler, and Paul S. Lomax was appointed to attempt to have business education included in the 1963 act. The committee had the support of the U.S. Office of Education, the executive director of the American Vocational Association (now ACTE) and the National Education Association. Business education had not been supported by previous acts mainly because of lobbying by private business schools that did not want their competitors supported by public funds. However, by 1963 private business schools had diminished in numbers. The committee members met with legislators in Washington, DC, including Representative Carl D. Perkins. According to Russell Hosler (1971), they were able to convince Representative Perkins to include the term “business education” within the bill. The act now read: “...those programs which were previously supported and business education for the office.”

For a period of time after the passage of the act, a separation developed among those who would define the objectives of business education. Hosler (1969) wrote:

There appears to be a tendency on the part of some to identify the objectives of business education with the source of financial support. Some would suggest that “vocational business education” is that which is reimbursed, and if it is not reimbursed it is then “general business education.” (p. 243)

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (PL 90-576) helped to address that split by setting forth a list of rigid specifications necessary to qualify for the monies allocated. Consequently, both state and federal governments exerted more direct control over local programs of vocational education than ever before. The first priority of the act was to support vocational education programs designed to assist the “hard to reach and the hard to teach” (Thompson, 1973, p. 79). The 1968 amendments discontinued categorical aids that had started with the Smith-Hughes Act; all areas of vocational education had to compete for the appropriated funds. However, the amendments did insert new categories for funding that included special needs, cooperative education, and innovative programs (Thompson, 1973).

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 (PL 94-482) extended and increased funding of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the 1968 amendments. In addition, states were given assistance in overcoming sex discrimination and sex stereotyping in their vocational programs (Gordon, 1999).

In 1983 when the National Commission on Excellence in Education published *A Nation at Risk*, the Commission observed that the United States was losing ground in international economic competition and attributed the decline to low standards and poor performance of the American educational system. Perhaps in reaction to the commission's report, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 (PL 98-524) was passed. This act amended the 1963 act and replaced the amendments of 1968 and 1976. It changed the emphasis of federal funding in vocational education from primarily expansion to program improvement, including support for at-risk populations. The

Perkins Act emphasized equity in vocational education by providing relevant training for the disadvantaged, reducing sex stereotypes by enrolling students in nontraditional programs, and serving special populations more effectively (National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education, n.d.).

Changes in the business curriculum. The changes fostered by this era of federal educational support were significant. By 1970 the principal subjects taught in the business program continued to be typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand, but now general business and clerical office procedures would increasingly gain importance among the course offerings. The enrollment in typewriting and distributive (marketing) training had increased tremendously (Tonne & Nanassy, 1970). An analysis of topics in the *UBEA Forum* and *Business Education Forum*, the professional journals of the National Business Education Association, confirmed that at mid-20th century bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand were the most popular subjects in terms of articles appearing in these publications. In the latter part of the century, however, basic business, data and information processing, and communication were replacing these subjects in respect to the number of articles published (Hemby & Lewis, 2015). The Vocational Education Act and its amendments had successfully fostered increased interest and greater enrollments in business education, particularly in programs preparing students for office occupations.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, because of technological developments, new terms came into the vocabulary of business educators and questions were raised about curriculum design. The business education curriculum changed rapidly, and debates were taking place about typewriters versus computers in the classroom. Questions were being raised about the value of shorthand in the curriculum; bookkeeping had taken on the label of accounting, and commencing with the October 1983 issue of the *Business Education Forum*, typewriting became keyboarding as a subject heading. A chapter on data processing in the 1980 NBEA Yearbook recommended "...all business students should take at least an introduction to data processing course" (Drum, 1980, p. 53). Topics to include in that introductory course included data processing and the punch card. In the same yearbook, Anderson (1980) wrote "considering the demand for secretaries who can take dictation, it is evident that business is still a long way from the total concept of word processing..." (p. 60). Just a few years later, however, Wood (1985) wrote, "The microcomputer, with its wide availability and use in the home, business, industry, government, and education, has launched us into the new century...Every discipline and level within education must deal with the advent of the small computer and the power, problems, and promise that it brings to education" (p. 72).

The term "office of the future" came into widespread use in the last quarter of the 20th century (Robles, 2009), and business educators responded to this multifaceted concept in a variety of ways. Curriculum offerings were totally revamped at all levels of instruction that included business courses to reflect this "future," which was so rapidly approaching. Professional associations and publishing companies, as well as computer software/hardware vendors and manufacturers, responded to changing needs by offer-

ing workshops and programs that prepared teachers with the methods and materials to embrace the “future” that was just around the corner.

At the turn of the 21st century, some comprehensive high schools formed career academies to prepare students to meet the future needs of business. Career academies blended academic subject matter with career exploration and occupational training. “Business education is an integral component of all career academies helping students to enhance their business related knowledge and skills” (PCBEE, 2015).

The 21st century continued the emphasis on the use of technology in the business education curriculum. New instructional strategies were evolving. These new strategies include the flipped classroom, mobile learning, and quest-based learning (gamification) to promote digital literacy, inventive thinking, and effective communication skills needed in the ever-changing workplace (PCBEE, 2014).

Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act. This act of Congress, signed by President George Bush in 1990 (PL 101-392), amended and extended the Perkins Act of 1984. The new name given to the act indicated Congressional interest in both academic and career and technical skills to prepare for work in a global society. The act carried appropriations of \$1.6 billion a year through 1995 for state and local programs that taught the skill competencies necessary to work in a technologically advanced society (Reese & Thompson, 2002). In addition, the legislation initiated support for the concept known as *TechPrep*, a cooperative arrangement that combines academic and technical courses at the secondary and postsecondary levels.

The Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills reports. In the 1990s Congress sought additional ways to match the needs of the workforce with the preparation given in the nation’s schools. Two reports written by the Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) in 1991 and 1992 indicated that an improved match was needed between what work requires and what students are taught by changing how instruction is delivered and how students learn (SCANS, 1991, 1992).

These reports, perhaps, led to three pieces of legislation passed by Congress in 1994: (a) The School-to-Work Opportunities Act, (b) Goals 2000: Educate America Act, and (c) the National Skill Standards Act. The connection among all three acts was the development of standards (Kaufmann & Wills, 1999).

The School-to-Work Opportunities Act. The School-to-Work Opportunities Act was intended to address the national skills shortage (Gordon, 1999). It gave grants of more than \$1.6 billion to support programs that included internships, career academies, apprenticeships, and job shadowing. The act expired in October 2001.

Goals 2000: Educate America Act. The Goals 2000: Educate America Act established voluntary national education goals to promote coherent, systematic education reform.

The objective was to establish standards for student achievement upon completion of grades 4, 8, and 12 (Kaufmann & Wills, 1999).

The National Skill Standards Act. The National Skill Standards Act was Title V of Goals 2000. Standards were to be used for developing curricula and instructional materials at the various educational levels (Kaufmann & Wills, 1999).

Workforce Investment Act. The Workforce Investment Act (PL 105-220) passed in 1998 made one-stop career centers the key vehicles for employment and training programs funded by the Labor Department (Hosler, 2000).

Partnership for 21st Century Skills. The Partnership for 21st Century Skills is a national organization that advocates for 21st century job readiness for every student. In 2011 the Partnership published a framework for student success in the global economy. The framework included outcome and support systems encompassing core subjects that integrate the 3Rs and 21st century themes: life and career skills; learning and innovation skills; and information, media, and technology skills. Financial, economic, and business/entrepreneurial literacy are woven into the core subjects and 21st century themes that are deemed vital for student success. The partnership gained support through its member organizations, which included publishers, technology firms, professional associations, and Fortune 500 corporations (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011).

Carl Perkins Amendments. President Clinton signed the 1998 Carl D. Perkins Vocational-Technical Education Act Amendments (PL 105-332), which required states to report student achievement more extensively than in the past and called for career and technical students to meet challenging academic standards. However, the amendments did not define the term “challenging” (Hosler, 2000). This legislation supported improvement of programs to increase both the career and academic preparation of students (Lynch, 2000).

The technology curriculum. By the 1990s the curriculum for business education had changed, reflecting the use of computers at all levels of education, advancements in technology, and legislation enacted by Congress. Keyboarding was now offered at the elementary level, thus taking the keyboard out of the exclusive control of the business educator. Terms such as database, desktop publishing, globalization, spreadsheet, telecommunications, and the Internet became part of the curriculum, while online and hybrid courses became new modes of delivery. Business educators had the opportunity to integrate technology with subject matter to provide students with greater breadth and depth of information. Standards for business education were developed by states in reaction to the accountability measures required by various federal laws (Rader, 2005).

The 21st century ushered in new terms as a result of the advancements in technology that impacted the way in which business courses were offered and/or the content of the business curriculum. Delivery methods and tools such as virtual schools, massive open online courses (MOOCs), laptop computers, hand-held devices, cloud computing, social

media, and data analytics require and challenge the business educator and the curriculum to remain up to date.

Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education (PCBEE). Business education relies on its policy makers to speak as one voice for the profession in defining the mission, objectives, and philosophy of the discipline. The PCBEE is the body that issues statements for business educators to use in defining the role of business education within the total education environment. A brief history of the commission is presented here.

In 1958 the executive board of the United Business Education Association (later the National Business Education Association) authorized President Dorothy Travis to issue an invitation to the Delta Pi Epsilon president to meet in Washington, DC, to discuss the possible formation of a committee that would issue statements of suggested policies for business education. As a result of their meeting, the Commission for the Advancement of Business and Economic Education was established under the joint sponsorship of the United Business Education Association and Delta Pi Epsilon, with financial responsibility divided equally (Hosler & Hosler, 1992).

When the commission was established in 1959, it became the PCBEE. It later expanded its membership to include representation from the Business Education Division of the Association for Career and Technical Education, formerly known as the American Vocational Association. Membership was expanded again in 2013 to include representatives from the National Association for Business Teacher Education. The commission has 20 members with three appointed members from each one of the associations—Association for Career and Technical Education/Business Education Division, Association for Research in Business Education (formerly Delta Pi Epsilon), National Association for Business Teacher Education, and the National Business Education Association.. The purpose of the commission is to identify and define both existing and emerging issues in business and economic education.

Since its inception through 2017, the commission has issued 100 statements. These are often referred to as the “This We Believe” statements, as most begin with those words. When the commission started, it appeared to place business education at the secondary and postsecondary levels, as reflected in statements issued in the early years. Not until 1977 did the commission include elementary schools in describing the mission of business education. Many of the statements speak to the present and future direction of business education; however, the commission takes a position on a diversity of topics such as curriculum development, career education, professionalism, computer literacy, social media in education, and the virtual environment. The policy statements interpret the discipline’s role in the wider education communities, outline strategies to enhance that role and further refine the brand, and often conclude with a call for action that recommends specific ways to improve business and economic education (PCBEE,

2013). These statements “serve as yardsticks against which legislative leaders, business people, parents, as well as professional educators are able to assess the effectiveness of the components of business education and the total discipline” (PCBEE, 1997, p. vi).

The purposes and goals of business education as promulgated by the PCBEE are endorsed by business educators throughout the country and by many professional groups of business educators meeting to consider specific issues confronting the field (Brower, 1989).

Career and Technical Education Improvement Act of 2006. Congress exhibited its support of career and technical education programs early in the 21st century through its reauthorization of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Technical Education Act of 1998.

On August 12, 2006, President Bush signed the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Improvement Act of 2006 (PL 109-270). The new act provided increased focus on the academic achievement of career and technical education students, strengthened the connections between secondary and postsecondary education, and improved state and local accountability (U.S. Department of Education, 2007).

The most notable provisions of the 2006 act were that it used the term “career and technical education,” instead of “vocational education,” throughout and maintained the TechPrep program as a separate federal funding stream within the legislation. The act authorized the legislation through fiscal year 2012, for a total of six instead of five years (ACTE, 2007); however, it was not included in the 2011 budget, thus eliminating TechPrep a year earlier than was originally planned.

A bill to reauthorize the 2006 act was signed by President Donald Trump in July 2018. The law, which reauthorized the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act, enables states to establish their own benchmarks for career and technical education programs.

Impact of federal legislation. Although federal legislation has provided funding for career and technical education and specifically business education for many years, the legislation has drawn both criticism and support. Federal funds were intended to stimulate the development of new programs, and gradually state and local funds were to be allocated to support these programs (Thompson, 1973). For example, the 1994 School-to-Work Opportunities Act that ended in 2001 forced states to find ways to continue programs that were started with federal seed money after the federal funding was discontinued.

Without federal support and monies, business education would not have been able to develop the excellent programs that are now available to students at all levels of education.

SUMMARY

The early business education curriculum that provided instruction in shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping has evolved into a program that offers a wide range of courses beginning at the elementary level. The method of delivery of these courses continues to include traditional in-class instruction and has expanded due to technology to offer online course content. Business education has become a multilevel discipline that embraces technology and provides preparation for students to work in a global marketplace and to function as intelligent consumers. With the support of federal dollars provided through numerous laws and, in particular, the landmark 1963 Vocational Education Act, business educators have been able to expand the subject matter in the curriculum resulting in programs that are responsive to current needs. Because of the broad array of offerings, business education makes important contributions to the general education of all students and the local communities it serves.

Even though further transformations will occur in course content and delivery methods, the dual objectives of providing education for occupational competence and for economic efficiency have always been and will continue to define the parameters of business education.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, R. I. (1980). Word processing. In M. H. Johnson (Ed.), *The changing office environment: NBEA 1980 yearbook* (No. 18, pp. 55–65). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Andruss, H. A. (1943). *Ways to teach bookkeeping and accounting* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Association for Career and Technical Education. (2007). *Welcome to ACTE online! What's new. Perkins reauthorization resources & webcast*. Retrieved from <http://www.acteonline.org>
- Association for Career and Technical Education. (2013). *What is CTE?* Retrieved from <https://www.acteonline.org/cte/#.UWwMZqKNqE4>
- Bahr, G., & Wegforth, R. P. (1976). A historical development of an economic emphasis in business education. In R. B. Wooschlager & E. E. Harris (Eds.), *Business education yesterday, today, and tomorrow: NBEA 1976 yearbook* (No. 13, pp. 20–40). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Barlow, M. L. (Ed.). (1974). Prologue. In M. L. Barlow (Ed.). *The philosophy for quality vocational education programs* (pp. 13–34). Washington, DC: American Vocational Association.
- Bartholome, L. W. (1997). Historical perspectives: Basis for change in business education. In C. P. Brantley & B. J. Davis (Eds.), *The changing dimensions of business education: NBEA 1997 yearbook* (No. 35, pp. 1–16). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Bliven, B., Jr. (1954). *The wonderful writing machine*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Brower, W. A. (1989). The philosophy of business education. In B. S. Kaliski (Ed.), *Asserting and reasserting the role of business education: NBEA yearbook* (No. 27, pp. 1–8). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.

- Business education professional development roster: NABTE member schools and universities. (2016). *Business Education Forum*. 71(2), 52-53.
- Clem, J. E. (1955). *Techniques of teaching typewriting* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Gregg Publishing, McGraw-Hill.
- Daggett, W. R., & Jaffarian, R. A. (1990). Business education in the 1990's—A window of opportunity. In S. L. O'Neil (Ed.), *Strategic planning for the 1990's: NBEA yearbook* (No. 28, pp. 168–171). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Daughtrey, A. S. (1965). *Methods of basic business and economic education*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Daughtrey, A. S. (1974). *Methods of basic business and economic education* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Douglas, L. V., Blanford, J. T., & Anderson, R. I. (1973). *Teaching business subjects* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Drum, W. O. (1980). Data processing. In M. H. Johnson (Ed.), *The changing office environment: NBEA 1980 yearbook* (No. 18, pp. 45–54). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Glatte, H. (1959). *Shorthand systems of the world*. New York, NY: Philosophical Library.
- Gordon, H. R. D. (1999). *The history and growth of vocational education in America*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Graham, J. (1933). *The evolution of business education in the United States and its implications for business-teacher education*. Southern California Educational Monographs 1933–34, Series Number 2. Los Angeles, CA: University of Southern California.
- Hall, J. C. (1990). A business education perspective: Past...present...future. In S. L. O'Neil (Ed.), *Strategic planning for the 1990's: NBEA yearbook* (No. 28, pp. 1–11). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Haynes, B. R., & Jackson, H. P. (1935). *A history of business education in the United States*. Monograph 25. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Hemby, K.V., & Lewis, D. D. (2015)). Sixty-seven years of the Business Education Forum (1947-2014): A historical review. *Business Education Forum*, 70(2), 45-49.
- Hosler, M. M. (2000). *A chronology of business education in the United States 1635–2000*. Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Hosler, M. M. (2003). The foundations of business education. In M. H. Rader (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education in the 21st century: NBEA 2003 yearbook* (No. 41, pp. 1–16). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Hosler, R. J. (1969). Objectives of business education. *Balance Sheet*, 50(6), 243.
- Hosler, R. J. (1971). *Discussion on the history and development of business education*. Seminar presentation at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.
- Hosler, R. J., & Hosler, M. M. (1992). *The history of the National Business Education Association*. Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Kaufmann, B. A., & Wills, J. L. (1999). *User's guide to The Workforce Investment Act of 1998* (E. Ries, Ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Career and Technical Education.
- Kidwai, S. (2011). Changing the image of CTE. *Techniques*, 86(4), 17–19.
- Knepper, E. G. (1941). *History of business education in the United States*. Ann Arbor, MI: Edwards Brothers.

- Knepper, E. G. (1947). Historical development of the business curriculum. In *The changing business education curriculum*. (Yearbook, No. IV, p. 25). New York, NY: Eastern Commercial Teachers Association and National Business Teachers Association.
- Lynch, R. L. (2000). *New directions for high school career and technical education in the 21st century* (Information Series No. 384). Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Ohio State University.
- Lyon, L. S. (1922). *Education for business* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Meggison, P. F. (1989). Business education in years gone by. In B. S. Kaliski (Ed.), *Asserting and reasserting the role of business education: NBEA 1989 yearbook* (No. 27, pp. 9–19). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Monroe, W. S. (1917). *Development of arithmetic as a school subject*. Bulletin No. 10. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education. (n.d.). *The unfinished agenda: The role of vocational education in the high school*. Columbus, OH: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education.
- Nichols, F. G. (1933). *Commercial education in the high school*. New York, NY: D. Appleton-Century.
- Nichols, F. G. (1936). *Junior business training for economic living*. New York, NY: American Book.
- Nichols, F. G. (1979). *Frederick G. Nichols' memoirs, 1878–1954: The early view of business education*. St. Peter, MN: Delta Pi Epsilon.
- Nolan, C. A., Hayden, C. K., & Malsbary, D. R. (1967) *Principles and problems of business education*. (3rd ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (2011). Retrieved from http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/1.__p21_framework_2-pager.pdf
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (1961). *A proposal for business-economic education for American secondary schools* (Statement No. 1). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (1989). *This we believe about the role of business education as a component of general education* (Statement No. 47). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (1997). *The Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education*. Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2002). *This we believe about the need for business education* (Statement No. 71). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.

- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2005). *This we believe about business education as core academic content* (Statement No. 76). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2013). A legacy of leadership: PCBEE's impact on business and economic education. *Business Education Forum*, 68 (1), 42-43.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2014). This we believe about new and emerging instructional strategies (Statement No. 94). *Business Education Forum*, 69 (1), 15-16.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2015). This we believe about business education in career academies (Statement No. 97). *Business Education Forum*, 70(1), 17-18.
- Rader, M. H. (2005). A comparison of state and national standards for business education. *NABTE Review*, 32, 10-15.
- Reese, S. (2009). Gazing into the future. *Techniques*, 84(5), 14-19.
- Reese, S., & Thompson, J. (2002). A new age of technology. *Techniques*, 77(2), 38-43.
- Reigner, C. G. (n.d.). *Beginnings of the business school*. Baltimore, MD: H. M. Rowe.
- Roberts, M. (1999). The making of a leader. *Techniques*, 74(8), 20-22.
- Roberts, R. W. (1971). *Vocational and practical arts education* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Robles, M. (2009). An analysis of business education recruitment strategies over the past 25 years: Then and now. *The Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, 51(1), 1-14.
- Russon, A. R., & Wanous, S. J. (1973). *Philosophy and psychology of teaching typewriting* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Sapre, P. M., & Gillespie, K. R. (1981). History of business education at New York University, 1913-1980. In P. M. Sapre (Ed.), *Early leaders in business education at New York University*. Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Sapre, P. M. (1989). Toward a redefinition of business education. In D. S. Marrone (Ed.), *Alpha Chapter Delta Pi Epsilon 13th annual Peter L. Agnew memorial lecture*. New York, NY: New York University.
- Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. (1991). *What work requires of schools*. A SCANS report for America 2000. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor.
- Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. (1992). *Learning a living: A blueprint for high performance*. A SCANS report for America 2000. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor.
- Shimberg, B. (1971). How, when, and where of vocational instruction. In G. F. Law (Ed.), *Contemporary concepts in vocational education* (pp. 184-190). Washington, DC: American Vocational Association.
- Strong, E. P. (1944). *The organization, administration, and supervision of business education*. New York, NY: Gregg Publishing.
- Timeline: Commemorating 150 years. (2004, Fall). *Sextant: The Journal of Salem State College*, 13(1), 34.
- Thompson, J. F. (1973). *Foundations of vocational education*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Tonne, H. A. (1961). *Principles of business education* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Tonne, H. A., & Nanassy, L. C. (1970). *Principles of business education* (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2007). *Vocational education: Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006*. Retrieved from <http://www.ed.gov/policy/sectech/leg/perkins/index.html>
- Wanous, S. J. (1957). A chronology of business education in the United States. *UBEA Forum XI*(8), 55.
- Weersing, F. J. (1929). *Reorganization of commercial education in public high schools*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Wood, M. (1985). Implementing an information processing program. In J. A. Hibler & B. C. Fry (Eds.), *Information processing in the business education curriculum: NBEA 1985 yearbook*. Reston, VA: National Business Education Association [Yearbook appears as journal entry in *Business Education Forum* 39(8), April–May, pp. 72–78)].

The Business Education Curriculum in the Educational System

Edward C. Fletcher, Jr.
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Marcia Anderson, author of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Business education is a dynamic and critical component of the overall structure of the educational system within the United States. This chapter addresses the role of business education programs in traditional settings and describes the structure for the delivery of business instruction at all levels, from K-12 schools through higher education and into the workplace. This chapter also discusses recent nontraditional settings, including web-based business education and business teacher education programs and courses, alternative scheduling, industry-based certifications, and dual-credit courses for students receiving both high school and community college credit for a course. This chapter concludes with a discussion on future directions for business education.

THE BUSINESS EDUCATION CURRICULUM

Business education spans the educational landscape and includes traditional and nontraditional settings. The overall business education mission is to prepare individuals *for, about, and in* business (Stitt-Gohdes, 2011). The business education curriculum is dynamic and future-oriented in that it is constantly changing to reflect and respond to the nature of contemporary work, globalization, diversity of its citizens and workers, and technological advances that have permeated society. Therefore, educators must

continually update the curriculum to properly prepare participants with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions they will need in the workplace. Business education professionals should prepare students to be college, career, and future ready.

Business Education in Traditional Settings

Most would agree that the purposes of education are to prepare individuals for life and for earning a living. The term *curriculum* can be defined in a number of ways, but generally encompasses courses and experiences that prepare individuals for life and citizenship and for earning a living, and that develop the whole person (Finch & Crunkilton, 1999).

Business education is located within a variety of formal settings, including K-12 schools, higher education institutions, and training programs within the workplace (Anderson, 2013). Curricular development in business education should take into account the objectives of the program. These objectives typically include the need to expose learners to business environments within the workplace as well as prepare them with professionalism and employability skills to be competitive in the job market. Based on curricular objectives, business education professionals should work with internal and external constituents to plan appropriate experiences and activities for their learners, as well as seek to integrate both core academic and business related content to ensure meaningfulness and transferability of the knowledge gained. The need to plan the curriculum collaboratively with external stakeholders (i.e., business and industry, higher education partners, and the community) is critical, as the curriculum should reflect the workforce needs of the community. Further, external stakeholders are helpful in securing proper resources and funding for business programs, including facilities, equipment, supplies, and other instructional materials (Finch & Crunkilton, 1999).

The curricular focus should be future-oriented to assist learners in obtaining the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to be college and career ready (Stone & Lewis, 2012) and to be life-long learners. College and career readiness includes the need for students to acquire academic, technical, and employability skills to be successful in both the workforce and in further education.

Elementary School Curricula. The purposes of business education at the elementary level (generally from kindergarten to fifth grade) are primarily to engage students in self-knowledge and career exploration and learning through experience (Welde, Bernes, Gunn, & Ross, 2016). While formal courses and programs are not part of the elementary curriculum, some teachers provide career exploration by integrating it into their curriculum. When teachers integrate business education concepts at this level, student outcomes could include learning about themselves, gaining career awareness, continually learning about careers, and becoming motivated about future possibilities. Therefore, teachers at this level should utilize developmentally appropriate activities and projects such as enabling students to examine tools needed for a variety of business occupations through play, reading a fictional story about a business employee or owner, or inviting

a guest speaker or parent to inform the students about their own occupation. These types of activities can explicitly link what they are learning in the classroom to what is expected in the workplace. Essentially, the goal of elementary school curricula should be to prepare learners for their future (Harkins, 2012).

Middle and Junior High School Curricula. The primary objectives of business education curricula in middle schools (i.e., typically fourth through sixth grades or in some cases fourth through eighth grades) and junior high schools (i.e., typically seventh through eighth or ninth grades) are similar to curricula in elementary schools. At this level students explore for themselves possible career opportunities and the world of work (Zirkle, 2012). Middle and junior high schools often integrate career education and development into curricula by providing introductory career orientation courses, integrating career exploratory activities within core academic courses, adding thematic interdisciplinary projects, and leading students in preparing career portfolios. Many schools provide a “career wheel,” where students participate in a career course for a period (i.e., nine weeks) and then rotate into another career-related course. For example, students might enroll in agriculture, business, family and consumer sciences, and trade and industrial courses, each for a set amount of time. In addition, students are usually required to enroll in keyboarding and computer applications courses and learn information literacy strategies for researching and writing reports. Work-based learning activities (i.e., guest speakers, career days, field trips, and job shadowing) and career inventory assessments are integrated into middle and junior high curricula (Kerka, 2000).

High School Curricula. The majority of business education courses and programs are at the high school level (grades nine through twelve). The delivery systems and configuration for high school business education programs are varied. They include comprehensive schools, area or regional career or vocational/technical centers, and career academies (Zirkle, 2012). Career academies are sometimes embedded within comprehensive high schools and in other cases are wall to wall (stand-alone schools).

Comprehensive high schools offer students an array of courses and programs, including general education, career and technical education, college preparatory courses, and fine arts. Area or regional career or vocational/technical centers are stand-alone facilities that offer intense courses and programs in a particular occupational area (i.e., business education). Students come to the school from a specified geographical area, from “feeder” high schools” (Zirkle, 2012). Students’ time within the career or vocational/technical center is one-half in an occupational area and the other half in core academic subject areas.

Career academies are programs within high schools typically featuring a college-preparatory curriculum with an embedded career theme (i.e., business and/or finance) requiring partnerships with employers and higher education institutions and the integration of academic and technical content to increase rigor and relevancy for students’ career interests (Stone & Lewis, 2012). The academy development and structure component focuses on smaller learning communities using student cohorts, career-themed and

sequenced coursework, common teacher planning, career-themed guidance, and ongoing professional development. The integrated curriculum and instruction component promotes career and academic learning around a relevant theme (e.g., business and/or finance) through project-based activities involving classroom and work-based learning experiences, and internships. In turn, the advisory board component includes members representing community stakeholder groups to ensure academies are locally relevant and supported. Finally, the work-based learning component includes career awareness and exploration activities in grade nine (e.g., field trips) and ten (e.g., job shadowing) grades, and experiential opportunities (e.g., industry certifications, paid internships) in grades eleven and twelve.

The objectives of high school business education curricula are to prepare students to be college, career, and future ready. Students should be prepared for direct entry into the workplace or to enter higher education upon completion of their coursework in high school. Business education subjects offered at the high school level vary greatly, but may include accounting, business communication, business law, business management, business mathematics, computer applications, economics, entrepreneurship, international business, introduction to business, keyboarding, marketing, and personal finance (Fletcher, Mountjoy, & Bailey, 2011).

Higher Education Curricula. Business programs are part of multiple levels of higher education settings, including two-year colleges, technical colleges, and four-year universities. Two-year colleges serve several interrelated purposes: (a) to prepare students to transfer into a four-year institution; (b) to train students for technical jobs; and (c) to provide continuing education for community members, current employees interested in re-training and acquiring new skills, and individuals who are seeking to advance in their careers. These types of colleges offer associate of arts and/or science degree programs. Two-year colleges are best known for their “open door” policies that welcome low income, older nontraditional, immigrant, and first-generation college students, who make up 42% of their students (American Association of Community Colleges [AACC], 2010; Zeidenberg & Bailey, 2010). Thus, two-year colleges serve an important role in preparing adults for a wide array of career paths, including those related to business and technology. To manage the increasing demand for baccalaureate degrees, many states create articulation agreements that facilitate transfer into a four-year university by encouraging students to begin at two-year colleges.

Colleges and schools of business are typically situated within most four-year universities across the nation. They offer baccalaureate degrees for both business and business teacher education. The business curriculum is typically comprised of accounting, economics, business ethics and/or law, finance, information technology, management, marketing, and statistics. Business majors are also required to develop their analytical, critical, leadership and problem-solving skills as well as become adaptive learners (Rader & Meggison, 2007).

In addition to business programs, colleges and universities across the country offer business teacher education programs. These programs attempt to equip teacher candidates with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to become effective educators in K-12 classrooms. These teacher preparation programs purposefully structure coursework and clinical experiences (field experiences and student teaching internships, which are generally during the senior year or last semester of the senior year) to prepare their teacher candidates to be successful throughout their first years of teaching. A business teacher education curriculum includes general education, business content, pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge (learning to teach within the business content area) courses, and field and clinical (student teaching internship) experiences.

Business education teachers must be competent in a variety of content areas. In fact, business education teachers face the challenge of teaching a myriad of courses, including accounting, business communications, business law, business mathematics, computer applications, economics, finance, introduction to business, marketing, and office procedures, among others (Fletcher et al., 2011). However, providing students with sufficient content knowledge for disciplines such as business teacher education is oftentimes challenging.

Graduate Programs. Graduate programs are offered in both business and business teacher education. Masters programs in business teacher education assist graduate students to improve instructional and curricular practices in their teaching. They also provide curricula that will help graduate students advance to administrative and leadership roles. Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree programs in colleges, schools, and departments of education tend to target managers and other business executives. The curriculum usually includes accounting, economics, ethics, entrepreneurship, finance, marketing, operations, organizational behavior, and strategy. Masters' programs generally require students to pass a comprehensive examination or complete a thesis.

On the other hand, doctoral programs take a more holistic approach in preparing students for the broader field of career and technical education (CTE) and its interdisciplinary nature, instead of subdisciplines such as business teacher education. The main purposes of CTE doctoral programs are to prepare a steady supply of individuals who are interested in analyzing, evaluating, and systematically conducting research to extend the knowledge base of the field and improve practice. Doctoral students are required to pass an examination upon completion of their coursework and conduct and present a dissertation research project.

NONTRADITIONAL SETTINGS

Whether at the K-12 or higher education level, business education and business-teacher education programs are continuously transforming to meet the needs of students. Online courses, industry-based certifications, and dual-credit courses are offered to meet those needs.

Web-based Business Education and Business-Teacher Education

With globalization, the increased popularity of learning online, and an acknowledgement of the need to accommodate digital learners (an area that has had tremendous growth in the educational landscape) is in the emergence of online courses and programs (Owusu-Ansah, Neill, & Haralson, 2011). The growth of online courses and programs in business education is caused by student demand for its convenience and flexibility with regard to time, place, and space (McEwen & King, 2011). Online education has certainly been an attraction for nontraditional, older students. These individuals are increasingly no longer willing to quit their jobs and relocate to study full time at a college or university of their choice. Further, nontraditional, older students often have family and other life challenges that prevent them from pursuing their studies on campus, and some are geographically distant from higher education institutions. Therefore, distance learning has certainly afforded access to educational opportunities for groups who have historically been underserved (Kim, Kwon, & Cho, 2011).

Currently, instruction occurs in face to face, online, or blended settings. Additionally, programs in higher education could range from a standalone course to entire programs online. Further, some higher education institutions deliver all programs online. Face-to-face courses are described as those that deliver at least 80% of its content in person; while, online courses refer to those classes that deliver at least 80% of the content via the Internet. Blended courses, which integrate both face-to-face and online components, deliver anywhere from 30 to 60% of instruction online (Allen & Seaman, 2007).

Online education may be delivered synchronously (in real time) or asynchronously (Zirkle, 2004). Online students benefit from a wide variety of delivery systems that include mail correspondence, broadcasting, teleconferencing, computers, various digital technologies, and the Internet (Conceicao, 2006). Online education occurs when students and teachers communicate and interact using these delivery systems. Some of the technology tools used in online courses include email, synchronous chat rooms, threaded discussion boards, document files, and digital audio and video recordings (Bolliger & Martindale, 2004)). Most face-to-face courses integrate emerging technologies for the enhancement of student learning (Dziuban & Moskal, 2011).

Industry-based Certifications

Both high school and two-year colleges offer students opportunities to earn industry-based certifications that provide graduates with a competitive advantage in the labor market. A wide variety of certifications is offered and includes various technology-related credentials, such as Adobe Certified Associate, Cisco Certified Entry Network Technician (CCENT), and Microsoft Office Specialist (MOS), among others. Business programs use their networks with business/industry and higher education partners to share the latest credentials and technology advances related to occupational demands. Input comes from business and industry and postsecondary education partners as well as other community stakeholders and advisory boards/councils.

Dual-credit

In addition to industry-recognized credentials, students may earn college credit while taking high school courses. Various structures are used for dual enrollment. High school teachers can offer dual enrollment courses in their classrooms as long as they meet certain criteria such as holding an adjunct appointment at a college or university. High school students can also select courses at local two- or four-year colleges for dual enrollment. As a result, some students earn both their diplomas and an associate's degree upon completion of high school.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

Many external factors shape the business education curriculum at all levels. These factors include (among others) preparing students for a knowledge-based economy, accommodating the needs of a changing student population, engaging students in cocurricular organizations, connecting educational standards, enacting legislation, meeting teacher certification/licensure requirements, and complying with program accreditation standards.

Preparing Students for a Knowledge-based Economy

The term “skills gap” has developed over the last decade in response to mounting concerns that today's youth lack 21st century knowledge, skills, and dispositions as well as the work ethic needed for many careers. Surveys of employers repeat a common refrain that potential workers, including young adults, lack the full range of skills to be competitive for jobs that often remain unfilled (Carnevale, Smith, & Melton, 2011). “The growing complaints of a skills gap from some of the nation's most prominent companies and business organizations underscore a hard reality: their growing reluctance to hire young people with just a high school degree” (Symonds, Schwartz, & Ferguson, 2011, p. 4).

Additionally, colleges and employers desire graduates to demonstrate college and career readiness in three domains of knowledge, skills, and dispositions: (a) academic; (b) occupational; and (c) technical. Academic skills include being proficient in the areas of mathematics, science, and communications. These skills include critical thinking, teamwork and collaboration, problem solving, creativity, oral and written communication, ethics, professionalism, and many others. Occupational skills include (a) employability skills; (b) soft skills; (c) 21st century skills; and (d) skills identified by the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) that include basic and thinking skills as well as personal qualities. Technical skills are the specific competencies that employers desire. Therefore, it is of critical importance that students are equipped with academic, occupational, and technical skills to be college, career, and future ready. According to the Partnership for 21st Century skills (2010):

College and career readiness is the new direction for K–12 education. Preparing students to transition without remediation to postsecondary education or to careers that pay a living wage, or both, is the ultimate aim of federal and state education policies, initiatives and funding. (p. 6)

Technological skills are also a critical competency for students to develop as careers in the knowledge-based economy require increasing levels of knowledge and skills in this domain.

Accommodating the Needs of a Changing Student Population

A pervasive and critical challenge for business teacher education is to prepare teachers who can teach diverse students, including students of different ethnic and racial backgrounds, English-language learners, low-income students, and students of various academic abilities (Sleeter & Milner, 2011). To address these issues, business teacher preparation programs have attempted to restructure their curricula by collaborating with schools with highly diverse students, integrating multicultural concepts and ideas into course content, and including strategies for curricular transformation and diversity. Some business teacher preparation programs provide community based, cross cultural immersion experiences in which their business teacher candidates actually reside in settings that are culturally different from their own upbringings. In addition, business teacher preparation programs have augmented their curricula to include multicultural education topics in stand-alone courses and various urban field experience opportunities.

Engaging Students in CoCurricular Organizations

High schools, colleges, and universities offer opportunities for students to participate in cocurricular student organizations related to business education. Student organizations are prominent in high school programs and include programs such as Business Professionals Association (BPA), Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA), and Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA). DECA and Phi Beta Lambda (PBL), the college component of FBLA/PBL, can be found at both the high school and collegiate levels. These organizations provide students with soft skills and leadership development. Students participate in conferences, workshops, competitive events across the region, state, and national levels as well as interact with the local business community through such activities as guest speakers. Membership options for administrators, educators, and students in business teacher education programs at the college/university level include the Association for Research in Business Education (ARBE), the National Business Education Association (NBEA), the National Association for Business Teacher Education (NABTE), and Pi Omega Pi (POP).

Connecting Educational Standards

Business educators should examine national, state, and local standards when developing their curricula. NBEA has national standards for business education (National Business Education Association, 2013). These standards provide a curricular vision and framework centered on essential competencies (knowledge, skills, and dispositions) that business students should know and be able to do upon completion of their courses and programs.

The Common Core State Standards were implemented in 2009 by members of the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State

School Officers. The objectives are to ensure all students are prepared for college, career, and life. In 2017, 42 states, the District of Columbia, four territories, and the Department of Defense Education Activity have adopted the standards into their curricula (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2017).

Enacting Legislation

Since the Smith Hughes Act of 1917, there has been federal interest and support for career and technical education (CTE) programs, including programs such as agricultural, business and marketing, family and consumer sciences, health occupations, technology and engineering, and trade and industrial education (Gordon, 2014). On the federal level, the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Improvement Act of 2006 is the major federal legislative initiative that supports CTE programs across the nation. Its objectives are to promote programs that provide students with college and career readiness skills needed to pursue further education and for successful employment in high demand and high wage careers. It also emphasized increased achievement of CTE students, strong linkages between secondary and postsecondary education, and heightened local and state accountability of CTE programs. A new law signed in 2018, which reauthorized the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act, enables states to establish their own benchmarks for career and technical education programs.

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was signed into law by President Obama in 2015. The legislation replaced the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002. Several key provisions of ESSA include protecting disadvantaged and high-need students, requiring that students are taught rigorous academic standards preparing them for college and careers, ensuring that state assessments measure the progress of students in meeting rigorous academic standards, and maintaining accountability and advancements in low-performing schools (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.).

Meeting Teacher Certification/Licensure Requirements

Teacher certification/licensure is regulated and administered through state departments of education (Anderson, 2013). Business teacher education programs, like other teacher education programs, require students to pass entry and exit certification/licensure examinations. These examinations vary by state, but typically include basic skills assessments for entry into a business teacher education program and a content and pedagogy examination for certification/licensure (Zirkle, Martin, & McCaslin, 2007). Further, most business teacher education programs require a certain amount of work experience in the field, generally one year or a set number of hours.

Complying with Program Accreditation Standards

Most colleges and universities work with accrediting agencies to ensure the quality of their curricula and experiences for student success. The Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) accredits many colleges, schools, and departments of education across the nation. In addition, The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accredits colleges, schools, and departments of business throughout the world.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Undoubtedly, the future of work and the workplace will continually evolve. This evolution has and will bring about changes related to nanotechnology, 3-D printing, artificial intelligence, robotics, and sustainable energy sources (Rojewski & Hill, 2014). Primarily due to these rapid advances in digital technologies and innovation, business educators are challenged with the issue of preparing students to be future ready. This issue is problematic since the nature of the workplace of the future is unclear. Yet, it is quite clear that students will need different skills and competencies from those required currently and in the past. Therefore, it is imperative that business educators prepare students to be adaptive, lifelong learners who embrace change and technological transformations.

Another issue that must be examined is the decline of undergraduate and graduate business teacher education programs across the nation. This decline will likely create significant problems for the viability and sustainability of business teacher education programs, for recruiting a talented and diverse business education teaching force, for the continuity of our teaching workforce, and for establishing high quality business teacher education programs. As such, business educators and administrators should develop efforts and initiatives to promote, recruit, and retain students. Additionally, business educators and administrators should continue to embrace nontraditional forms of the delivery of instruction as well as use technology as a tool to maximize student learning (Fletcher, Gordon, Asunda, Zirkle, 2015; Fletcher & Gordon, 2017).

Summary

Business programs exist at different levels and in different configurations across American education. Business education is constantly evolving to meet the needs of contemporary students and to prepare them to be ready for college, careers, and life. Students are able to take advantage of an array of opportunities to be future ready, including earning industry-based credentials, taking dual-credit courses in high school, and gaining experience in a variety of work-based learning activities. Constant advancements in technology have heavily influenced the way programs are taught and how students engage. Therefore, business educators must be adaptive experts who are able to prepare students through 21st century business education programs that are relevant, meaningful, and future-oriented.

REFERENCES

- Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2007, October). *Online nation: Five years of growth in online learning*. Needham, MA: Sloan-C. Retrieved from http://www.sloanconsortium.org/publications/survey/pdf/online_nation.pdf
- American Association of Community Colleges. (2010). *Fast facts*. Retrieved from <http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/pages/fastfacts.aspx>
- Anderson, M. (2013). The business education curriculum in the educational system. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 24-42). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.

- Bolliger, D., & Martindale, T. (2004). Key factors for determining student satisfaction in online courses. *International Journal of E-learning*, 1(3), 61-67.
- Carnevale, A., Smith, N., & Melton, M. (2011). *STEM: Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University, Center on Education and the Workforce.
- Common Core State Standards Initiative. (2017). *Common core state standards initiative: Preparing America's students for college and career*. Retrieved from <http://www.corestandards.org/>
- Conceicao, S. (2006). Faculty lived experiences in the online environment. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 57(1), 26-45.
- Dziuban, C., & Moskal, P. (2011). A course is a course is a course: Factor invariance in student evaluation of online, blended, and face-to-face learning environments. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 14(4), 236-241.
- Finch, C., & Crunkilton, J. (1999). *Curriculum development in vocational and technical education: Planning, content, and implementation* (5th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Fletcher, E., & Gordon, H. (2017). The status of career and technical education undergraduate and graduate programs in the United States. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 92(1), 236-253. doi:10.1080/0161956X.2017.1302219
- Fletcher, E., Gordon, H., Asunda, P., & Zirkle, C. (2015). A 2015 status study of career and technical education programs in the United States. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 40(3), 191-211. doi:10.5328/cter40.3.1.191
- Fletcher, E., Mountjoy, K., & Bailey, G. (2011). Examining the level of content knowledge of recent business education graduates. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 36(1), 27-47. doi:10.5328/cter46.1.27
- Gordon, H. (2014). *The history and growth of career and technical education in America* (4th ed.). Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.
- Harkins, M. (2012). Career education in the primary grades: Building work-readiness through an experiential curriculum. *Childhood Education*, 76(4), 219-224. doi: 10.1080/00094056.2000.10521166
- Kerka, S. (2000). *Middle school career education and development* (Brief No. 9). Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.
- Kim, J., Kwon, Y., & Cho, D. (2011). Investigating factors that influence social presence and learning outcomes in distance higher education. *Computers & Education*, 57(2), 1512-1520.
- McEwen, B., & King, T. (2011). Teaching the business education methods course online. *Business Teacher Education Journal*, 38, 10-17.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- Owusu-Ansah, A., Neill, P., & Haralson, M. (2011). Distance education technology: Higher education barriers during the first decade of the twenty-first century, *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 14(2). Retrieved from http://www.westga.edu/~distance/ojdla/summer142/ansah_142.html

- Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (2010). *Up to the challenge: The role of career and technical education and 21st century skills in college and career readiness*. Retrieved from http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/CTE_Oct2010.pdf
- Rader, M., & Meggison, P. (2007). The business education curriculum. *The Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, 49(1), 26-31.
- Rojewski, J., & Hill, R. (2014). Positioning research and practice in career and technical education: A framework for college and career preparation in the 21st century. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 39(2), 137-150. doi:10.5328/cter39.2.137
- Sleeter, C., & Milner, R. (2011). Researching successful efforts in teacher education to diversify teachers. In A. Ball & C. Tyson (Eds.), *Studying diversity in teacher education* (pp.81-103). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Stitt-Gohdes, W. (2011). *The business education profession: Principles and practices* (2nd ed.). Little Rock, AR: Delta Pi Epsilon.
- Stone, J., & Lewis, M. (2012). *College and career ready in the 21st century: Making high school matter*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Symonds, W., Schwartz, R., & Ferguson, R. (2011). *Pathways to prosperity: Meeting the challenge of preparing young Americans for the 21st century*. Report issued by the Pathways to Prosperity Project, Harvard Graduate School of Education.
- U.S. Department of Education. (n.d.). *Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)*. Retrieved from <https://www.ed.gov/essa?src=rn>
- Welde, A., Bernes, K., Gunn, T., & Ross, S. (2016). Career education at the elementary school level: Student and intern teacher perspectives. *Journal of Career Development*, 43(5), 426-446. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845316633524>
- Zeidenberg, M., & Bailey, T. (2010). *Human resource development and career and technical education in American community colleges*. New York, NY: Community College Research Center.
- Zirkle, C. (2004). Distance education programming barriers in career and technical teacher education in Ohio. *Journal of Vocational Education Research*, 29(3), 157-179.
- Zirkle, C. (2012). The multitiered CTE/VET system in the United States – From high school to two-year colleges. In A. Barabasch & F. Rauner (Series Ed.), *Technical and vocational education and training: Issues, concerns and prospects: Vol. 15*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Zirkle, C., Martin, L., & McCaslin, N. (2007). *Study of state certification/licensure requirements for secondary career and technical education teachers* (Grant V051A990006). Minneapolis, MN: National Research Center for Career and Technical Education.

Planning for Instruction

Stephen D. Lewis

Robert B. Blair

Vincent W. Smith

Middle Tennessee State University

Murfreesboro, TN

Students learn in ways as diverse as the student population itself. Effective teachers know that increasingly diverse student populations require varied approaches to content delivery. Millennials and Generation Z, in particular, may prefer a multimedia approach as compared to traditional classroom lectures. Much of what students learn results from interactions with teachers, but they also learn from one another. Providing a classroom environment where all students have an opportunity to discover their full potential requires significant attention to *planning*. Business educators must recognize that they

... serve as professional role models who promote a supportive and safe environment that fosters the positive development of *all* [emphasis added] students and enables the expression of their individual differences that is critical for student success in the classroom, workforce, and life. (Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, 2015, p. 3)

This chapter provides the foundation for successful planning. Incorporating national, state, and local business education standards as well as industry standards is crucial to success. In addition to a brief introduction to those standards, this chapter contains examples and suggestions for developing general unit plans, comprehensive course syllabi, and specific lesson plans. A brief discussion of assessment as it relates to instructional planning is included.

PLANNING OVERVIEW

Effective instructional planning is seldom quick and easy. Good planning will, however, simplify teachers' tasks and improve student learning outcomes. Time spent in initial planning pays future dividends by allowing more time for instruction and reducing time spent on noninstructional tasks such as record keeping.

Effective teachers must consider the complete instructional process from initial planning through final assessment. Identifying appropriate standards, developing a comprehensive course syllabus, determining course content, designing a suitable learning environment, creating flexible unit and lesson plans, and formulating relevant assessments are all essential for successful instructional planning.

STANDARDS

Studying core and content standards is a critical first step in planning for instruction. "Standards represent the goals for what students should learn" (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.a, para. 2). Core standards provide educators with learning benchmarks in core subjects such as English and mathematics. Content standards address requirements specific to a content area, including business and marketing.

"There is growing consensus that America's students need to be prepared to compete in a world that demands more than just basic skills" (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.a, para. 3). Thus, national, state, and local content standards should be central to instructional planning. The *National Standards for Business Education: What America's Students Should Know and Be Able to Do in Business* (National Business Education Association, 2013) provides extensive resources for planning business courses. State and local standards typically incorporate part or all of available national standards. Specific subject standards are frequently developed by professional organizations serving the subject area. Although standards undergo constant change, current standards at any level are generally readily available through an Internet search.

COURSE PLANNING

After reviewing the standards, the teacher then begins to plan the overall course. Planning varies based upon the course type (e.g., lab, lecture, project-based) and delivery method. However, considerations for course content, syllabus, and learning environment are fundamental elements for course planning (The Teaching Center, 2017).

Course Content

Standards provide the necessary guidance in determining minimum expectations for what students should know and be able to do upon successful completion of a course. Most standards permit the teacher to interpret and subsequently determine how the standard will be achieved.

Many novice teachers often struggle with where to begin and what to include in a course. State-adopted textbooks provide some help. A new teacher might check for an

approved course outline within the school system or seek out a teacher who is currently teaching the course to gain perspective on the course content (Santoyo & Zhang, 2016). Once course content is determined from the standards and other resources, the teacher is ready to create the syllabus.

Syllabus

A syllabus is a common tool in higher education used to provide students with an outline of course expectations. A syllabus clearly communicates what, when, and how students will learn (Cornell University Center for Teaching Excellence, 2017). Syllabus use has become more common in secondary schools in recent years, partly due to increased emphasis on accountability and assessment. Teachers must develop a general plan for the course before the learning segments and lesson plans are designed. The syllabus provides this course planning structure.

The course syllabus is customized to clearly outline specific requirements and learning outcomes accomplished upon successful completion of the course. A syllabus reflects the teacher's style and personality. The most common elements of a well-written syllabus include:

- **Identification.** The school logo, school name, department name, official course title, course number/section (where appropriate), time, and credit should be in this section.
- **Teacher contact information.** Office or room location, phone number, email address, web site address, office hours, or planning period may help parents, students, and other faculty members contact a teacher.
- **Description.** The official course description briefly outlines the nature of the course. It should be the same description that is published in the school handbook, catalog, web site, or department brochure. Secondary school teachers can find this description listed on the standards adopted for the course.
- **Objectives.** Course objectives or goals outline the student learning outcomes upon successful completion of the course. Objectives listed on a syllabus are written in broad terms to provide an overview of the learning to be accomplished and are not measurable. Measurable objectives, also referred to as performance objectives, are included in the learning segment and lesson plans.
- **Resources.** Required textbooks, materials, media, or other materials necessary for student success are identified in this section. It is important to list any resources students will need to successfully complete the course. These resources vary based upon the nature of the course.
- **Course requirements.** The course requirements include anything that impacts student performance in the course. Attendance, assignments (general details about all major assignments), class activities, examinations, and make-up or late work comprise the content of this section.

- **Grading plan.** The grading plan clearly defines how student grades will be determined (e.g., percentage, total points). This plan should be simple and easy to communicate to both students and parents and should be aligned with the objectives of the course. A course grading scale for determining a letter grade value assigned to a student's performance should be defined in this section. This grading scale should be referenced to a system-wide scale or school scale (where possible) to avoid any confusion.
- **Schedule.** A tentative schedule outlining the dates, major topics, chapters, major assignment due dates, or other schedule issues helps both the teacher and student stay on track throughout the course. The schedule should be labeled as tentative because it will likely change based upon factors not under the control of the teacher (e.g., school assemblies, fire drills, snow days, system-wide testing), yet it provides a basic road map for accomplishing the learning outcomes during the course.
- **Other information.** Some teachers choose to add a signature section for the student and/or parents to sign to acknowledge receipt, understanding, and acceptance of the course requirements. Special notes such as the school's mission statement and academic conduct policies may be referenced on a course syllabus.

Learning Environment

The learning environment is a crucial element in the overall learning process. Teachers should give careful thought to designing a learning environment conducive to accomplishing the course objectives. A positive environment includes setting clear expectations, managing student behavior, creating a welcoming classroom environment, and establishing a respectful culture (National Institute for Excellence in Teaching, 2016).

Teachers must consider the physical environment needed to deliver the content of each course. Some courses are taught in traditional classrooms with the flexibility to move furniture to accommodate the needs for small group projects and other interactive learning. Other courses may be taught in a computer lab where furniture and equipment are not movable. Some schools permit the use of personal technology devices and others do not. Therefore, the teacher must be creative by adapting the student learning activities to the type of classroom available.

UNIT PLANNING

Designing effective instruction challenges teachers to organize the curriculum standards, objectives, and content into logical subsections or units. Teaching as Leadership (n.d.) defined a unit plan as “a shorter-term, more detailed view of your teaching map than your long-term plan” (p. 53). In essence, a unit allows the educator to develop a plan or learning objectives, content, instructional procedures, and assessments that relate to essential topics in the course. Units contain a logical start and conclusion and may take days or even weeks to teach.

Teacher candidates in approximately 40 states today experience edTPA (n.d.), a “performance-based subject specific assessment and support system . . . to emphasize, measure and support the skills and knowledge that all teachers need from Day 1 in the classroom” (para. 1). This tool requires rigorous planning and delivery of instruction and assessment to demonstrate success.

With the increasing use of the edTPA in teacher preparation programs, a relatively new term is introduced called a “learning segment.” A learning segment consists of a series of lessons (usually three to five) that form a “central focus” (“Making Good Choices,” 2016). Conceivably, a learning segment could be a major division of related material and form a unit, or the learning segment may be a subset of a broader unit. By organizing learning into segments or units, teachers have greater effectiveness in creating goals and assessments that inform instructional decisions in a frequent manner. Teaching as Leadership (n.d.) indicated these benefits to unit planning:

- A unit plan forces you to make difficult decisions about what to teach and how to teach it.
- A unit plan keeps you on pace to reach your unit (and ultimately long-term) goals.
- A unit plan provides an opportunity to stimulate student interest through overarching content that is relevant to students (pp. 53-54).

To create unit plans, Naegle (n.d.) suggested that teachers ask these two questions:

1. What do I want my students to know or be able to do at the end of the unit?
2. How will I know if they know it or are able to do it? (para. 3)

By answering such questions, the process of developing a unit of instruction may begin. Table 1 demonstrates a partial unit plan with these common elements:

- **Unit title.** In a few words, describe the common theme of the unit.
- **Prerequisites.** What knowledge, skills, or abilities should students have before beginning this unit?
- **Length.** How long should it take to adequately cover this unit?
- **Curriculum standards and alignment.** Describe the curriculum and/or industry standards that this unit will address.
- **Resources.** Identify any materials, textbooks, technology, Internet sites, financial support, or other items that will be necessary before the unit begins.
- **Outline of topics or lessons.** Describe the topics or lessons that will be necessary to successfully teach this unit and achieve stated outcomes.
- **Unit objectives.** What should students know and be able to do upon completion of this unit?

- **Unit preassessment.** Design an assessment to determine students' level of prerequisite learning and assess any prior knowledge or skill to serve as a basis for individualized instruction.
- **Instructional strategies and procedures.** Strategies for instruction and/or assessment serve as a means to vary instruction and encourage student interaction.
- **Unit postassessment.** A postassessment measures achievement of the unit objectives and informs instruction and the need for reteaching or advancing to a new unit.
- **Reflection of unit.** At the completion of the unit, teachers should reflect on the effectiveness of each element of the unit plan and identify alternatives for consideration in future teaching of the unit to promote continuous improvement (Douglas, Blanford, & Anderson, 1973; Wiedmaier, Wilkinson, & Brown, 2008; Lewis, Blair, & Smith, 2013).

Table 1. Partial Unit Plan

MARKETING I UNIT PLAN (Partial)		
Unit Title: Pricing, Promotion, and Advertising		Estimated Time: Twelve, 55-minute class periods
Prerequisite(s): Unit 4: Marketing and Distribution of Products and Services		
Curriculum Standards Alignment		
• NBEA: Marketing Standard IV. The Marketing Mix. Achievement Standard: Analyze the elements of the marketing mix, their interrelationships, how they are used in the marketing process, and their role in positioning. • TCS: Standard 3. Examine the marketing mix; Standard 26. Identify the types of promotion; Standard 27. Identify the main components of a print advertisement; and Standard 28. Create a product promotional campaign for a local business.		
Resources		
• Burrow, James L. (2012). <i>Marketing</i>, 3rd ed., Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.		
Topical Outline: (Lessons, number of days)		
Chapter	Topic	Length (Periods)
14	Determining the Best Price	4
15	Effective Promotion Means Effective Communication	4
16	Be Creative with Advertising	4

Table 1. Partial Unit Plan *continued*

Unit Objectives

Upon successful completion of this unit and its associated lessons, students will be prepared to:

- Describe strategies used to determine prices for a product or service.
- Evaluate the profitability of a pricing strategy.
- Assess the effectiveness of the marketing-communications mix to make product-mix decisions.
- Explain qualities of effective communications.
- Describe types of promotion.
- Explain the relationship between marketing and marketing communications.
- Describe the effective use of advertising agencies.
- Contrast advertising copy strategies that can be used to generate interest in a product or service.
- Apply effective design principles to meet marketing communications goals.

Unit Pre-Assessment

(Students will be asked to complete a written pretest prior to the start of this unit. Analysis of results will indicate if students have prerequisite knowledge or advanced knowledge of topics that may be skipped.)

Instructional Strategies

Strategies used in this unit may include: lecture, group discussion, case study, software application to create promotional programs and advertising, Internet Web Quests, and guest speakers from local marketing firms.

Instructional Procedures

(Instructional procedures are outlined on each lesson plan contained in this unit.)

Unit Post-Assessment

(A written test over objectives and competencies of this unit will be administered at the conclusion of the unit. Results are compared to pre-assessment instruments to determine the extent of knowledge gain for each student. A project-based culminating exercise is used to assess unit objectives and to document competencies.)

Reflection of Unit

(In this section the teacher records comments during the presentation of the unit and again at its conclusion regarding the success of the learning event. This information is used to modify future applications of the unit.)

LESSON PLANNING

Successful teaching relies heavily, if not exclusively, on effective lesson planning. Dettmer (2006) noted that the “*Purposes of teaching are to expand thinking, enhance feeling, cultivate senses and movements, and enrich relationships for students and their teachers, coaches, and counselors in order to optimize potential*” (p. 72). To be successful, then, instructional planning must include learning domains, a taxonomy of learning, learning objectives, and lesson plans.

Learning Domains

The increasing diversity of student populations requires that teachers incorporate an accompanying diversity of teaching approaches using recognized learning domains. “A domain is a sphere or range of influence or activity” (Dettmer, 2006, p. 71). Four domains encompass the way students learn.

- **Cognitive** indicates “the use of mental activities and skills to perform tasks such as learning, reasoning, understanding, remembering, paying attention, and more” (Learning Rx, n.d., para. 1). For example, learning that the 4 Ps of marketing are product, price, promotion, and place.
- **Affective** refers to emotions, behaviors, attitudes, or values. A student’s attitude toward a specific academic subject area illustrates the affective domain.
- **Sensorimotor** includes activities that require sensing and moving. Learning touch keyboarding from printed material typifies the sensorimotor domain.
- **Social** (interacting, enriching, and cultivating relationships) domain activities could include interactive projects such as students completing a team presentation on the importance of promotion in marketing.

Taxonomy of Learning

Bloom’s Taxonomy of Learning provides a method for categorizing learning levels, beginning with low-order thinking and progressing through increasingly higher levels. The original taxonomy, introduced by Benjamin S. Bloom et al. in 1956, was revised by Anderson and Krathwohl in 2001 (Wilson, 2016). Graphical illustrations and explanations of the original and revised versions of the taxonomy may be accessed through an Internet search.

Learning ordinarily evolves from simple concepts to gradually more complex concepts, illustrated by the sequence in which individuals learn basic arithmetic functions: addition-subtraction-multiplication-division. Bloom’s Taxonomy specifies six learning levels.

- **Remembering**, the lowest learning level, involves simple recall of facts or ideas. An example is memorizing the 4 Ps of marketing: product, price, promotion, and place.
- **Understanding** is illustrated by recognizing how pricing affects sales of a product or service.
- **Applying** refers to implementing knowledge or new understanding learned at lower levels (e.g., setting a price for a product or service).
- **Analyzing** entails dividing material into parts and determining relationships of the parts. Determining where to place (sell) the product to maximize sales is an example.
- **Evaluating** incorporates judgments based on established criteria, such as how and where to promote the product or service (e.g., television, radio, or print advertising).

- **Creating** involves generating or producing an original product. Creating a promotional video for a product or service is an example (adapted from Krathwohl, 2002).

Learning Objectives

Effective learning objectives focus on the student, not the teacher (e.g., “The student will...”). Learning objectives should be specific, observable, and measurable. Bloom’s Revised Taxonomy (adapted from Krathwohl, 2002) is a good source for action verbs to use in writing objectives. Nadler and Nadler (1994) suggested that learning objectives include three major parts: performance, condition, and criterion. These three basic elements are supported by Clark (2017) and Mager (2017). The performance defines what the student will do (e.g., create, write, develop). The condition describes the limitations on the performance (e.g., time, information). The criterion establishes the performance expectation level (e.g., grading criteria, rubric). A sample objective incorporating these parts might read, “Upon completion of this lesson, the student will design an original community service event ad layout (*performance*) in 40 minutes (*condition*) using six components commonly found in print media (*criterion*).”

Lesson Plans

After the learning segment is developed, the teacher divides the learning segment content into daily lessons. Daily lessons are the most detailed part of planning for instruction. This detail is important because each part of the lesson must be aligned with the learning objectives. Heflebower, Hoegh, and Warrick (2017) stated that, “High-quality classroom instruction is paramount to student achievement” (p. 58). Aligning all aspects of the lesson with the objectives keeps the teacher and students focused on the desired outcomes. Novice teachers may become overwhelmed with preparing lesson plans. Experienced teachers often struggle with keeping their lessons contemporary and engaging. An easy way to develop an effective lesson plan is to remember that a teacher needs to (a) obtain the students’ attention, (b) inform learners about what they will do in class and provide context for learning, (c) complete instruction, (d) review learning outcomes, (e) assess learning, (f) provide feedback, and (g) reflect on the lesson.

There is no standardized format for lesson plans; however, accrediting agencies and teacher evaluation models include some common elements as benchmarks for a well-developed lesson. The following 11 components are recommended for daily lesson plans.

- **Descriptive information** includes the course name, time, location, instructor’s name, lesson topic, learning segment, grade level(s) or ages, time allotment, materials/resources/ technology, and classroom arrangement.
- **A context of learning** helps to provide a novice or alternatively licensed teacher with some learning context. This information ensures that the teacher has given thought to why students need to learn this information or skill, how it will be used now, and how the newly gained information or skills can be applied to future applications in other courses, advanced education, or employment. It also allows

the teacher to relate what will be learned to future careers. This is a good place to anticipate student questions about the lesson background.

- **Objective(s)** outline specific and measurable learning outcomes. The lesson objective(s) should clearly indicate how an outcome will be measured and to what extent. Novice teachers often use objectives written by textbook authors or take objectives directly from state standards. These objectives are usually not written in sufficient detail to warrant a clearly measurable learning objective. Another significant note about objectives that must be considered in the planning stage is considering how the teacher will be evaluated. In the Tennessee Educator Acceleration Model (Tennessee Department of Education, n.d.), a teacher should incorporate multiple references to the learning objectives throughout the lesson to achieve a higher rating. Most teachers make the learning objectives visible to students through the use of an objective slide or whiteboard. Teachers may also provide an oral overview at the beginning of the class and review of the objectives during the lesson closure. However, it is a good practice to give an interim summary (or have a student do so) and include which objectives have been accomplished thus far and remind students of what still needs to be accomplished in the lesson. An effective engagement strategy is to present the objectives a different way each day or at least avoid using the same methods twice in the same week. Teachers should always anticipate questions and provide an opportunity for students to gain clarification about what successful completion of the lesson objective will involve.
- **Standards** should be clearly outlined on the lesson plan. At minimum, the state-adopted curriculum standards should appear on the plan to ensure that learning will be focused on what students should know and be able to do in that particular course. However, if a teacher has explored additional national, industry, and local standards, those should be included also. This is especially important for a course that may lead to industry certification. A teacher who includes more than the minimum requirement is usually able to convey a broader knowledge of the subject to the learners.
- An **activating strategy** gets the learners' attention and engages learners in thinking about how the lesson objective(s) will be attained. The teacher should strive to use a variety of activating strategies to pique the learners' interest and set the stage for active learning. An activating strategy could be a response to a controversial statement, evaluation of a cartoon, class poll, series of exploratory questions about the lesson, student-led review of the previous lesson, YouTube video clip, game, or any other creative activity to help students focus on the lesson. The activating strategy should be directly related to the lesson's objectives.
- **Instruction** provides the detail for how lesson objectives will be introduced, learning strategies and activities, managing transitions, monitoring, guided practice, independent practice, re-teaching, and enrichment. This section should be more detailed for a novice teacher. An outline for what the teacher will do/say and what the student will do is helpful for new teachers. Including a list of anticipated

questions and appropriate responses in this part of the lesson plan is wise. Variety in instructional delivery is important and supported by the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education (2014) in its Policy Statement No. 94 (e.g., flipped classroom, mobile learning, quest-based learning). The instructional procedures should have a time element to prompt the teacher to maximize instruction.

- **Modifications/Grouping** should be outlined in the lesson plan. Modifications address any plans for accommodating students who need special assistance (e.g., learning and behavioral individual educational plans, English-language learners). Anytime that grouping occurs, the teacher should have a procedure and rationale in the lesson plan. Students are grouped for many different reasons to work on tasks. However, the teacher needs to have a well-thought-out plan for why students are grouped a certain way. Sometimes proximity is used for ease of transitioning from one activity to the next. At other times grouping students by ability, performance on a pre-assessment, or other means is necessary to achieve the desired result. Teachers must keep in mind that many evaluation plans expect a teacher to be able to explain why students were grouped a certain way. Using a variety of grouping techniques ensures student engagement.
- **Assessment** is accomplished through multiple strategies. Formative assessments are common to measure daily objectives. Assessment may include a project with grading rubric, quiz, short essay, written questions, observation, or checklist. Lesson objectives should be assessed within the lesson versus at some future time. Using a variety of assessment strategies ensures that all learning styles are accommodated.
- **Closure** takes place near the end of the lesson. Closure is accomplished by having the learners reflect on their performance. Students compare what they accomplished during the lesson with the objectives. The teacher may ask guiding questions to help summarize the learning and provide students with a hint about how what was accomplished during this lesson relates to future ones. If the objectives were not met, the teacher may spend time re-teaching or working with students who need additional assistance in mastering the desired outcomes. If time permits, the teacher may include enrichment activities or more independent practice to reinforce the objectives.
- **Reflection** permits the teacher to think critically about the lesson delivery and outcomes. All aspects of the lesson are reviewed. Notes are made for adjustments needed to improve future lessons. This is one of the most beneficial elements of lesson planning. The reflective process is critical for any teacher desiring to improve performance of both the teacher and student. Most teacher education programs incorporate this element into teacher preparation. The *edTPA Business Education Assessment Handbook* (Stanford Center, 2016) model includes a teacher candidate reflection. The Tennessee Educator Acceleration Model (Tennessee Department of Education, n.d.) also requires teacher candidates to reflect upon formative observations. This behavior is expected to be carried over into a teacher's work life.

Although these 11 components provide teachers a good starting place, some thought should be given to knowing students' learning abilities and challenges, motivating students throughout the lesson, questioning techniques to ensure depth of learning, giving academic feedback, incorporating multiple levels of thinking into a lesson, and engaging students in problem solving. Table 2 provides a lesson plan example that incorporates these elements.

Table 2. Completed Lesson Plan

MARKETING I Time and Location Instructor's Name	
Lesson Topic Promotion as a Form of Communication	Learning Segment Effective Promotion Means Effective Communication
Grade Levels 10-11	Time Allotted 1 day/traditional schedule (55 minutes)
Materials, Resources, and Technology • <i>Marketing</i>, 3rd Edition, James L. Burrow, (2012), Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning • Assignment sheet with grading rubric • Microcomputers, peripherals, and digital projector • Internet and Microsoft Office 2016 • Digital storage media and Printer paper	
Classroom Arrangement No special classroom arrangement will be required for this lesson. All students will have access to a computer.	
Context of Learning (1 minute) This lesson provides the student with an opportunity to persuasively communicate the details of an upcoming DECA event in a print ad. Students will apply previously learned information about persuasive writing (attention, interest, desire, and action), advertising, personal selling, sales promotion, promotional mix, and promotional planning process.	
Technical skills developed in a Computer Applications course will be useful for ad design. The project reinforces concepts covered in Business Communications. This one-page ad will be developed into a 90-second video commercial uploaded to the school's YouTube channel in a subsequent lesson. The skills learned and reinforced in this lesson will transfer to selecting appropriate information about a product or service in a defined time frame to reach a specific audience. A future lesson will build upon this lesson to prepare a promotional plan for the DECA event, implement the plan, and evaluate the results.	
Students should be made aware that the skills learned in this lesson will help them to design and create any type of print ad for other student activities, community events, social activities, and work-related projects.	

Table 2. Completed Lesson Plan *continued*

Objective (1 minute)

Upon successful completion of this lesson, the student will

- Design a one-page, print ad to persuasively (attention, interest, desire, and action) promote an upcoming DECA event with 95% accuracy.

Standards (1 minute)

Following are the NBEA National Standards for Business Education (NMK) and Tennessee Department of Education Standards for Marketing and Management I: Principles (TMK) for curriculum alignment:

- NMK IV.D.1.4-Promotion: Develop an advertising plan; create a media plan; develop a campaign strategy (e.g., commercial, Internet ad, print, radio, outdoor); and evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of outsourcing advertising
- TMK 27-Introduction to Promotion: Identify the main components of a print advertisement. Design an original ad layout incorporating principles of the components most commonly found in print media.

Activating Strategy (7 minutes)

Students will work in pairs to review at least two print ads provided by the teacher and identify the four parts (attention, interest, desire, and action) of the persuasive ad. In addition, determine the target audience and list design elements that enhance the message effectiveness. The pairs will debrief with the whole class by highlighting one ad. Student volunteers will list the target audience and design elements on the white board. Ideas generated may be used in the print ad developed today. How does the activating strategy relate to today's objective?

Instruction (40 minutes)

The following teaching strategies will be used in this lesson:

- **Group instruction** (5 minutes) will discuss the assignment details and review the grading rubric. The teacher will check for understanding and have students rephrase the instructions for the assignment.
- **Independent practice** (33 minutes) will allow the students to produce the one-page, print ad using the elements described on the grading rubric. The teacher will move around the room, answer questions, and provide guidance where necessary.
- **Questioning** (2 minutes) will be used throughout the independent practice as students develop the one-page, print ad. Students will be questioned about the grading rubric, format, persuasive message parts, design elements, and other information as needed.

Modifications/Grouping

The activating strategy pairs were determined by proximity (seating chart). This instructional activity will be an independent assignment; however, students with learning disabilities or cultural differences may need more support to complete the assignment. Monitor these students carefully to ensure that they receive any needed assistance. Advanced students that finish the project early should begin planning how they will develop this print ad into a 90-second video commercial. The teacher will determine additional modifications/grouping required for each class.

Table 2. Completed Lesson Plan *continued***Assessment**

The following assessments will be used in this lesson:

- Questioning techniques will be used to determine student understanding of assignment and prompting throughout the lesson.
- The teacher using the grading rubric will evaluate the one-page, print ad. Feedback will be provided at the beginning of the next lesson. The teacher will provide highlights of positive elements from the entire class and then give an overview for any adjustments that need to be made before moving into the next lesson. Assignments will be randomly posted on the wall.

Closure (5 minutes)

The following strategies will be used to bring closure to the lesson:

- Students will volunteer to revisit the lesson objective and ask the students if the objective was accomplished.
- Ask a student to summarize the lesson in his or her own words. What were the major elements to be included in this one-page, print ad?
- Have student volunteers suggest how what was learned today could be used for other tasks (specific examples).
- The teacher will preview the next lesson by asking students to give some thought to how they would take the one-page, print ad and turn it into a 90-second video commercial. Since you have the basic information, what would you need to do differently in a video commercial? Would the target audience change? What would be the benefits of using a video commercial versus a print ad? Other appropriate questions will be asked to pique the students' interest in the next lesson.

Reflection

(Upon completion of the lesson, the teacher will make notes about the delivery of the lesson and achievement of the lesson objectives. What worked well in the lesson and what needs to be improved before the lesson is taught again?)

ASSESSMENT

Legislative efforts at the state and federal levels continue to place increasing emphasis on ensuring student success. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) signed in 2015 focuses on assessment-related issues such as school accountability, data reporting, and state plans. Such requirements involve an upward flow of information, from the classroom level and beyond, to document learning and program success (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.b).

Classroom assessment assumes two forms: formative and summative. Choudhury (n.d.) defined formative evaluation as being “used during the teaching process to monitor the learning process” (para. 2). These intermediary evaluations may take the form of quizzes, observations, questioning, peer evaluations, homework, or other activities used to judge student learning and teacher effectiveness. Teachers should use formative assessment to make adjustments to the next lesson. “Summative evaluation is terminal in nature. Its purpose is to evaluate [a] student’s achievement” (Choudhury, n.d., para. 13).

Such measurements may include chapter, unit, or end-of-course (EOC) testing or state assessments. Further, local and state authorities continue to place increasing emphasis on student achievement results in evaluating teacher effectiveness. Student success and effective teaching require a comprehensive and well-designed formative and summative evaluation plan. Chapter 4 addresses assessment in greater detail.

SUMMARY

Effective planning begins with an analysis of student and stakeholder needs and continues through appropriate assessment techniques. Each intermediate step must be considered to deliver high-quality instruction. Moreover, appropriate planning allows teachers to use instructional time efficiently.

Comprehensive planning incorporates national, state, local, and industry standards. A learning environment adapted to diverse learning needs improves learning outcomes. Comprehensive, clearly written syllabi inform all stakeholders of what, when, and how students will learn. Diverse learning styles in contemporary classrooms require consideration of all learning domains: *cognitive*, *affective*, *sensorimotor*, and *social*. Bloom's Taxonomy provides a hierarchy for learning that instructors may use in developing appropriate learning objectives. Flexible unit plans and detailed lesson plans, each with clearly stated objectives, ensure delivery of content well suited for diverse learners. Finally, appropriate assessment techniques confirm quality learning outcomes and alert teachers to necessary instructional adaptations.

REFERENCES

- Burrow, J. L. (2012). *Marketing* (3rd ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Choudhury, A. (n.d.). *Difference between formative and summative evaluation*. Retrieved from <http://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/education/evaluation/difference-between-formative-and-summative-evaluation/64717/>
- Clark, D. (2017, May 5). *Performance and learning objectives in instructional design*. Retrieved from http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/isd/develop_objective.html
- Cornell University Center for Teaching Excellence. (2017, April 4). *Writing a syllabus*. Retrieved from <https://www.cte.cornell.edu/teaching-ideas/designing-your-course/writing-a-syllabus.html>
- Dettmer, P. (2006). New blooms in established fields: Four domains of learning and doing. *Roeper Review*, 28(2), 70-78. Retrieved from <http://staff.uny.ac.id/sites/default/files/pendidikan/Beniati%20Lestyarini,%20M.Pd./new%20bloom%20taxonomy.pdf>
- Douglas, L. V., Blanford, J. T., & Anderson, R. I. (1973). *Teaching business subjects* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. edTPA. (n.d.). *General information: What is edTPA? Retrieved from <http://edtpa.aacte.org/faq>*
- Heflebower, T., Hoegh, J., & Warrick, P. (2017). Get it right the first time! *Phi Delta Kappan*, 98(6), 58-62. doi:org/10.1177/0031721717696480

- Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(4), 212-218. doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2
- Learning Rx. (n.d.). *Define cognitive learning*. Retrieved from www.learningrx.com/define-cognitive-thinking-faq.htm
- Lewis, S. D., Blair, R. B., & Smith, V. W. (2013). Planning for instruction. In B. McEwen (Ed.). *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 43-58). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Mager, R. F. (2017, May 5). *Mager's tips on instructional objectives*. Retrieved from <http://www2.gsu.edu/~mstmbs/CrsTools/Magerobj.html>
- Making good choices: A support guide for edTPA candidates*. (2016, July). Retrieved from www.edtpa.com/Content/Docs/edTPAMGC.pdf
- Nadler, L., & Nadler, Z. (1994). *Designing training programs*. Houston, TX: Gulf.
- Naegle, P. (n.d.). *10 guidelines for planning units*. Retrieved from www.scholastic.com/teachers/articles/teaching-content/10-guidelines-planning-units/
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- National Institute for Excellence in Teaching. (2016). *Educator effectiveness 5.0 workbook*. Santa Monica, CA: Author.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2014). *This we believe about new and emerging instructional strategies* (Statement No. 94). Retrieved from www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement94_2014.pdf
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2015). *This we believe about diversity in business education* (Statement No. 96). Retrieved from www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement96_2015.pdf
- Santoyo, C., & Zhang, S. (2016). Secondary teacher candidates' lesson planning learning. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 43(2), 3-27.
- Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity (SCALE). (2016). *EdTPA business education assessment handbook*. Stanford, CA: Board of Trustees of the Leland Stanford Junior University.
- The Teaching Center. (2017, April 4). *Designing a course*. Retrieved from <https://teachingcenter.wustl.edu/resources/course-design/designing-a-course/>
- Teaching as leadership. (n.d.). *Unit planning*. Retrieved from http://teachingasleadership.org/sites/default/files/Related-Readings/IPD_Ch4_2011.pdf
- Tennessee Department of Education. (n.d.) *TEAM Tennessee Educator Acceleration Model*. Retrieved from <https://team-tn.org/?s=TEAM+General+Educator+Rubric&submit=Go>
- U.S. Department of Education. (n.d.a). *College- and career-ready standards*. Retrieved from www.ed.gov/k-12reforms/standards
- U.S. Department of Education (n.d.b). *Every Student Succeeds Act: Accountability, state plans, and data reporting: Summary of final regulations*. Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/essafactsheet1127.pdf>

- Wiedmaier, C., Wilkinson, K., & Brown, H. F. (2008). Planning for instruction. In M. H. Rader (Ed.). *Effective methods of teaching business education in the 21st century: NBEA 2008 yearbook* (No. 46, pp. 37-52). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Wilson, L. O. (2016). *Understanding the new version of Bloom's taxonomy*. Retrieved from <http://thesecondprinciple.com/teaching-essentials/beyond-bloom-cognitive-taxonomy-revised/>

Evaluating and Assessing Student Performance

Nancy Zeliff
Northwest Missouri State University
Maryville, MO

Kimberly Schultz
Kirkwood Community College
Cedar Rapids, IA

An effective business educator must possess the ability to evaluate and assess student performance. Today, the number of stakeholders inherently interested in assessment results has moved from just the student and instructor to include parents, school administrators, college admission counselors, local business leaders, and politicians who control funding. Today's business educator spends considerable time not only preparing, teaching, and grading, but also sifting through and crunching data to provide required feedback on student performance. Understanding the assessment process and its data can also assist the instructor with continuous improvement. This chapter provides the assessment process framework needed by instructors to complete today's myriad of required reporting.

PROCESS OF EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

Evaluation is a judgment based on criteria and evidence (Penn State, 2014), comparing student performance against standards or a set of criteria. Measurement is assigning “numbers to the results of a test or other type of assessment according to a specific rule” (Linn & Gronlund, 2000, p. 31). Waugh and Gronlund (2013) described assessment as “a broad category that includes a variety of methods used to determine the extent to which students are achieving the intended learning outcomes” (p. 17). Assessment,

unlike evaluation, does not make judgments alone and, unlike measurement, does more than just assign a score. Assessment describes, collects, records, scores, and interprets information about student performance (Penn State, 2014).

Purposes of Assessment

Assessment is an integral part of instruction and learning and has several purposes: improving student achievement, evaluating teacher effectiveness, and assessing programs. Gronlund (2006) identified other reasons for assessment such as diagnosing and placing students in learning environments, motivating students to retain and transfer learning, and guiding students through self-assessment.

Assessment provides the basis of awarding grades to student performance. Educational institutions use grade point averages for distinctions, awards, scholarships, and college admission. Benchmark assessments, such as Microsoft Office Specialist (MOS), compare student performance against a set of standards or criteria (Sparks, 2015).

ABC'S OF ASSESSMENT

Assignment of a grade—whether on homework, a test, or for a course—used to be the most common feedback students received. As long as the grade distribution fell within the Bell Curve confines, the instructor felt justified in thinking the content presented had been learned. This philosophy is no longer accepted. Current assessment philosophy requires the instructor to provide many forms of assessment of student knowledge, skills, and abilities, placed throughout the course of learning. Instructors may also have to differentiate or modify learning and its assessment to accommodate multiple learning styles, cognitive abilities, or language differences.

Types of Assessment

These above factors as well as curriculum content and time constraints help determine which type of assessment is best used or needed. The following categories explain the types of assessment available to the classroom instructor.

Traditional assessment. Traditional assessment consists of quizzes and tests. Types of quiz or test questions, which focus on the lower end of critical thinking, include multiple choice, matching, true-false, and short answer. Scoring is easy and can be completed quickly for immediate feedback, especially if given online. Essay questions, however, focus on higher levels of critical thinking and require more time to evaluate and provide feedback.

Alternative assessment. Alternative assessment allows the student to expand upon learning by providing more information than a traditional assessment may. Alternative assessments include:

- Process—anecdotal, observations, peer/self-evaluation, interview, or demonstration
- Written—essay, case study, reflection, journal entry, class notebook, or log
- Portfolios—course, career, program

Process assessments focus on how an assignment is completed. In a computer applications course, for instance, the learner creates a table to summarize data and provides reasons why the application—word processing or spreadsheet—was selected. These reasons are the basis of the assessment and are evidenced in an interview or demonstration (Zeliff & Schultz, 1998).

Written assessments clearly show depth and breadth of student learning **IF** the student takes the time needed to complete the assignment. Grammar knowledge and an easy-to-read writing style also help. Thus, writing assessments given at the end of a grading period tend to be incomplete because the student feels rushed. A student may be unwilling to devote the time needed to write a complete answer and only provide superficial information.

Portfolios are an excellent way to show program or course completion knowledge. Portfolios consist of evidence and its corresponding narrative or reflection, which details how the item was produced or lessons learned in the process of producing the evidence.

Performance assessment. Performance assessment requires a student to create a product. Formatting documents, oral presentations, or simulations are examples of performance assessments. If a student keys a letter, the evaluator can see if all letter parts are included and in the proper place. While oral presentations do include content, how the content is presented is what takes center stage. Simulations require students to apply what they have learned and may ask students to make judgments about appearance, set deadlines, and prioritize required tasks (Zeliff & Schultz, 1998).

Formative assessment. Formative assessments are conducted throughout the learning cycle and are used to quickly determine if students have mastered the course content. Whether a grade is assigned or not is up to the instructor, because the major purpose of formative assessment is feedback, which can be in the form of a traditional or alternative assessment. For example, the completion of a three-minute write required at the end of class lets the instructor know whether today's concepts have been learned. Formative assessments can also be used as a program's early assessment during the learning process.

Early assessments. Early assessments probe the student's knowledge as learning takes place; thus, many early assessments are also formative in nature. The collection of early assessments, especially those which highlight the depth and breadth of a student's learning, can lead to the proving of a program's outcome attainment. The word "collection" is key in the attainment of the outcome. An early assessment on its own only shows a small piece of what a student knows and can do. Early assessments are commonly required by accrediting agencies.

Summative assessment. Summative assessments depict the final knowledge, skills, or abilities the student possesses at the end of the learning process. Portfolios, MOS testing,

or oral presentations are examples of summative assessment which show a student's depth and breadth of knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Direct assessment. Direct assessments allow the reviewer to measure what the learner actually knows or can do. This type of assessment is based upon the “student's performance or the learning itself” and can include case studies, presentations, and exams (Office of Student Learning, 2015, para. 4). The University of Central Arkansas (n.d.) and Cornell (n.d.) stated that this type of assessment is a direct application of skills and knowledge

Indirect assessment. Indirect assessment is provided by an outside source, such as MOS test results, employer surveys, job placement rates, or quantitative data such as retention rates. Indirect assessment makes inferences from the perceptions or reflections provided by someone other than the classroom instructor (Office for Student Learning, 2015).

Norm-referenced assessments. Norm-referenced assessments interpret student performance and provide a relative ranking of students (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013). Standardized examinations such as PRAXIS, GRE, or ACT provide norm-referenced results.

Criterion-referenced assessments. Ronan (2015) stated that criterion-referenced assessments measure student performance against a specific goal or standard. They are typically used for mastery exams, which are summative in nature.

CONSTRUCTION OF ASSESSMENTS

Tests and quizzes can be prepared from questions written by the instructor, generated and/or adapted from publisher test banks, or a combination of both. Good instructor-developed test questions will align with specific standards and objectives of the course. These tests are usually criterion-referenced assessments that measure student achievement in a unit or course.

Publishing companies provide test banks for textbooks that include varied selection and supply-response questions. Advantages in using these publisher test banks are easy implementation of electronic test banks in course management systems and electronic testing software and the plethora of exam questions from which to choose.

Selection Response Questions

Selection response questions include multiple choice, true-false, and matching. Students “select” their response from given options of answers. Advantages of selection response questions include the ease and speed in grading; elimination of bluffing by the student; elimination of the influence of writing; and the ability to compare scores among students, classes, and schools taking the same assessment. Writing good questions is difficult, and students may just guess the correct answers (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Multiple choice questions. Multiple choice questions can measure many levels of the cognitive domain. These questions are the most commonly used type of exam questions, especially on standardized tests. The parts of a multiple choice question include the stem, which presents the incomplete question or statement, and its alternatives. Among the alternatives are the correct answer and distractors or plausible wrong answers. The stem should be written in clear language so that, without reading the alternatives, a student understands the question. Distractors need to be plausible to students who are not prepared for the exam, but sufficiently incorrect for prepared students. All alternatives should be grammatically consistent and in parallel form with the stem (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Limit “all of the above” and “none of the above” as alternatives, since overuse can cause students to dismiss this option as plausible. The position of the correct answer should be varied and random to avoid patterns and the thought of “if in doubt, choose C.” Finally, format the test for efficient scoring by the instructor (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

True-false questions. True-false questions typically measure only the lowest level of the cognitive domain and provide two alternatives. These questions are easy to construct and can be scored quickly and objectively by an instructor or by a computerized system. Scores on true-false questions are easily influenced by guessing. Marking an item false does not provide any evidence that the student knows the correct information (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013). To improve the validity of true-false questions, the student should identify what would make the statement true.

When constructing true-false questions, use simple sentence structure and vocabulary and keep the statement short. Word the statement clearly and limit the use of negative statements. Use true-false questions with introductory material and avoid clues to answers (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Matching questions. Matching questions also measure the lower knowledge level of the cognitive domain. A test of matching questions commonly includes vocabulary terms and their definitions. A variation of matching questions would ask the learner to classify categories or types. For instance, an accounting student would identify account titles as an asset, liability, or owner's equity. In this case, alternatives are used more than once, increasing the validity of the test. This type of selection response question can be used when testing time is limited. The scoring of matching questions is also easy and efficient for the teacher (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

The format of matching questions is essential. Definitions or questions should be placed in the left column, and brief responses or vocabulary terms in numerical or alphabetical order are in the right column. If the terms are listed in the left column, the student is forced to continuously read each definition in the right column to locate the correct answer, rather than reading only terms each time. In addition, all matching

questions should be on the same page to eliminate distractions and potential student error. And, extra responses can be included or responses may be used more than once (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Supply Type Questions

Supply type questions include questions on tests where the student must construct or supply a response. Common examples are short answer and essay questions.

Short answer questions. Short answer questions require the student to recall a specific piece of information. For instance, a business math problem seeks a calculated answer while a definition asks for its corresponding term. A short answer question may require a few words or a phrase, such as what are the three forms of business ownership. Short answer questions assess lower levels of the cognitive domain (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Short answer questions should be limited in use. One problem in constructing this type of test item is phrasing the question so only one answer is correct. Another shortcoming is the potential for lower reliability when a student's response includes misspellings. The instructor is forced to make a judgment on whether the student truly knows the answer and simply could not correctly spell the word. In an effort to reduce spelling variances, some instructors provide a word bank of possible answers. However, this remedy changes the type of question from a short answer to a matching (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Essay questions. An essay test item is a supply type question, which allows the student more choices in supplying answers. Essay questions assess higher levels of the cognitive domain. For the instructor, the construction of essay questions may take less time than other types of questions, but the evaluation of the responses is time consuming. For the student, essay questions provide opportunities to practice written communication needed for projects in both educational and professional environments. A rubric should be used to score the essay to eliminate subjectivity (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

Two types of essay questions are the restricted-response question and the extended-response question; both are highly valid. The restricted-response question limits the student response to a narrowly defined set of criteria. These types of essay questions can increase the reliability of such questions, but can limit the opportunity for students to analyze and synthesize.

Extended-response questions can give a great deal of freedom to students in answering an essay question. A definitive right or wrong answer may not be required. Rather, a student's ability to organize, integrate, develop, and justify a solution is a major contributing factor in earning full credit. The use of a rubric speeds up the evaluation and increases the reliability of this type of question (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013).

For the reader's convenience, the various types of assessment and tools discussed above have been aligned. (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1. Assessment Matrix

Assessment Tool	Alternative	Performance	Authentic	Formative	Summative	Direct	Indirect
True/False				X	X	X	
Matching				X	X	X	
Multiple Choice				X	X	X	
Essay—Restricted				X	X	X	
Essay—Open Ended				X	X	X	X
Portfolios	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Presentations	X	X	X		X	X	
Role Plays	X	X	X	X		X	
Case Studies	X		X	X	X	X	
Journals	X			X		X	
Reflection	X			X	X	X	X
3-minute Write	X			X		X	X
Learning Log	X			X	X	X	X
Observation Log	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Checklists	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Rubrics	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Grades				X	X	X	
Course/Program Evaluation		X			X	X	X
Performance Evaluation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Checklists

The simplest evaluation tool is a checklist. Instructors can quickly spot check for required elements, such as parts of a letter, sections of a resume, or elements of a balance sheet. The scored checklist provides important feedback to the student. If the checklist is provided to the student prior to submission, the student can self-evaluate the assignment and adjust his or her work. (See Figure 2.)

Figure 2. Sample Simple Checklist

MOCK INTERVIEW CHECKLIST		
Criteria	Yes	No
Professional appearance		
Conveys energy, genuine interest, and enthusiasm		
Demonstrates knowledge of organization and position		
Responds to questions concisely and appropriately		
Conveys how past experiences and current strengths will be valuable and applicable to position		
Utilizes the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Result) technique to answer questions		

Rating Scale

The checklist can be expanded to become a rating scale (Waugh & Gronlund, 2013). The rating scale is useful when instructors wish to begin conveying how well the student provided the required information. (See Figure 3.)

Figure 3. Sample Rating Scale

MOCK INTERVIEW RATING SCALE					
Criteria	High 5	4	3	2	Low 1
Professional appearance					
Conveys energy, genuine interest, and enthusiasm					
Demonstrates knowledge of organization and position					
Responds to questions concisely and appropriately					
Conveys how past experiences and current strengths will be valuable and applicable to position					
Utilizes the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Result) technique to answer questions					

Rubrics

Rubrics provide feedback about the quality of submitted work according to predetermined criteria. The rubric consists of criterion rows and quality level columns. The reviewer looks separately at each criterion (row) and determines which quality level (column) best matches the product. The number of quality levels depends upon the rubric creator's ability to break down the criteria into specific levels. Most rubrics have 3-5 levels. If an evaluator cannot decide between two levels, the criterion should be rewritten for future use. Many times the existing criterion simply needs to be split into two. (See Figure 4.)

Figure 4. Sample Simple Rubric

MOCK INTERVIEW RUBRIC				
Criteria	Score	You're Hired (+3)	Possible Hire (+2)	No Hire (+1)
Professional appearance		Polished attire and suitable for position. Neatly groomed. Confident and polite.	Acceptable attire for position. Neatly groomed. Polite.	Inappropriate attire for position. Disheveled grooming. Impolite.
Conveys energy, genuine interest, and enthusiasm		Smiles and shows excitement in facial expressions, gestures, and voice. Consistent eye contact and leans forward.	Smiles and shows interest in a nervous way. Eye contact exists and sits upright.	Rarely smiles and appears uninterested. Limited eye contact and slumps in chair.
Demonstrates knowledge of organization and position		Knowledgeable about company and position. Asks several questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Limited knowledge about company and position. Asks some questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Not knowledgeable about company or position. Unprepared for interview, asks no questions.
Responds to questions concisely and appropriately		Clear and professional communication skills. Thorough responses to all questions posed.	Sound communication skills. All questions posed are answered, some thoroughly.	Inadequate communication skills. Questions posed are inadequately answered.
Conveys how past experiences and current strengths will be valuable and applicable to position		Past experiences and current skills fit position well. No apparent training needed.	Past experiences and current skills could fit position. Additional training needed.	Past experiences and current skills do not fit position. Considerable training needed.
Utilizes the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Result) technique to answer questions		All elements of STAR are present and developed through concrete examples.	All elements of STAR are present. Concrete and generalized examples are given.	Attempts to use STAR technique. Examples are vague and incomplete.

Rubrics can be expanded, and should be, when the criteria are not of the same importance. In this case, the instructor determines how much weight each criterion is worth in comparison with others. It is best to create the rubric “bottom heavy” which means to list all criteria with a weight of 1 first, followed by all criteria with a weight of 2 next, and so on until all criteria have been weighted. To determine the criterion score earned by the student, multiply the criterion’s weight by the criterion’s quality level assigned points (+3, +2, or +1). For instance as shown in Figure 5 for the criterion of “Professional appearance,” the student earned the “Possible Hire (+2)” quality level. Calculate the score by multiplying the weight of “1” by “+2.” Repeat this process to determine the score for

each criterion. For a student's total score, add the "Score" column. For overall points possible (39), add together the highest score for all criteria $(1*3)+(1*3)+(2*3)+(2*3)+(3*3)+(4*3)$.

Figure 5. Sample Expanded Rubric

MOCK INTERVIEW RUBRIC					
Criteria	Score	Wt.	You're Hired (+3)	Possible Hire (+2)	No Hire (+1)
Professional appearance	2	1	Polished attire and suitable for position. Neatly groomed. Confident and polite.	Acceptable attire for position. Neatly groomed. Polite.	Inappropriate attire for position. Disheveled grooming. Impolite.
Conveys energy, genuine interest, and enthusiasm	3	1	Smiles and shows excitement in facial expressions, gestures, and voice. Consistent eye contact and leans forward.	Smiles and shows interest in a nervous way. Eye contact exists and sits upright.	Rarely smiles and appears uninterested. Limited eye contact and slumps in chair.
Demonstrates knowledge of organization and position	6	2	Knowledgeable about company and position. Asks several questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Limited knowledge about company and position. Asks some questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Not knowledgeable about company or position. Unprepared for interview, asks no questions.
Responds to questions concisely and appropriately	4	2	Clear and professional communication skills. Thorough responses to all questions posed.	Sound communication skills. All questions posed are answered, some thoroughly.	Inadequate communication skills. Questions posed are inadequately answered.
Conveys how past experiences and current strengths will be valuable and applicable to position	3	3	Past experiences and current skills fit position well. No apparent training needed.	Past experiences and current skills could fit position. Additional training needed.	Past experiences and current skills do not fit position. Considerable training needed.
Utilizes the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Result) technique to answer questions	8	4	All elements of STAR are present and developed through concrete examples.	All elements of STAR are present. Concrete and generalized examples are given.	Attempts to use STAR technique. Examples are vague and incomplete.
	26/39 = 67%				

Caution is given in using “total points earned” with a rubric. The instructor should ask, “Does this earned point total actually illustrate what the student knows and can do?” If the answer is yes, record the score. If not, the score and the assignment point totals must be adjusted. Adjust these items before giving the assignment and publishing the rubric for student review.

An alternative to using a point total for a weighted rubric is to provide a grading scale at the bottom of the rubric. Determine how many points are possible if the student recorded a perfect score—don’t forget to multiply the weight by the quality level quantity. This number becomes the top of the grading range. To determine the bottom range score, repeat this process (multiplying the weight by the quality level quantity) for the lowest quality level and add 1. Usually, instructors believe that if all criteria in the lowest quality level are recorded, the student has not passed the assignment. The quality level title such as Unacceptable will verify if this is the case. If so, there is a need to add 1, as this number becomes the lowest possible passing grade. For the grade range within each possible grade, subtract the lowest possible passing score from the highest possible score and divide by the remaining number of grade levels ($39 - 14 = 25 \div 10 = 2.5$). Many times this range is not a whole number. To handle these half points, give the extra points to the middle range for each grade level. The grade percent entered in the gradebook is determined by the institution’s grading scale. (See Figure 6.)

Figure 6. Expanded Rubric with Grading Scale

MOCK INTERVIEW RUBRIC					
Criteria	Score	Wt.	You're Hired (+3)	Possible Hire (+2)	No Hire (+1)
Professional appearance	2	1	Polished attire and suitable for position. Neatly groomed. Confident and polite.	Acceptable attire for position. Neatly groomed. Polite.	Inappropriate attire for position. Disheveled grooming. Impolite.
Conveys energy, genuine interest, and enthusiasm	3	1	Smiles and shows excitement in facial expressions, gestures, and voice. Consistent eye contact and leans forward.	Smiles and shows interest in a nervous way. Eye contact exists and sits upright.	Rarely smiles and appears uninterested. Limited eye contact and slumps in chair.
Demonstrates knowledge of organization and position	6	2	Knowledgeable about company and position. Asks several questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Limited knowledge about company and position. Asks some questions about position, benefits, and duties.	Not knowledgeable about company or position. Unprepared for interview, asks no questions.
Responds to questions concisely and appropriately	4	2	Clear and professional communication skills. Thorough responses to all questions posed.	Sound communication skills. All questions posed are answered, some thoroughly.	Inadequate communication skills. Questions posed are inadequately answered.
Conveys how past experiences and current strengths will be valuable and applicable to position	3	3	Past experiences and current skills fit position well. No apparent training needed.	Past experiences and current skills could fit position. Additional training needed.	Past experiences and current skills do not fit position. Considerable training needed.
Utilizes the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Result) technique to answer questions	8	4	All elements of STAR are present and developed through concrete examples.	All elements of STAR are present. Concrete and generalized examples are given.	Attempts to use STAR technique. Examples are vague and incomplete.
Total Score	26				

GRADING SCALE							
A+	39 points	B+	32 – 33 points	C+	25 – 26 points	D+	18 – 19 points
A	36 – 38 points	B	29 – 31 points	C	22 – 24 points	D	15 – 17 points
A-	34 – 35 points	B-	27 – 28 points	C-	20 – 21 points	D-	14 points

One caution: create a rubric so that the student does not always earn a “medium” score for every criterion. There should be variances among scores for every criterion and for every student.

Scoring Guides

A scoring guide is a combination of a checklist and a rubric and ensures students are graded on whether or not directions were followed as well as the quality of the work. In this case, students are given credit for at least trying to include all the required parts of the assignment. (See Figure 7.)

Figure 7. Truncated Scoring Guide

OFFICE SUPERVISION & MANAGEMENT Book Review Presentation Scoring Guide				Name	
Requirements					
Y	Item		Y	Item	
	Summary Section Provided			Recommendation Provided	
	Connection Section Provided			Reference Information Provided	
	Critique Section Provided			PechaKucha Format is Attempted	
Requirements Section Total = _____					
Rubric					
Criteria	Wt	Score	Commendable (+3)	Acceptable (+2)	Unacceptable (+1)
Dress	1		Business Attire	Business Casual	Casual
Speed	1		Perfect/Near Perfect	Speeds up/Varies	Too Fast/Too Slow
Volume	1		Perfect/Near Perfect	Trails off/Varies	Too Loud/Too Soft
Eye Contact	2		Continuous—only quick peeks at Notes/Slides	Up and down—peeks too often at Notes/Slides	Downcast—reads from Notes/Slides
Visuals	2		Colored Handout; Slide Show	B/W Handout; Picture of Book or Book Itself	None
Content	3		Organized; Examples and Details Provided; Connections Made	Organized; Examples and Details Provided; Connections Attempted	Unorganized; Few or No Examples, Details, or Connections Provided
Total Points					
Requirements Section Total = _____			Rubric Section Total = _____		
Total Points Earned = _____					

DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM ASSESSMENT PLAN

Assessment begins with the end in mind. Instructors must visualize what the student will know and be able to do once the program or any course is completed. The best assessment plan first identifies program outcomes, proceeds to course competencies, and finishes with unit and lesson objectives. Course materials such as software and textbooks should not be determinants of the plan.

Program Assessment

One way to derive program outcomes is to list every fact, skill, or ability the student should know and be able to do upon program completion. This comprised list will inevitably be much too long to serve as the program outcomes. However, relationships will be noted among the listed items. These like items then can be grouped together and ultimately identify the outcomes. The instructor must also determine how the outcomes will be assessed. “What will the end result look like?” “How will we know we have arrived at the end?” “What will we use to show the end result?” A portfolio is an excellent assessment tool for proving a student has met the program outcomes. Knowing what assessment tool will be used may influence the identification of program outcomes. The number of program outcomes must be manageable. With each additional outcome, the amount of work needed to develop, implement, and evaluate early assessments and final program outcomes increases dramatically. Depending upon the scope of the program, five to ten outcomes should suffice.

Sample assessment process. This outlined assessment process described was followed at Kirkwood Community College located in Cedar Rapids, Iowa. The Administrative Management faculty were able to reduce approximately 100 items to 14 program outcomes. As 14 outcomes were too many, the instructors hoped that proceeding through the assessment process would further reduce the number of program outcomes, and that result did in fact occur.

Course matrix. A course matrix was created that showed where each of the outcomes was introduced, practiced, and mastered within the program courses. After this step, two outcomes were dropped as they were found to be more secondary in nature. Some of the courses were also realigned. One outcome was eliminated as a stand-alone because it was infused into all the remaining outcomes. Later, as students created their portfolios, the instructors merged two of the remaining program outcomes. By following the assessment process, the number of program outcomes was reduced from 14 to 10.

Program assessment. Originally, the creation of the portfolio or scrapbook of learning was housed within a course. After a few semesters, it was evident that the program needed a course whose sole responsibility was to require the student to create his or her portfolio. Thus, a course was added to the program curriculum. The formal assessment process which requires data collection, analysis, and recommended changes based upon discovered feedback prompted this change. The program advisory board approved the change.

Over a five-year period, the instructor of the new course continually tightened both the portfolio requirements and its rubric. Any changes were reviewed and approved by the program advisory board. The portfolio provides evidence of student learning accompanied by a narrative. The student presents the portfolio to a panel of advisory board members, school administrators, and faculty members. The portfolio and an outcome reflection are used to determine whether the student is employable. An employable student has mastered the program outcomes and successfully completed the program.

Data collection and analysis. Data was collected throughout the process using early assessments and at the end of the program with the portfolio rubric. For each of the ten program outcomes, two early assessments were identified as direct assessments for which data would be collected. Analysis of data from these 20 early assessments and from the ten program outcomes has ensured that the program stays relevant and provides the impetus to do so.

One result of data collection from an early assessment yielded a curriculum change. After completing the MOS exam, students provided the instructor with results and subcategory scores. The subcategory scores were charted and pointed to where changes were needed to better prepare students for success on the exam. For example, students now label their assignments using Quick Parts rather than just inserting a footer.

Closing the loop via feedback and curriculum change. Closing the loop uses information from data collection and analysis and applies this feedback to curriculum change. Sometimes the change is small. Sometimes, though, the change is large—when the instructors determined that the program portfolio needed its own course. Another large change occurred when a course was divided into two separate courses. The data indicated students needed more instruction in two technical areas; and since a program outcome existed for each, the course became two courses instead.

The reality of program assessment is that there is no end to the process. Instructors are caught in an endless loop of teaching students, assessing student learning, compiling and analyzing data, and identifying needed curriculum changes. Sometimes big changes are identified; others are small. Even if the assessment criteria are met, instructors continually ask, “How can this program, course, or lesson improve?” Thus, the assessment process ensures continuous improvement for the program, course, and instructor.

SUMMARY

Over the years, assessment practices have evolved from the rigid Bell Curve to a fluid assessment loop. The assessment process provides much needed feedback for the student, the instructor, and other stakeholders. Students require feedback, even if it is just the assurance they are on the right track. Instructors need to provide this feedback for each lesson as well as unit, course, and program ending assessments.

Buying into and following the assessment process ensures that not only the student is provided timely and needed feedback, but the instructor also receives feedback. This feedback enables the instructor to continuously improve his or her craft. While the assessment process does not always produce an “aha” moment, it does allow the instructor to embrace continuous improvement by asking, “What can I do better next time?” Analyzing assessment data provides sufficient proof that the business curriculum prepares today’s students for tomorrow’s world, proof that current stakeholders will readily embrace.

REFERENCES

- Cornell University. (n.d.). *Measuring student learning*. Retrieved from <https://www.cte.cornell.edu/teaching-ideas/assessing-student-learning/measuring-student-learning.html>
- Gronlund, N. E. (2006). *Assessment of student achievement*. Boston, MA; Allyn and Bacon.
- Linn, R. L., & Gronlund, N. E. (2000). *Measurement and assessment in teaching*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Office of Student Learning Assessment. (2015). *Examples of direct and indirect measures*. Retrieved from <https://www.csuohio.edu/offices/assessment/exmeasures.html>
- Penn State University. (2014, November). *Differences between testing, assessment, and evaluation*. Retrieved from <http://tutorials.istudy.psu.edu/testing/testing2.html>
- Ronan, A. (2015, April 29). Every teacher’s guide to assessment. *Edudemic: Connecting education & technology*. Retrieved from <http://www.edudemic.com/summative-and-formative-assessments/>
- Spark, S. D. (2015, November 9). Types of assessments: A head-to-head comparison. *Education Week*, 35(12), 2-3. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/section/multimedia/types-of-assessments-a-head-to-head-comparison.html>
- University of Central Arkansas. (n.d.). *Assessment*. Retrieved from <http://uca.edu/assessment/tools>
- Waugh, C. K., & Gronlund, N. E. (2013). *Assessment of student achievement*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Zeliff, N., & Schultz, K. (1998). *Authentic assessment in action: Preparing for the business workplace*. Little Rock, AR: Delta Pi Epsilon.

Providing Differentiated Instruction for Diverse Student Needs

Christina Force
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bloomsburg, PA

The author, editor and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Barbara Washington and Pam Matlock, authors of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

“Diversity in the world is a basic characteristic of human society, and also the key condition for a lively and dynamic world as we see today.”

— Jintao Hu

Today’s schools are embracing the differences all students possess and are attempting to include all students in regular education classrooms when possible. As business education classes are usually elective courses, many students of diverse backgrounds can be found in the typical business education classroom. Diverse backgrounds include students of varying cultures, disabilities, gender, giftedness, language, sexual identity, socioeconomic status, learning styles and personalities. Managing diversity brings with it many challenges, but when done successfully, can be one of the most rewarding experiences for both educators and students. Many differentiated instructional strategies can be incorporated into the business education classroom. Since much of the content taught in business education provides students with real world skills, it is of the utmost importance that all students understand these concepts in order to be successful in life. In addition, students in business education classes learn how to be successful in diverse working environments. Thus, business education teachers must have a thorough understanding of how to address differences within their classroom.

DIVERSITY

Special Education Law

The United Nations recognizes the importance of education for all individuals and has identified education as a basic human right (Florian, 2014). The past decade has brought about significant changes in the United States regarding how students with special needs are educated; in addition, Federal laws have been passed that mandate what schools can and cannot do regarding special education (Bateman & Bateman, 2014). Four laws have had a significant impact on the U.S. educational system: the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA), Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). It is important that business educators have a knowledge of these laws as they will apply them to the students they are instructing. These laws may require the business educator to make accommodations, participate in meetings with administrators, parents and special education personnel to develop individualized education experiences for students, and create transition plans for their students.

The Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) is a federal law that governs how schools in the United States provide education to individuals with special needs. The law was introduced in 1975 with revisions in 1986, 1990, 1997 and 2004 (Osborne & Russo, 2014). IDEA requires that students with disabilities receive a free, appropriate public education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE) that meets the needs of the student. Students are entitled to an individualized education plan (IEP) that is to be reevaluated every three years (Bateman & Bateman, 2014). The purpose of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act is to provide students with disabilities the same educational opportunities as those students without disabilities receive. Students cannot be discriminated against for any physical or mental disabilities that limit a major life activity. This act allows for withholding of federal funds if an institution does not comply with this act (Bateman & Bateman, 2014). The American with Disabilities Act protects the civil rights of those with hearing, visual, physical, or mental disabilities and mandates that they receive access to education (Rothstein, 2015). The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) is a law created during the George W. Bush Administration with the purpose of improving academic performance of all students in elementary and secondary schools. Students must take standardized tests and schools must make adequate yearly progress (AYP). If AYP is not achieved, schools must make adjustments within a given time frame in an attempt to improve school performance (Klein, 2018).

Diverse Learners

Today's classrooms are more diverse than they have ever been. Educators need to understand the characteristics of diverse learners and the challenges that diversity can bring to the educational setting. An educator must utilize well thought-out instructional strategies based on the diversity within their classrooms. Therefore, educators should have a thorough understanding of all the different categories of diversity that exist within their classroom and be able to create a classroom environment that embraces these differences.

Learners with Varying Cultural Diversity. Classrooms continue to be more culturally diverse and a multicultural classroom presents more educational opportunities and challenges than those in which all students are of the same background. Multicultural classrooms can consist of students who vary in ethnicity, language, traditions, and religion. Although there are challenges, diversity brings many instructional opportunities and prepares students for the diverse work environment they will encounter. A classroom that is multicultural in nature requires educators to be knowledgeable about a variety of backgrounds (Chouari, 2016).

Learners with a Disability. Historically, a disability has been considered a physical, emotional, or mental deficiency of an individual. As people have evolved, so has the definition of a disability as “a variation of the human condition, another characteristic among the broad range of traits present in society” (Salsgiver, 2015 p. 21). IDEA classifies the following categories of disabilities: autism, deaf-blindness, deafness, developmental delay, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment, including blindness (Center for Parent Information and Resources, 2017). Traditionally, regular education teachers have been educated on how to teach nondisabled students, but today’s classrooms need to accommodate all students. Additional training for teachers on how to develop instructional strategies and to plan classroom facilities for accessibility will prepare them for teaching learners with disabilities (Mader, 2017).

Learners Dealing with Gender Equity. Males have typically been favored over females when it comes to resources and outcomes (Klein et al., 2014). Gender equity seeks to remove gender gaps and promote equality for all genders. Laws such as Title XI Regulations aim to provide gender equity in education and to remove gender as a basis for discrimination; thus, all students are valued regardless of gender (Klein et al., 2014).

Gifted Learners. Students who are gifted possess an above-average ability, creativity and task commitment. Students are typically deemed gifted if they achieve a certain score on an IQ test. Gifted students have an aptitude or ability in the top 10% of their peers. Regardless of how gifted students are identified, schools must provide programming that enriches their educational experience (Dixon & Moon, 2014).

Learners with Language Diversity. The growth of multiculturalism in society has increased the number of different languages spoken in today’s schools. The influx of immigrants into the U.S. who are learning English can be a challenge for both teachers and students. The ability to communicate is essential and can affect one’s future; therefore, it is vital that teachers are equipped with the skills to teach students a second language (Cook, 2016).

Learners Addressing Sexual Identity and Orientation. Diversity in the classroom continues to grow and take on new meaning as individuals express varying sexual

identities. Individuals can identify with varying sexual orientation and gender identity. Individuals may be attracted to the same sex, different sex or both sexes. Gender identity is how an individual identifies himself/herself as being male, female or transgender. Transgender refers to someone who identifies with a gender other than the one he/she was born. Gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender (GLBT) stands for a group that identifies as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender, and this group has been active in attempting to fight discrimination and deal with issues facing the GLBT community (National Education Association, 2015).

Socioeconomic Status Effects on Learners. Students can come from various socioeconomic statuses—high, middle, and low. Typically, students coming from high and middle socioeconomic backgrounds achieve success in school. Students who live in poverty are more likely to struggle in school. Students being raised in poor households typically have problems getting adequate nutrition and healthcare. Students of low socioeconomic status have a smaller vocabulary, score lower on tests of intelligence and 75% are raised in a single parent household. Lastly, students living in poverty experience chronic stress, which leads to a decrease in academic performance (Jensen, 2013).

Unmotivated Learners. All teachers encounter students who are unmotivated to learn. Such students may have personalities and learning styles that require their teachers to develop instructional strategies addressing their differences. Unmotivated students may just refuse to participate or try to sleep in class while others may be disruptive and disrespectful. Regardless of their actions in school, unmotivated students does not reach their full academic potential, instead underperforming. School dropout rates increase for unmotivated students (Dale, 2016).

Managing Diversity

NCLB has placed an increased emphasis on standardized testing and a way of holding schools more accountable for students' progress. Educators must not forget the diversity within the classroom (Wong, 2015). Recognizing, embracing and managing diversity will only make one's classroom more effective. While business education may be free from specialized tests, administrators still expect business educators to reinforce the skills that are being tested such as critical thinking, problem solving, and processing and producing information. As classrooms adapt to the array of diversity, schools are preparing students who can think critically, solve problems, and process and produce information. Heterogeneity in classrooms should be welcomed and the challenges addressed to provide a meaningful learning experience (Tomlinson, 2015).

As evidenced by the variety of diverse learners, one can see that no two students are the same. Their diversities present a variety of challenges to managing diversity that must be addressed. Teachers often view students as homogenous in order to make their jobs easier, but such an approach marginalizes some students. As teachers attempt to embrace diversity, they may face criticism from the majority (Mistry & Sood, 2015). Teachers must be equipped with the tools to address diversity. If they did not receive

differentiated instruction methodology during their teacher preparation, school districts should provide assistance through professional development (Mader, 2017).

DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION

In order to address diverse learners, educators can use differentiated instructional strategies. The push for differentiation was in response to the passage of IDEA, which required that students with disabilities be included in the regular classroom. Team teaching between special education and general education teachers ensure a student's IEP objectives are achieved (DeJesus, 2012). The strategies used to facilitate inclusive practices were utilized in the instruction for all students. Tomlinson originated the concept of differentiated instruction in 1999. This approach encouraged teachers to analyze the learning styles of their students and apply appropriate teaching methods, curriculum, and learning activities to meet the needs of the students (Gentry, Sallie, & Sanders, 2013).

Traditional vs. Differentiated Classroom

The traditional classroom is typically lecture based with the teacher modeling the necessary skills. The concepts are reinforced through practice; students are tested and they receive a grade. The advantages to traditional methods include consistency and concept sequencing. This “one size fits all” approach discounts student differences and applies a whole class instruction philosophy. Differentiation is a method that meets the varying needs of all students within the classroom; the teacher acts as a facilitator. The advantages of differentiated instruction include meeting the needs of students with learning disabilities, different cultures and languages as well as those with varying learning styles. Students are encouraged to use their creativity and critical thinking skills (DeJesus, 2012).

Universal Design for Learning

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is an instructional strategy that can be applied to curriculum that alleviates the “one size fits all” approach and helps students reach their fullest potential. UDL is an approach that not only helps all students learn, but teaches them how to become expert learners. The UDL concept is based on neuroscience and research indicates that there are three brain networks related to learning—affffective, recognition, and strategic. The goal of UDL is to reduce barriers to learning and design instruction that accounts for the variability within learners (Gordon, Meyer, & Rose, 2014).

UDL is based on three principles which include multiple means of engagement, representation, and action and expression. Principle one is based on affective networks, which is the “why” of learning. This includes providing students with choice, showing relevance, and minimizing distractions. Students have different motivators and providing choices such as working individually or with a group allows them to select their best method of learning. This principle aims to provide learners the opportunity to be purposeful and motivated. Principle two deals with the recognition brain network and

addresses the “what” learn of learning. This principle works to ensure information can be perceived by all learners; thus, the content should be presented in different representations. This principle includes different modalities, which include visual, auditory, and touch that allow information to be adjusted for various disabilities. Learners should be provided with supports that help with vocabulary, syntax, and decoding. Principle three is linked to the strategic network and includes providing multiple means of action and expression which allows variation as to how students show what they have learned. This principle includes goal-setting, progress monitoring, use of a variety of media, and allows students to demonstrate learning through physical action. Students may all have the same learning goal, but the way they master the goal is different. The UDL framework can provide students with a flexible learning experience in order for all students to become successful learners (CAST, 2018).

Differentiated Instructional Strategies

Differentiated instructional strategies can occur in the content, process or product areas of curriculum. The selection of which strategies to apply depends on the readiness of the student and takes into consideration their level and ability. The business education classroom usually consists of students of various abilities, learning styles, and challenges. Teachers applying this strategy may need to prepare multiple lesson plans and activities to meet the needs of all of their students (DeJesus, 2012).

Teachers should keep in mind the five design elements when designing effective teaching. The classroom should be learner centered, knowledge centered, assessment centered, instruction centered, and community centered. A learner-centered classroom respects the diversity of all students, and the teacher believes and communicates that all students can be successful. A knowledge-centered classroom is one in which the teacher creates an engaging classroom that emphasizes a deeper understanding of the content and reflects various cultures and sexes. This understanding of students and their interests is also an important aspect of an assessment-centered classroom. This element requires teachers to use various approaches to learning while aligning assessments with essential content, providing feedback, and using feedback for student success. An instruction-centered classroom continues to emphasize the academic success of each student. This element design focuses on practice, group work, collaboration, and a variety of classroom resources. A classroom that is community centered values each student as an individual and respects and hears every student in the classroom (Tomlinson, 2015). A variety of differentiated instructional strategies utilize the five design elements.

Content, Process and Product

The application of differentiated instruction includes modification of the curriculum in three areas: content, process, and product. Content includes the concepts, knowledge and skills students need to learn; content should be flexible. Process centers on how students learn the content and make sense of what they have learned. During the process, students must reflect on the content. Finally, the product is how students demonstrate their understanding of the content. Teachers should provide different options to allow

students to demonstrate comprehension that may include varied work arrangements, assessments, resources and assignments. (Gentry et al., 2013; Schonfeld, 2014).

Tiered Activities

The tiered activity strategy, which is a content application, instructs students on the same concept, but the complexity varies based on the readiness of the student (Gentry et al., 2013). This technique is beneficial for gifted learners as their activity can be more challenging. Tiered assignments can also be tailored to different multiple intelligences. Students will be using different materials, but teachers should attempt to make those differences inconspicuous so as not to affect the self-esteem of students at lower levels. Regardless of the level, all activities should be engaging (Cox, 2015). Business educators can use this technique to teach economic concepts such as supply and demand. Tier one may consist of students drawing a supply and demand graph. The second tier may require students to explain the shifts and movements of supply and demand. The third tier assignment would include higher-level thinking that requires students to identify and explain elasticity in supply and demand. This example requires all students to learn about supply and demand, but the three tiers have activities based on different levels of student readiness.

Curriculum Compacting

Another content application is curriculum compacting, a technique that identifies what material a student has already mastered through a preassessment. This application allows students to move on to new material and to skip content they already comprehend. The preassessment usually consists of a pretest, but it can also be samples of work or discussion with the student. Curriculum compacting is another useful tool for students who are gifted. These students may become bored working with material they have already mastered, which can actually cause underachievement (National Association for Gifted Children, n.d.). This concept can be implemented in the accounting classroom, for example, as more advanced students skip the easier introductory problems and advance to the more challenging problems and simulations. The key to success with curriculum compacting is that teachers create alternative assignments that challenge the student and allow the student to provide input as to what assignments they would like to complete.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is a process strategy that breaks the class into small groups to complete an assignment. When cooperative learning is implemented correctly, all students participate in the activity and have a thorough understanding of the learning outcomes (DeJesus, 2012). This approach is often used in the classroom, but it is important that all students participate, especially diverse learners. Students such as the unmotivated learner may resist and let the others do the work. Those students for whom English is not their first language may also be hesitant but have the most to gain from such activities, including improved social relationships. Cooperative learning should

include teacher supervision so students stay on task. Groups should be heterogeneous and consist of varying learning abilities. The students should have face-to-face interaction and set group goals to complete the task. All students are responsible for project completion. Rules must be established to ensure students act respectfully and utilize time management skills. Students need to reflect on the activity, and, lastly, teachers should provide students with meaningful feedback (Coffey, 2013).

Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning is a popular product area technique that requires students to solve a real-world problem in order to gain a deeper understanding of the topic. This technique allows students of all levels to collaborate while solving a problem. Students must solve a problem by conducting research and applying their knowledge. In addition, students develop social skills as the teacher acts as a facilitator (Savery, 2015). Business educators use this technique frequently with projects related to entrepreneurship, marketing, finance, and career development. Assignments may consist of students creating a product, starting a business, creating a budget, and hiring employees.

With an increased emphasis on the teaching of Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM) in K-12 schools, the responsibility of teaching technology typically is one of the responsibilities of a business teacher. Project-based learning is a key component of STEM programs where students complete a task by solving multiple problems (Capraro, Capraro, & Morgan, 2013). Project-based learning can be a useful tool as schools attempt to meet Common Core Standards for all learners (Boss & Krauss, 2014).

Learning Contracts

Learning contracts are a technique in which the teacher identifies a skill or objective and provides students with several options from which they can choose to demonstrate mastery with a variety of products. The teacher analyzes the learning styles within the classroom when creating the tasks (Gentry et al., 2013). For example, students in a marketing class may be assigned to create promotional materials for a company. Student options may include: a jingle, sales call, hand-drawn advertisement, computer-generated advertisement, or recorded commercial. These options fit a variety of learning styles, so all students can select an option that best suits them.

Role/Audience/Format/Topic (RAFT)

RAFT encourages creativity in writing and the writer must consider the role of the writer, audience, format, and topic (RAFT, 2018). This strategy encourages writing and requires students to take on a role such as a successful entrepreneur. The first step consists of identifying the audience which, for this example, could be the stockholders of the company. The instructor then creates an assignment that allows students to demonstrate their knowledge about the role. Students could create a memo from the entrepreneur to the board of directors explaining why the company should expand. RAFT can be applied in an accounting classroom as students take on the role of a Chief Financial Officer (CFO) with the audience being external auditors. The topic could require the

CFO to complete the year-end final statements and write an analysis of the financials to share with stakeholders.

Learning Centers

Learning centers are a type of product strategy that utilizes self-directed learning to teach or reinforce concepts. This technique allows a student to work independently or with a partner. Teachers provide students with a variety of activities that fluctuate in difficulty. This technique allows students to work at the appropriate level while selecting activities that appeal to their learning style, thus providing students with a more individualized learning experience. There should be rules that guide learning centers and how students behave when they are working at a center. Centers can be curriculum or thematic based (“New Approach,” 2017). Today’s schools provide students with access to computers, and many schools are moving to a one-to-one initiative in which each student has their own computer or tablet to be used both in and out of school. Learning centers can be Internet based, and these virtual learning centers can provide students with a variety of ways to learn the content. Students can be allowed to choose which activities they want to complete based on interest and levels of difficulty. They can choose which learning center they want to complete based on their interests. A learning center can have a variety of activities. For example, students may be able to select entrepreneurship, the stock market, or budgeting. The activities in each center will provide students with activities that use such tools as web quests, virtual tours, different apps, hyperdocs, and online simulations.

Language Diversity

Many teachers face the difficult task of teaching students who speak another language other than English. Some classrooms are fortunate enough to have assistance instructing this type of student, but many do not. Many teachers see this type of learner as one that requires one-on-one instruction in order for him/her to be successful, but there are techniques that teachers can incorporate into their current methods that will aid learners with language diversity. English as a Second Language (ESL) learners use their prior knowledge to make connections, so using multiple examples for unknown words, visuals, and words that have common roots to both languages can improve connections to the text. Many businesses offer materials, customer service assistance and websites in several different languages. Therefore, a business educator can plan to incorporate assignments based on businesses to provide information in both English and the first language of the learner. Thus an ESL learner can refer to their first language as they seek to make connections. Discussions also help ESL learners develop meaning. Whole-class reading of carefully chosen text, with limits on the amount presented, followed by discussion is beneficial for not only ESL learners but all students. Finally, ESL learners must understand how language is used within disciplines (Symons, 2016). Therefore, business educators should explain the norms and basics of business communication to ESL learners.

Teach the Unmotivated

Every teacher will encounter unmotivated learners, and trying to motivate these learners can be a daunting task. Unmotivated learners may fail not because of a lack of ability, but due to the lack of desire (Washington & Matlock, 2013). Research shows that several key elements can help motivate students. First, a positive **teacher**-student relationship is necessary and can be fostered when the teacher really gets to know and connect with the student. Unmotivated students prefer choice and strategies such as curriculum compacting and tiered activities to have a choice. Generic positive reinforcement usually has little effect if the students know they already possess that ability. Positive reinforcement should be specific and focus on areas students can control. The lesson content should be relatable and applicable to students. If students find the content meaningful and impactful, they will be more motivated (Gonzalez, 2016). For example, when teaching a unit on finding employment, most business educators will have students start with the creation of a resume that documents their skills and experience and is typically thought to be part of the job-search process. Teachers should carefully consider this assignment; do all jobs require a resume? A student may be entering the military, so offering this student the option of researching military recruitment for a branch of service and learning about enlistment criteria may be more relevant.

Equity

Many differentiated instructional strategies can be applied in the classroom, but one aspect will make students of different cultures, languages, disabilities, socioeconomic status, gender and sexual orientation feel valued. That factor is equity. The first step in creating an equity-driven classroom is to truly know each student. Learn about their background, interests, and what makes them unique. As teachers learn about their story, they can begin to understand how they learn. Observing students and noting their strengths and weaknesses will help identify their learning style. Setting high standards will assist in reaching their potential. Being flexible with lessons may find that certain students need individualized attention. Teaching students that failing is nothing to be ashamed of and asking students to share their struggles so they can be an acceptable part of the learning process are positive strategies. Valuing and recognizing culture and students' identities in the classroom as a resource should be utilized as a learning tool (Safir, 2016).

SUMMARY

All teachers face the challenge of diverse learners, but business education teachers in particular may have more diversity in their classrooms because of their subject area and the fact that business courses are typically elective courses. Differentiated instructional strategies can be implemented in the classroom to address an array of learning styles. It is important that teachers tailor instruction to their students' learner styles, but they must also address the other diverse characteristics students possess. Disabilities, gender, sexual identity, sexual orientation, unmotivated learners, culture, language, giftedness, and socioeconomic status are some of the areas that can impact students' learning experience. No longer does a "one size fits all" technique work for the modern classroom that

is filled with diversity. Schools are tasked with more standards and requirements than ever before. Even though teachers may be required to teach to these standards, it does not mean that instruction needs to be standardized. Business educators are providing students with real-world skills that will help them be successful in life, and these educators can use strategies that will assist diverse learners in being successful in the business education classroom.

REFERENCES

- Bateman, D. F., & Bateman, C. F. (2014). *A principal's guide to special education*. Arlington VA: Council for Exceptional Children.
- Boss, S., & Krauss, J. (2014). *Reinventing project-based learning: Your field guide to real-world projects in the Digital Age*. Eugene, OR: ISTE.
- Capraro, R. M., Capraro, M. M., & Morgan, J. R. (Eds.). (2013). *STEM project-based learning: An integrated science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) approach*. Rotterdam, NL: Sense.
- CAST. (2018). *Universal design for learning guidelines: Version 2.2 [graphic organizer]*. Wakefield, MA: Author.
- Center for Parent Information and Resources. (2017). *Categories of disabilities under IDEA*. Retrieved from <http://www.parentcenterhub.org/repository/categories/>
- Chouari, A. (2016). Cultural diversity and the challenges of teaching multicultural classes in the twenty-first century. *Arab World English Journal*, 7(3), 3-17. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol7no3.1>
- Coffey, H. (2013). Cooperative learning. LEARN NC: K-12 Teaching and Learning From the UNC School of Education. Retrieved from <http://web.archive.org/web/20180124182633/http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4653>
- Cook, V. (2016). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Cox, J. (2015). Differentiated instruction strategies: Tiered assignments. *K-12 News, Lessons & Shared Resources By Teachers, For Teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.teachhub.com/differentiated-instruction-strategies-using-tiered-assignments>
- Dale, C. (2016, September 28). Motivating the unmotivated. *Edutopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.edutopia.org/blog/motivating-unmotivated-chelsea-dale>
- DeJesus, O. N. (2012). Differentiated instruction: Can differentiated instruction provide success for all learners? *National Teacher Education Journal*, 5(3), 5-11. doi:10.5430/ijhe.v2n3p28
- Dixon, F., & Moon, S. (2014). *The handbook of secondary gifted education*. Naperville, IL Sourcebooks.
- Florian, L. (Ed.). (2014). *The SAGE handbook of special education: Two volume set*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gentry, R., Sallie, A. P., & Sanders, C. A. (2013). Differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate students with varying needs and learning styles. *ERIC Online Submission*. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED545458>

- Gonzalez, J. (2016, February 20). 5 Questions to ask yourself about your unmotivated students. *Cult of Pedagogy*. Retrieved from <https://www.cultofpedagogy.com/student-motivation/>
- Gordon, D., Meyer, A., & Rose, D. (2014). *Universal design for learning: Theory and practice*. Wakefield, MA: CAST Professional.
- Jensen, E. (2013, May). How poverty affects classroom engagement. *Educational Leadership*, 70(8). Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/may13/vol70/num08/How-Poverty-Affects-Classroom-Engagement.aspx>
- Klein, A. (2018, September 3). No Child Left Behind: An overview. *Education Week*. <https://www.edweek.org/ew/section/multimedia/no-child-left-behind-overview-definition-summary.html>
- Klein, S. S., Richardson, B., Grayson, D. A., Fox, L. H., Kramarae, C., Pollard, D. S., & Dwyer, C. A. (Eds.). (2014). *Handbook for achieving gender equity through education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mader, J. (2017, March 01). How teacher training hinders special-needs students. *The Atlantic*. Retrieved from <https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2017/03/how-teacher-training-hinders-special-needs-students/518286/>
- Mistry, M. M., & Sood, K. K. (2015). Managing diversity in a primary classroom: Challenges for practitioners and school leaders. *Race Equality Teaching*, 33(2), 21-26. <https://doi.org/10.18546/RET.33.2.06>
- Osborne, A. G., Jr., & Russo, C. J. (2014). *Special education and the law: A guide for practitioners*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- National Association for Gifted Children. (n.d.). *Curriculum compacting*. Retrieved from <https://www.nagc.org/resources-publications/gifted-education-practices/curriculum-compacting>
- National Education Association. (2015) *Sexual orientation and gender identity*. Retrieved from <http://www.nea.org/tools/18846.htm>
- New approach to learning centers. (2017). *Scholastic*. Retrieved from <https://www.scholastic.com/teachers/articles/teaching-content/new-approach-learning-centers/>
- RAFT. (2018). *Reading rockets*. Retrieved from <http://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/raft>
- Rothstein, L. (2015). Americans with Disabilities Act and higher education 25 years later: An update on the history and current disability discrimination issues for higher education. *Journal of College and University Law*, 41(3), 531.
- Safir, S. (2016, January 21). Equity vs. equality: 6 steps toward equity. *Edutopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.edutopia.org/blog/equity-vs-equality-shane-safir>
- Salsgiver, R. (2015). *Disability: A diversity model approach in human service practice*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Savery, J. R. (2015). Overview of problem-based learning: Definitions and distinctions. *Essential Readings in Problem-Based Learning: Exploring and Extending the Legacy of Howard S. Barrows*. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Press.

- Schonfeld, R. (2014, March 28). *Differentiated instruction and multiple intelligences: Helping children learn the way they learn best*. Retrieved from <http://www.jewishpress.com/sections/family/parenting-our-children/differentiated-instruction-and-multiple-intelligences-helping-children-learn-the-way-they-learn-best/2014/03/28/>
- Symons, C. (2016). Meeting the needs of linguistically diverse students in the mainstream classroom. *Michigan Reading Journal*, 49(1), 7-16.
- Tomlinson, C. (2015). Teaching for excellence in academically diverse classrooms. *Society*, 52(3), 203-209. doi :10.1007/s12115-015-9888-0
- Washington, B., & Matlock, P. (2013). Providing differentiated instruction for diverse needs. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching of business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 74-85). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Wong, A. (2015, July 08). Life after No Child Left Behind. *The Atlantic*. Retrieved from <https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2015/07/life-after-no-child-left-behind/397937/>.

Classroom Management

Diane Fisher

Sharon Rouse

University of Southern Mississippi

Hattiesburg, MS

Using effective classroom management techniques enhances business instruction and increases student learning. When business teachers demonstrate expectations for appropriate behavior, build relationships in a safe and supportive environment, provide continuous feedback, and include rules, procedures, and consequences for the classroom, the result is an orderly environment for academic learning. This chapter discusses effective classroom management in the 21st-century classroom and in online/virtual environments and describes models of classroom management that result in successful classrooms.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management includes everything a teacher does to organize students, space, time, and materials. Effective classroom management is the most significant part of the curriculum and has been “identified as the single most important factor that governs student learning” (Wong & Wong, 2009, p. 80). Teachers’ actions in their classrooms have more impact than most school policies. “Students cannot learn in a chaotic, poorly managed classroom” (Marzano & Marzano, 2003, p. 6).

Beliefs, Knowledge, and Perspectives

Teachers’ classroom management approaches are often affected by their attitudes and beliefs about classroom management (Caner & Tertemiz, 2015). Accomplished teachers create environments that capture students’ attention and motivate them by planning

work-based activities and professional opportunities that inspire a passion for learning (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2016).

The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) Standards support the belief that teachers are responsible for the learning environment. These model core teaching standards guide what teachers should know and be able to do in today's classroom. INTASC Standard #3, Learning Environments, stated, "The teacher works with others to create environments that support individual and collaborative learning, and that encourage positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation" (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011, p. 12). The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Career and Technical Education Standard IV, Learning Environments and Instructional Practices, stated:

Accomplished CTE instructors encourage their students' ownership of the learning process and engage them further by involving them in the formulation of classroom rules, procedures, and expectations. Teachers manage their learning environments safely and efficiently while developing their students' leadership and teamwork skills. (NBPTS, 2016, p. 51)

Danielson (2007) maintained that teachers must not believe they need to be seen as a friend to establish good relationships with students. Because learners need supportive and safe environments in which to learn, teachers must manage their classrooms effectively to help students reach their full potential.

Frameworks on Effective Teaching

Having a framework for professional practice conveys that teachers are members of a professional community. In Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2007), multiple components and elements of instruction are found within four domains that are aligned to the INTASC standards and supported in a constructivist view of learning and teaching. Framework for Teaching Domain 2: The Classroom Environment includes five components. Danielson (2007) stated, "The classroom environment is a critical aspect of a teacher's skill in promoting learning" (p. 64). Components of the classroom environment include creating an environment of respect and rapport, establishing a culture of learning, managing classroom procedures, influencing student behavior, and organizing physical space (Danielson, 2007).

Classroom management sets the stage for student learning by providing an environment where students feel safe and respected. Teachers create an environment of respect and rapport by the way they interact with students and encourage and cultivate interactions among students. The quality of student-teacher relationships is the foundation for all other aspects of classroom management (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Business teachers convey their caring for students with a firm demeanor and professional atmosphere. While business teachers insist on the highest standards of work and conduct, they must exhibit caring for their students (Danielson, 2007) as they establish a culture of learning.

When both students and teachers reflect the importance of the work undertaken in the classroom, they establish a culture of learning. When students take pride in their work, give their best effort, and engage in the pursuit of value, the teacher has increased respect for their abilities. This respect strengthens the students' commitment to doing excellent work. "These high expectations, which students internalize, are at the heart of culture for learning. When students believe that their teacher has confidence in their abilities, they are willing to work hard to live up to those expectations" (Danielson, 2007, p. 67).

Managing classroom procedures results in an efficiently run classroom and lays the groundwork for student learning. Wong and Wong (2009) commented, "A procedure is simply a method or process for getting things done in the classroom" (p. 168). Procedures are statements of student expectations that allow many different activities to take place during the class period and that increase student on-task time and eliminate classroom disruptions. To help the classroom operate smoothly, successful business teachers set up classroom procedures such as how to enter the classroom, where to find the assignment, how to turn in papers, and what to do in case of absence. Teachers must teach students how to follow procedures by explaining, rehearsing, and reinforcing procedures until they become routine (Wong & Wong, 2009). Behavior problems occur when students do not follow procedures.

When students know the rules they are expected to follow, the consequences they encounter when they break a rule, and the reward they receive for appropriate behavior, the result is a well-managed classroom. Rules, whether general or specific, state behavior expectations and are advantageous in setting and maintaining limits. When managing students who misbehave, teachers should not stop instruction when carrying out consequences. The penalty is issued immediately and quietly while continuing with the lesson. Wong and Wong (2009) contended, "It is the responsibility of the teacher to manage a classroom and to ensure that a task-oriented and predictable environment has been established" (p. 88).

Teachers minimize classroom behavior problems when they are in proximity to their students. Physical environments must be safe and accessible to learning. Furniture should be placed to facilitate group projects and positive traffic flow. Effective teachers make certain that all students can see and hear. Control of the physical environment is also important since business teachers teach students how to use equipment and materials safely.

Effective Classroom Management

Business teachers structure their classrooms and labs around high-performance workplaces. This applied learning environment provides an authentic work setting for project-based learning activities which promote collaborative learning and critical thinking. Additionally, the learning environment is designed to develop students' academic, professional, social, and ethical growth.

Teachers encourage the development of positive behavior when they entrust their students with increased responsibility. A collaborative and stimulating learning environment enhances student learning outcomes and growth. Teachers who remind students to make behavioral decisions in regard to future employability in turn help students achieve their goals. Effective classroom teachers create learning environments that include opportunities for students to work with peers, promote fairness, and recognize and reward quality work.

Effective business teachers model a strong work ethic, establish clear expectations for classroom activities, and set high standards of conduct for their students. They use a variety of tools to manage their classrooms and challenge students with projects that provide real-world experiences (NBPTS, 2016).

MANAGING 21ST CENTURY CLASSROOMS

Effective Approaches that Work

The following list is a compilation of best tips from classroom teachers on the “dos and don’ts” of classroom management (Raffaelli, 2014). Many of the tips are reflective of the strategies discussed in the classroom management section of this chapter.

1. Pick your rules wisely. More rules do not always equate to better behavior.
2. Avoid confronting misbehaving students in front of their classmates.
3. Don’t waste your energy reprimanding every small misbehavior.
4. Keep calm and carry on.
5. Always have a plan in mind for handling misbehavior.
6. Greet your students at the door.
7. Try to look at things from your students’ perspective and be empathetic.
8. Build rapport with your students and show them you care.
9. Confront issues head-on to find a solution.
10. Don’t take it personally when a student lashes out. Treat each day as an opportunity to start fresh.
11. Don’t be afraid to reach out to parents.
12. Ask students questions to help make them feel comfortable.
13. Make your expectations clear from the get-go.
14. Embrace the “Golden Rule” in your class(es).
15. Be consistent in expectations and discipline.
16. Learn to manage transitions smoothly to limit disruption.
17. Don’t get stuck in a singular mode of teaching.

18. Get students engaged and involved in the lesson to prevent disruptions.
19. Tighten up time management and stay organized.
20. Be transparent in your objectives.
21. Incentivize students to work together using rewards.
22. Don't be afraid to ask others for help!
23. Leave your baggage at the door.
24. Show your students that you care about their success.

Ineffective Approaches that Work Against Student Motivation

When students feel negative about a situation, the amount of effort they are willing to put forth is affected. When learning environments are pleasant, students put forth more effort to learn. When teachers lack the ability to make students feel important or significant, the quality of the teacher-student relationship is at stake. "Feelings exist on a continuum that extends from pleasant → neutral (no feelings associated) → unpleasant" (Hunter, 2004, p. 18). While business teachers align their learning environments with real-world scenarios, they must be aware of the power of pleasant and unpleasant feeling tones and make certain they are "proactive on students' motivation rather than being reactive to their lack of it" (Hunter, 2004, p. 18). Many approaches and models describe classroom management procedures that prevent most classroom problems.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT IN ONLINE/VIRTUAL ENVIRONMENTS

For learning to take place, students must be active participants in their course work. Most business technology courses rely on the engagement theory because it provides the framework that builds on students' past learning and synthesizes it for future learning.

Krause and Coates (2008) defined student engagement as the effort and commitment that students apply to learning. Numerous studies provide evidence to support this statement. One study conducted by Chen, Boenink, and Guidry (2010), who used the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) in the United States, found that positive relationships exist between online learning, student engagement, and learning outcomes. Engagement tools in online classes allow students to visually interact, connect, and gain a sense of presence that heightens the experience for those with diverse backgrounds and cultures, who could be anywhere in the world.

Business courses once taught only face-to-face are now successfully being taught synchronously. The voice/visual learning capabilities used with synchronous classes allow teachers to share applications. Limitations on sharing once inhibited hard skill business courses, such as accounting and management, and soft skill courses like business communications, marketing, and conflict management from being offered online.

Controversy can erupt in any learning situation, whether online or face-to-face; therefore, teachers must anticipate it. In most synchronous and face-to-face classes, a

conflict can be defused quickly; but in an asynchronous format, teachers must constantly manage text, which is the main mode of communication. Teachers should establish guidelines for online postings on the first day of class that include writing using facts, not feelings, to lessen student conflicts.

In online teaching, certain class management guidelines can help avoid future challenges. One guideline is for the teacher to be available for face-to-face online meetings. Another is that the teacher must remain neutral under difficult situations and act, not react. Next, video may be used to reduce misinterpretation when presenting or confronting controversial topics. Lastly, students should be required to self-identify when they post online to discussions and/or assignments. Anonymity can foster negative comments that could be offensive to or misunderstood by other class members.

Planning and providing details for students in online business courses will result in positive experiences for students and limited student disengagement and unruliness. The main indicator that online business courses will be successful is when teachers provide class expectations to students. In preparing students for the first day of class, the teacher should require students to complete technology assessments, participate in class orientations, and practice the use of online navigation tools.

Often online teachers are inclined to use all the available tools provided by a learning management platform, which can be confusing to students. A course with assignments properly posted in one appropriate place, which is organized with limited numbers of relevant materials, tools, and navigation tools, lessens confusion and stress for both students and teachers.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND STUDENT BEHAVIOR IN CLASSROOMS AND LABS

Today's students have never been without technology, and most have freedom to use it continuously outside educational settings. Rules about technology use are rarely imposed until students enter a school environment that offers devices. Managing students' device usage and behavior in a classroom or lab is not an easy task; but effective teachers know that to be successful, they must be organized and flexible.

The ideal classroom is one with electronic/computer devices (devices) readily available and integrated into all learning. Business teachers must find a balance in their classrooms and labs by creating a culture of learning for students who use devices as extensions of their brains. This truly blended balance of learning accesses students' knowledge and skills and further provides an element of self-confidence.

Business education teachers, especially preservice teachers, are overwhelmed at the thought of facing a broad spectrum of students in a classroom with different cultures, knowledge levels, socioeconomic statuses, languages, religions, interests, skills, and abilities. They face many challenges in seeking and setting the tone for a well-maintained

teaching environment. How can a business teacher be effective in both classroom instruction and a lab while managing student behavior? Emerging literature bridges theory and practice, giving business teachers guidance in becoming effective classroom managers.

Numerous studies indicate that organization and classroom management significantly influence new teachers in teaching careers (Ingersoll, 2003). “Inadequate training in classroom management during initial teacher preparation programs has been identified as a problem” (Baker, Gentry & Larmer, 2016, p. 22). Disruptive classroom behavior is a significant reason why teachers leave the profession (Ingersoll, 2003). This reason supports a requirement for continued professional development in classroom management, especially for new teachers.

A classroom of students has appropriate and inappropriate behaviors, but the addition of electronic devices increases the challenge. These inappropriate behaviors may occur when students are using electronic devices: copying of software, plagiarism, cheating, hacking, unauthorized access, and theft of school property. The website for The National Center for Education Statistics (n.d.) provides an excellent acceptable-use agreement (as seen in Appendix A) for the Internet and other electronic resources adaptable for any classroom or school. Some points of the agreement are as follows: (a) develop a plan for technology use and provide it to users and those responsible, (b) provide training sessions for parents/guardians and students that include videos, (c) examine the issues of Internet usage, and (d) state clearly to users that ethical rules apply to technology and be sure to enforce them. Appropriate behavior whether with or without the use of devices should be demonstrated to maximize learning (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.).

Burden (2003, p. 3) indicated that teachers improve class management when they have positive social interactions with students and promote active engagement in learning, which encourages self-motivation. A business teacher’s beliefs about discipline and orientation determine how he or she uses and applies theories about behavior. To improve classroom management skills, teachers must seek models and tools that are most appropriate for them, their students, classrooms, and schools. Students need guidelines for device use in labs and classrooms, and the procedures vary based on the ages of the users.

Classroom Rules

Though teachers in device labs teach basic rules such as save often, safely surf, no food or drink, and keep the work station neat, the most effective rules are those that students help create and that invite them to make wise choices as part of the class norms. Berger, Strasser, and Woodfin (2015) wrote that norms should include clear expectations for students in completing complex tasks, using protocols, following directions, and solving problems. Further, for students to be engaged and committed to the norms, these three conditions must be integrated: A sense of competence (I can succeed here);

a sense of community (I belong here); and a sense of choice (I am trusted to make wise choices here) (p. 5).

Deciding how to be an effective manager in a classroom or lab is difficult because business teachers have differing views on what should be done. Disruptive behavior happens, and it can affect teaching and learning. Effective teachers anticipate disruptive behavior and either deflect it or act in an appropriate way. Business teachers agree that creating and maintaining a safe and supportive environment for students is vital to building relationships and creating a positive learning climate.

Classroom arrangement should allow for students to move and interact; allow students to pull their desks together to do small-group work. Teachers should allow space in the classroom to walk around and engage students to participate and ask questions. No matter the tone a student may use, a teacher should always respond respectfully.

Theories and Models for Classroom Management

The classroom environment needs both instructional and behavioral management because several dimensions affect that environment. These dimensions include personality traits, life histories, hard and soft skills, traffic areas, and electronic devices, which all thrive in business education classrooms. Numerous theories provide choices for business teachers and make it difficult for new teachers, especially, to understand the need for their use. These choices lead teachers to align only one or two of the theories with their personal experiences and omit the others. In managing the classroom, a teacher's expectations determine whether the classroom is more teacher centered or student centered.

Embracing a strong classroom environment fits the behaviorist model, and it offers response interventions that create a positive learning environment for students. A behaviorist sees a person's actions controlled through positive and negative reinforcements. The behaviorist view reinforces positive behavior through rewards, but punishes negative behavior that will eventually end. This approach also reduces problems, especially in regard to one student's disruptive behavior, and then rewards student engagement and achievement (Handel, 1978).

Bandura (1977) agreed with the behaviorist theory in that his Social Learning Theory refers to the bridge between behaviorist and cognitive learning theories. The cognitive theory adds mediation between accepting the stimulus and acting on it. Before repeating an action, the behaviorist advocates that individuals may first observe behavior and then meditate on it before repeating it. Further, cognitive processes must be present for observational learning to occur.

Another behavior management model widely used in the classroom is Assertive Discipline, which is teacher centered. This approach, developed by Canter and Canter in 1970, focuses on rewards and punishments. Their emphasis was on catching stu-

dents being good and rewarding them. The Canter and Canter discipline plan instills in students the teacher's expectations and punishments in the form of class rules; then they understand the consequences, whether positive or negative (Canter & Canter, 2001).

Kounin (1970) focused more on establishing, preserving, and protecting student opportunities to learn content than about keeping students under control. His

“withitness” approach is that teachers are so active and present in the classroom that they recognize and identify potential problems before they happen, with potential results of positive relationships with students.

Dreikurs' (1968) Logical Consequences Approach is based on the premise that all students want attention and act accordingly. Effective teachers are identified by their behaviors. Dreikurs placed teachers in three categories: autocratic, permissive, and democratic. Autocratic teachers are forceful and motivate students with outside pressures. Permissive teachers allow students free will without rules to guide acceptable behavior and self-discipline. Democratic teachers are neither forceful nor permissive but provide guidance and leadership. They establish rules and consequences that students learn to understand and choose to abide by based on their own self-control. Contemporary research studies continue to influence teacher-centered and student-centered relationships. One theory is Gordon's (2003) Teacher Effectiveness Training model of classroom management. His model shifts the management of a classroom from teacher to students, empowering them to self-regulate their behavior and be problem solvers.

One established need is that teachers and students seek an atmosphere of learning with mutual respect in which they know expectations and consequences. Theories are tools in a conceptual toolbox that are valuable in managing a classroom. No one theory is “right” and “no best” answer exists, but many approaches can and do work. As the world changes, so do students in classrooms. Teachers must seek the right theories by educating themselves and using those that best fit their personalities.

SUMMARY

Establishing a culture of learning, using best practices, exploring theories, and selecting appropriate ways to engage students in learning are all part of classroom management. Teachers appreciate the need for order and organization. Multiple theories and platforms provide choices for them for teaching in the 21st century classroom. As different platforms become more available to teachers, the greater the need for organizing and maintaining a positive classroom environment. Technology changes teaching and learning. Teachers want to avoid disruptions in their classrooms and labs. Teachers need to revisit conceptual frameworks and determine whether their classrooms are teacher centered or student centered. The more the Internet becomes an integral part of education and the more teachers continue to embrace digital devices, the more individualization and engagement become increasingly an integral part of business education classrooms and class labs.

REFERENCES

- Baker, C., Gentry, J., & Larmer, W. (2016, Summer). A model for online support in classroom management: Perceptions of beginning teachers. *Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice, and Research*, 6(1), 22-37. doi:10.5929/2016.6.1.3
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Berger, R., Strasser, D., Woodfin, L. (2015). *Management in the active classroom* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: EL Education.
- Burden, P. R. (2003). *Classroom management: Creating a successful learning community*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley/Jossey-Bass Education.
- Caner, H., & Tertemiz, N. (2015, May 13). Beliefs, attitudes and classroom management: A study on prospective teachers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 186(155-160), Retrieved from <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042815023587>
- Canter, I., & Canter, M. (2001, June 1). *Assertive discipline: Positive behavior management for today's classroom* (3rd ed.). Seal Beach, CA: Canter.
- Chen, P. D., Boenink, A. D., & Guidry, K. R. (2010). Engaging online learners: The impact of Web-based learning technology on college student engagement. *Computers & Education*, 54(4), 1222-1232.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (2011). *INTASC standard model core teaching standards*. Retrieved from <https://ccsso.org/resource-library/intasc-model-core-teaching-standards>
- Danielson, C. (2007). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Dreikurs, R. (1968). *Psychology in the classroom* (2nd ed.), New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Gordon, T. (2003). *Teacher effectiveness training: The program proven to help teachers bring out the best in students of all ages*. New York, NY: Three Rivers.
- Handel, W. (1978). Reviewed work: *About behaviorism*. by B. F. Skinner. *Contemporary Sociology*, 7(6), 799-800. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/2065746?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents
- Hunter, R. (2004). *Madeline Hunter's mastery teaching: Increasing instructional effectiveness in elementary and secondary schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Ingersoll, R. (2003). *Out-of field teaching and the limits of teacher policy*. Seattle, WA: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy. Retrieved from http://www.cpre.org/sites/default/files/researchreport/821_limitspolicy-ri-09-2003.pdf
- Kounin, J. S. (1970). *Discipline and group management in classrooms*. New York, NY: Holt, Reinhart & Winston.
- Krause, K. L., & Coates, H. (2008). Students' engagement in first-year university. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(5), 493-505. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930701698892>
- Marzano, J. M., & Marzano, J. S. (2003). The key to classroom management. *Educational Leadership*, 61(1), 6-13.

- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). (2016). *Career and technical education standards*. Retrieved from <http://boardcertifiedteachers.org/sites/default/files/EAYA-CTE.pdf>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (n.d.). Appendix A: Sample acceptable use agreement for Internet and other electronic resources. *Forum Unified Education Technology Suite*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2005/tech_suite/app_a.asp
- Raffaelli, L. (2014). Dos and don'ts of classroom management: Your 25 best tips. *Edutopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.edutopia.org/discussion/dos-and-donts-classroom-management-your-25-best-tips>
- Wong, H. K., & Wong, R. T. (2009). *The first days of school: How to be an effective teacher*. Mountain View, CA: Harry K. Wong.

Appendix A

Sample Acceptable Use Agreement for Internet and Other Electronic Resources

(Courtesy of the Rochester School Department, Rochester, New Hampshire)

The [Name of Organization] recognizes the value of computer and other electronic resources to improve student learning and enhance the administration and operation of its schools. To this end, the [Governing Body Name] encourages the responsible use of computers; computer networks, including the Internet; and other electronic resources in support of the mission and goals of the [Name of Organization] and its schools.

Because the Internet is an unregulated, worldwide vehicle for communication, information available to staff and students is impossible to control. Therefore, the [Governing Body Name] adopts this policy governing the voluntary use of electronic resources and the Internet in order to provide guidance to individuals and groups obtaining access to these resources on [Name of Organization]-owned equipment or through [Name of Organization]-affiliated organizations.

[Name of Organization] Rights and Responsibilities

It is the policy of the [Name of Organization] to maintain an environment that promotes ethical and responsible conduct in all online network activities by staff and students. It shall be a violation of this policy for any employee, student, or other individual to engage in any activity that does not conform to the established purpose and general rules and policies of the network. Within this general policy, the [Name of Organization] recognizes its legal and ethical obligation to protect the well-being of students in its charge. To this end, the [Name of Organization] retains the following rights and recognizes the following obligations:

- To log network use and to monitor fileserver space utilization by users, and assume no responsibility or liability for files deleted due to violation of fileserver space allotments.
- To remove a user account on the network.
- To monitor the use of online activities. This may include real-time monitoring of network activity and/or maintaining a log of Internet activity for later review.

- To provide internal and external controls as appropriate and feasible. Such controls shall include the right to determine who will have access to [Name of Organization]-owned equipment and, specifically, to exclude those who do not abide by the [Name of Organization]'s acceptable use policy or other policies governing the use of school facilities, equipment, and materials. [Name of Organization] reserves the right to restrict online destinations through software or other means.
- To provide guidelines and make reasonable efforts to train staff and students in acceptable use and policies governing online communications.

Staff Responsibilities

1. Staff members who supervise students, control electronic equipment, or otherwise have occasion to observe student use of said equipment online shall make reasonable efforts to monitor the use of this equipment to assure that it conforms to the mission and goals of the [Name of Organization].
2. Staff should make reasonable efforts to become familiar with the Internet and its use so that effective monitoring, instruction, and assistance may be achieved.

User Responsibilities

1. Use of the electronic media provided by the [Name of Organization] is a privilege that offers a wealth of information and resources for research. Where it is available, this resource is offered to staff, students, and other patrons at no cost. In order to maintain the privilege, users agree to learn and comply with all of the provisions of this policy.

Acceptable Use

1. All use of the Internet must be in support of educational and research objectives consistent with the mission and objectives of the [Name of Organization].
2. Proper codes of conduct in electronic communication must be used. In news groups, giving out personal information is inappropriate. When using e-mail, extreme caution must always be taken in revealing any information of a personal nature.
3. Network accounts are to be used only by the authorized owner of the account for the authorized purpose.
4. All communications and information accessible via the network should be assumed to be private property.
5. Subscriptions to mailing lists and bulletin boards must be reported to the system administrator. Prior approval for such subscriptions is required for students and staff.

6. Mailing list subscriptions will be monitored and maintained, and files will be deleted from the personal mail directories to avoid excessive use of fileserver hard-disk space.
7. Exhibit exemplary behavior on the network as a representative of your school and community. Be polite!
8. From time to time, the [Name of Organization] will make determinations on whether specific uses of the network are consistent with the acceptable use practice.

Unacceptable Use

1. Giving out personal information about another person, including home address and phone number, is strictly prohibited.
2. Any use of the network for commercial or for-profit purposes is prohibited.
3. Excessive use of the network for personal business shall be cause for disciplinary action.
4. Any use of the network for product advertisement or political lobbying is prohibited.
5. Users shall not intentionally seek information on, obtain copies of, or modify files, other data, or passwords belonging to other users, or misrepresent other users on the network.
6. No use of the network shall serve to disrupt the use of the network by others. Hardware and/or software shall not be destroyed, modified, or abused in any way.
7. Malicious use of the network to develop programs that harass other users or infiltrate a computer or computing system and/or damage the software components of a computer or computing system is prohibited.
8. Hate mail, chain letters, harassment, discriminatory remarks, and other antisocial behaviors are prohibited on the network.
9. The unauthorized installation of any software, including shareware and freeware, for use on [Name of Organization] computers is prohibited.
10. Use of the network to access or process pornographic material, inappropriate text files (as determined by the system administrator or building administrator), or files dangerous to the integrity of the local area network is prohibited.
11. The [Name of Organization] network may not be used for downloading entertainment software or other files not related to the mission and objectives of the [Name of Organization] for transfer to a user's home computer, personal computer, or other media. This prohibition pertains to freeware, shareware, copyrighted commercial and non-commercial software, and all other forms of software and files not directly related to the instructional and administrative purposes of the [Name of Organization].

12. Downloading, copying, otherwise duplicating, and/or distributing copyrighted materials without the specific written permission of the copyright owner is prohibited, except that duplication and/or distribution of materials for educational purposes is permitted when such duplication and/or distribution would fall within the Fair Use Doctrine of the United States Copyright Law (Title 17, USC).
13. Use of the network for any unlawful purpose is prohibited.
14. Use of profanity, obscenity, racist terms, or other language that may be offensive to another user is prohibited.
15. Playing games is prohibited unless specifically authorized by a teacher for instructional purposes.
16. Establishing network or Internet connections to live communications, including voice and/or video (relay chat), is prohibited unless specifically authorized by the system administrator.

Disclaimer

1. The [Name of Organization] cannot be held accountable for the information that is retrieved via the network.
2. Pursuant to the Electronic Communications Privacy Act of 1986 (18 USC 2510 et seq.), notice is hereby given that there are no facilities provided by this system for sending or receiving private or confidential electronic communications. System administrators have access to all mail and will monitor messages. Messages relating to or in support of illegal activities will be reported to the appropriate authorities.
3. The [Name of Organization] will not be responsible for any damages you may suffer, including loss of data resulting from delays, non-deliveries, or service interruptions caused by our own negligence or your errors or omissions. Use of any information obtained is at your own risk.
4. The [Education Agency Name] makes no warranties (expressed or implied) with respect to:
 - the content of any advice or information received by a user, or any costs or charges incurred as a result of seeing or accepting any information; and
 - any costs, liability, or damages caused by the way the user chooses to use his or her access to the network.
5. The [Name of Organization] reserves the right to change its policies and rules at any time.

User Agreement

(to be signed by all adult users and student users above grade 5)

I have read, understand, and will abide by the above Acceptable Use Policy when using computer and other electronic resources owned, leased, or operated by the [Name of Organization]. I further understand that any violation of the regulations above is unethical and may constitute a criminal offense. Should I commit any violation, my access privileges may be revoked, school disciplinary action may be taken, and/or appropriate legal action may be initiated.

User Name (please print)

User Signature

Date

Parent Agreement

(to be signed by parents of all student users under the age of eighteen)

As parent or guardian of [please print name of student], I have read the *Acceptable Use Policy*. I understand that this access is designed for educational purposes. [Name of Organization] has taken reasonable steps to control access to the Internet, but cannot guarantee that all controversial information will be inaccessible to student users. I agree that I will not hold the [Name of Organization] responsible for materials acquired on the network. Further, I accept full responsibility for supervision if and when my child's use is not in a school setting. I hereby give permission for my child to use network resources, including the Internet, that are available through [Name of Organization].

Parent Name (please print)

Parent Signature

Date

Source: https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2005/tech_suite/app_a.asp

Teaching in the Online Classroom

Lisa Gueldenzoph Snyder

Sherrie Drye Cannoy

North Carolina A&T State University

Greensboro, NC

Teaching online is challenging. In addition to the content preparation and lesson planning that is normally required to create effective in-person learning experiences, instructors who teach online must consider many additional factors that impact effective teaching and learning. Online instructors need to understand the features of their learning management system, organize the content and structure the course so it makes sense from the learner's perspective, and integrate engaged and meaningful interaction with students through technology. This chapter explains the evolution of online education and then helps instructors who teach online by identifying methods to create engaging learning environments, to select effective learning tools, to manage the unique aspects of online learning, and to continually improve online courses.

UNDERSTANDING THE EVOLUTION OF ONLINE EDUCATION

The proliferation of online education is evident at all levels—as supplemental learning in primary grades, diploma courses at high schools and community colleges, certificate and degree programs at postsecondary institutions and colleges/universities. Career development at the graduate level as well as industry and corporate training opportunities also use online education. And the number of online courses is growing. During the last decade, although the overall number of students enrolling in postsecondary institutions declined, the number of students taking online courses increased, which underscores a growing need for effective online education opportunities (Gray, 2013). Some estimates suggest that online courses are increasing by 10% or more each year at U.S. colleges and

universities (Forte, Schwandt, Swayze, Butler, & Ashcraft, 2016). Others predict that online education “will continue to expand until it one day encompasses the majority of higher education course offerings” (Nash, 2015, p. 80). In fact, experts estimated that half of all postsecondary courses would use some form of online instruction by 2019 (“Top 10,” 2013). Clearly the question is no longer *whether* online courses and programs should be delivered but *how* to best deliver and support them (Pittaway & Moss, 2014). This section provides a foundation for that context by defining online education and outlining its evolution.

The Definition of Online Education

The Online Learning Consortium, Inc. defined an online course as follows: “All course activity is done online; there are no required face-to-face sessions within the course and no requirements for on-campus activity” (Sener, 2015, p. 1). Purely online courses eliminate geography as a factor in the relationship between the student and the institution. They consist entirely of online elements that facilitate the three critical student interactions: with content, the instructor, and other students.

In this sense, the traditional classroom is *simulated* in an online environment that is shared from a distance by the instructor and the students. This distance was first experienced through correspondence courses that date back to 1728 when Caleb Phillips advertised weekly shorthand courses in the *Boston Gazette*. Phillips would mail the weekly lessons to people who lived outside the city and could not travel to Boston to participate in classes (Bower & Hardy, 2004). As the *first* content area to be delivered at a distance, business education has a rich history in online education.

The Evolution of the Online Classroom

Throughout the 1800s and early 1900s, correspondence courses grew in popularity, and universities began offering their own online learning opportunities to reach broader audiences. With the advent of radio broadcasts in the 1920s and television programming in the 1950s, instruction at a distance took advantage of the new delivery systems to provide enhanced learning experiences (Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001). These enhancements increased through instructors’ use of personal computers, teleconferencing, videoconferencing, and web-based applications. Today’s online courses integrate a wide variety of instructional resources and activities that students can access from anywhere and at any time. Many of these resources are created by textbook publishing companies, both to support the growing number of online courses and programs and to supplement learning experiences for traditional on-campus courses. Examples include Pearson Education’s MyLab products and McGraw-Hill’s Connect platform, both of which provide homework, tutorial, and assessment resources for a wide variety of content areas.

MOOCs (massive open online courses) gained initial popularity when they were introduced in 2008 as a collaborative learning resource, specifically for technical-related content (Pappano, 2012). Today, MOOC providers such as edX, Coursera, and Udacity

offer free continuing education support for a wide variety of topics and disciplines, usually with no enrollment caps. However, most MOOCs do not support course credit even when offered by colleges and universities. Because of the volume of students enrolled in a MOOC, instructors are able to provide little if any individual attention, although some MOOCs offer study groups or forums (Pappano, 2012). MOOC providers such as Khan Academy use lecture videos as the primary medium; however, they also include readings, practice exercises, and quizzes. These resources can make MOOCs an effective supplemental content resource for both online and on-campus courses (Dalsgaard & Thestrup, 2015).

Whether through instructor-created content, textbook resources, or supplemental websites, online education can take many forms—examples include distance education, virtual education, online learning, e-learning, and web-enhanced learning. Different forms use different levels of online experiences, such as hybrid courses that require both online and in-person experiences. Regardless of the format, one thing is clear—online education is an integral part of learning experiences for today's students. In fact, "online education is now studied separately from the general field of education in many aspects due to its distinctive characteristics" (Patiniotaki, 2016, p. 175). Most notably, these characteristics include the need to incorporate instructional activities that support asynchronous teaching and learning as well as technology tools that enable effective synchronous interaction.

CREATING ENGAGING ONLINE LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

Retention and persistence rates in online courses are more problematic than in traditional on-campus courses for a variety of reasons (Clark, Strudler, & Grove, 2015). In some cases, these reasons relate to family and work constraints that are more challenging for adult learners than for traditional-aged students. However, both groups can struggle with the time management requirements of online courses. Regardless of the obstacles, research documents that student engagement in an online course significantly contributes to student success (Lee, Pate, & Cozart, 2015). If online students feel engaged with the instructor, the content, and other students in the course, they are more likely to work through the challenges and successfully complete the course. Several variables significantly affect students' perceptions of interaction and satisfaction in online courses: effective course design, the instructor's presence, and the combination of both instructor-student dialog and student-student dialog (Eom & Ashill, 2016; Pappano, 2012).

Effective Course Design

To support student success, instructors should structure and organize their online content so students are able to easily find course information and resources. To aid in managing online course materials, resources, and tools, most schools adopt a web-based learning management system (LMS) that stores course materials and grades as well as other resources that are made accessible to students. Some of the most popular and well-established educational LMS platforms are Schoology, Edmodo, Brightspace

(formerly D2L), Blackboard, and Moodle (“15 Popular,” 2018; Pappas, 2014). Even business, industry, and government entities have adopted LMS options for training purposes (Pappas, 2015). All LMS platforms generally offer many of the same tools and features. Beyond the standard features of posting course materials and grades, most LMS platforms provide the following tools.

- Attendance tracking.
- Interaction through discussion boards.
- Website links.
- Video posting.
- Mashups to add content from YouTube, Lynda.com, and textbook publisher resources.
- Blogs, wikis, and other collaborative learning spaces.
- Instructor-created group spaces that simplify group grading.
- Test creation, including randomizing test questions and creating different types of test questions.
- Automatic grading of tests and quizzes.
- Video monitoring during tests.
- Instructor feedback links to assignment files and assessment scores.

Some online-only institutions create LMS-based templates that all online faculty must use to ensure consistency in design for all courses. However, most traditional institutions that support both on-campus and online courses give instructors the academic freedom to design their courses as they deem appropriate to meet their specific course objectives. However, if the instructor is not engaged in the teaching/learning experience, even the most effectively designed online course will not overcome the negative impact that the lack of interaction has on the students’ outcome.

Instructor’s Presence in the Online Classroom

In an online learning environment, the instructor’s “presence” is defined from the students’ perspective and is based on whether the instructor is perceived as being actively involved in the day-to-day experience of the online course. The concept of presence is based on the Community of Inquiry (CoI) by Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000) that balances the elements of social presence, teaching presence, and cognitive presence. First, social presence is based on personal characteristics—do the students perceive the instructor as a real person? How is this accomplished? One example is posting short video announcements that let students get to know the instructor as a person. Another is sending individualized student feedback that encourages personalized exchanges between the instructor and student. Teaching presence is linked to the instructional de-

sign. What does the course format communicate about the instructor? Is it orderly and easy to navigate? Does it use different font colors and images? Or is it convoluted, text heavy, and monotonous? Finally, cognitive presence is how meaning is created through communication with others. To accomplish this goal, the instructor must be an active and engaged participant in discussion forums and in regular (weekly) feedback to each student.

Instructor-Student and Student-Student Dialog

In addition to presence, online instructors must ensure that consistent and effective dialog is supported not only between the instructor and each student but among the students as well. One method of creating student-student dialog is through constructivist learning projects.

If educators ascribe to the social constructivist learning theory, then helping students interact with one another around meaning-making with course content should be at the center of successful teaching and learning. . . . focus on interactivity that motivates and engages students in learning with and from each other in the online classroom is a worthwhile pursuit. (Moreillon, 2015, p. 46)

Research supports constructivist learning as an effective instructional tool for online courses (Forte et al., 2016; Mbati & Minnaar, 2015). It requires four criteria—eliciting prior knowledge, creating cognitive dissonance, applying new knowledge by interpreting and modifying prior knowledge with feedback, and reflecting on learning.

As an example, video interaction can be supported through podcasting or video discussion posts. Students could record two-minute video posts on a selected topic and then post written responses to at least two other students' video posts. This form of interaction builds on traditional constructivist theory by blending social presence to create "a social constructivist learning community" that is based on academic dialog among students as well as with the instructor. Interaction requires regular feedback from the instructor to connect students to the learning. The LMS feature of the online course or external resources such as Google Hangout conferences or mini podcasts using Yodio can facilitate feedback (Bryant & Bates, 2015).

Additionally, group projects engage students in the content as well as with each other in collaborative learning experiences. Although group work in online courses can be challenging because of the distance between team members (Ekblaw, 2016), collaboration is an important element to support engaged learning. In today's collaborative and increasingly global work environment, online teams are critical to the success of most organizations. In addition to providing standard tips about how to collaborate, instructors should help online students practice their conflict resolution, project management, and problem-solving skills. And they should provide tools and resources to help students collaborate effectively online. Many LMS platforms support group work spaces, file sharing, and other collaboration tools, as do external tools such as Dropbox (file

sharing), MindMeister or Wiggio (idea sharing), Cacao (diagramming), and conferencing tools such as Google Hangout, Skype, or Zoom.

SELECTING EFFECTIVE LEARNING TOOLS FOR ONLINE COURSES

Multimedia content such as images, infographics, animation, videos, and diagrams are much more engaging and often capture students' interest more deeply than reading text alone (Bingham & Reid, 2016). However, multimedia content must be integrated strategically to enhance students' learning rather than distract their attention. In *Multimedia Learning*—a seminal text that still provides relevant insight today—Mayer (2001) outlined several principles for effectively integrating visual elements to engage students. The guiding principle is that when students have little or no knowledge of a topic, multiple alternatives of learning or practicing the content are critically important to ensure understanding. These multiple alternatives require resources.

Fortunately, online instructors have access to many resources that provide content and supplemental instruction to support both their traditional courses and their online courses (Kumar 2015). Selecting the right tools takes time and effort to ensure that the resource meets the objectives of the course and the needs of the students (Murray, 2012). The following sections outline recommended websites as starting places for finding and using existing content, creating videos and screen captures, developing new course material, and integrating polling applications.

Precreated Videos

Instructors do not have to *reinvent the wheel* to integrate effective videos and other online resources in their online courses. Several well-produced educational videos and tutorials can be linked directly from any learning management system to supplement specific business education content. Resources include Ted Talks (<http://www.ted.com>), Khan Academy tutorials (<https://www.khanacademy.org/>), and Lynda.com resources, just to name a few. Although instructors need to carefully review the content, videos from YouTube (<http://www.youtube.com>) can provide useful resources as well. Additionally, instructors can create their own YouTube channels to post self-made videos.

Video Creation and Screen Capture

Computer application courses and other skill-based courses benefit from screen capture tools that are easy to use and sometimes free. For example, Jing (<https://www.techsmith.com/jing.html>) supports free screen capture videos if they are under five minutes in length. For longer videos, fee-based applications include SnagIt (<https://www.techsmith.com/screen-capture.html>) and Camtasia (<https://www.techsmith.com/camtasia.html>). And if using a YouTube channel is not preferred, Jing, SnagIt, and Camtasia videos can be stored and published at Screencast (<https://www.techsmith.com/screencastcom.html>) free of charge for up to two gigabytes of storage.

Course Material Creation

Many textbook publishing companies provide web-based course material that either can be integrated into an institution's LMS or can be linked from the LMS to the publisher's learning platform, such as MyLab or Connect. In some cases, the publisher's content may be enough to meet instructional needs. In other situations, additional material is often needed. Instructors are encouraged to investigate these resources to create their own online course materials:

- SonicPics (<http://sonicpics.com/>): create slideshows that incorporate narratives and photos. SonicPics files can be published to YouTube and are available on iTunes.
- Glogster (<http://edu.glogster.com/>): create interactive multi-media posters.
- Present.me (<https://present.me/content/>): a free resource for creating presentations to support lectures.
- MindMeister (<https://www.mindmeister.com/home/index/v1>): a mind-mapping and brainstorming tool that can be useful to support collaborative projects.
- QR Code Generator (<http://www.qr-code-generator.com/>): create your own QR Codes to provide students with easy access to information, quiz answers, websites, and other materials.
- ClassMaker (<https://www.classmarker.com/>): a free test creation tool that supports up to 100 online tests per month.
- Gnowledge (<http://www.gnowledge.com/>): supports a wide-range of features, such as creating, publishing, and sharing assignments and tests with students and other teachers.
- Logic puzzles (<http://www.logic-puzzles.org/>) are a good way to practice critical thinking skills.
- Office 2013 (and newer versions): embeds applications within Word, Excel, and PowerPoint to help create online content. For example, WordClouds, QR and bar codes, online videos, and pictures can be embedded, as well as inserting online icons and screenshots. PowerPoint offers screen recording to create narrated shows with screen capture.

Polling Applications

Polling applications can be an effective way for instructors to engage students in the content while also gaining valuable formative feedback. Poll Everywhere (<https://www.pollerywhere.com/>) supports up to 25 responses per poll, but both Survey Monkey (<https://www.surveymonkey.com/>) and QuestionPro (<http://www.questionpro.com/>) are free up to 10 questions and 100 responses each. Additionally, Survey Monkey can be embedded in a document file with an application through the Office product store.

MANAGING THE UNIQUE ASPECTS OF ONLINE COURSES

Accessibility and academic integrity are two issues that create unique challenges for online instructors. Learning tools should be chosen for pedagogical use but also for accessibility options. Students with visual, hearing, and special physical needs must be able to fully participate in the course, and tools that are accessible will provide options for these students. Instructors also must attend to the increased potential for academic integrity violations. The opportunity for cheating in online courses is persistent due to the nature of the format.

Accessibility Issues

Examining accessibility issues in the online environment is not only important but is required by law under the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990. Students with disabilities must be provided with accommodations for technology that is not accessible. Fortunately, many alternatives are available to enable students with disabilities to function in online courses. When selecting online learning tools, instructors must consider Universal Instructional Design. Will *all* of their online students be able to see, hear, and effectively use the required learning tools? Online courses may be obvious choices for students with physical challenges that do not allow them to easily participate in on-campus courses. However, other challenges make online courses much more difficult for some students, such as those with hearing or vision impairments. The availability of technologies to support these students is increasing, e.g., software applications that create subtitles in videos for deaf and hard of hearing students as well as audio description software that provides narration of visual content for blind and visually impaired students. Examples include JAWS and speech recognition such as Dragon, Panopto, Tegrity, MediaSite, and Echo306. Other suggestions for making content accessible to students include the following:

- Add alternative text for images so that screen readers can read the text rather than the images.
- Be aware of the use of colors because of students who may be color blind; employ other methods besides color to signify meaning (such as bold, underline, italics).
- Be wary of using animated text which could be an issue for individuals with seizures.
- Use consistent navigation.
- Add heading levels, lists, and tables so that screen readers can identify these as such for visually impaired users.
- Include row and column headings in tables.
- Give meaningful hyperlink text.

The World Wide Web Consortium's (W3C) Web Accessibility Initiative is the most prominent effort to establish guidelines that create equal access to the Web (see <https://www.w3.org/WAI/>). Its *Guidelines for Accessible Design in Online Education* provides clear expectations and outlines resources (Patiniotaki, 2016). Another helpful guide for

designing materials for accessibility is from Portland Community College and can be found at <http://www.pcc.edu/resources/instructional-support/access/>.

Academic Integrity Issues

Instructors can use traditional methods to protect the integrity of face-to-face classes during tests to prevent cheating, such as using different versions of a test, seating students away from each other, requiring that book bags and cell phones be stored away from students' desks, and visually monitoring the room during tests. However, online courses present different challenges and require different methods. Advances in technology for online learning also enhance electronic cheating methods for students. Students can easily cheat on assignments and tests, particularly in courses that involve computer-based skills. Students often use technology glitches as reasons that their work should be accepted late. They may purposely create technological glitches and email screen shots displaying their lack of Internet access or other errors. Poullet, Chawdhry, Douglas, and Pinchot (2016) described the following as cheating methods used by students in online courses:

- Plagiarizing references.
- Using “braindump” websites such as Course Hero, Cramster, Koofers, and Study Blue that allow students to upload and share course materials such as test questions, answers, and completed assignment files.
- Paying a fee for someone to complete assignments for them or take a course for them through websites such as WeTakeYourClass.com or BoostMyGrade.com.
- Selling/buying test questions or course materials on eBay (Howell, Sorenson, & Tippets, 2010).
- Waiting to provide questions/answers to students who took the test at an earlier time (when the test is made available for an extended period of time).
- Searching the Internet while taking an online exam.
- Printing screen shots or taking pictures of test questions to share with others or to use during a second attempt at a test.
- Using cell phones to search for answers during a test.
- Using multiple devices during proctored exams (cell phone, tablets) if lock down browser software is implemented.

Measures for combatting cheating on assignments and tests have improved through modern technology. Many LMS options include features to check for plagiarism, and external resources are often available as well, such as TurnItIn.com. If students submit oddly phrased or uncharacteristically worded assignments, a search online for those short phrases may reveal a plagiarized resource. Additional systems provided by textbook publishers, such as MyITLab, will catch academic integrity violations. For example, in Pearson's MyITLab, a student who downloads a file to complete will need to upload

the file back into MyITLab to be graded. If MyITLab grades the file and the student has used another person's file, even if it has been edited, or has copied and pasted from another student's file, the file will be marked with an academic integrity violation. Such systems provide student clickstream data so that instructors can confirm certain technical glitches reported by the student.

Instructors can use other methods to prevent cheating on tests in an online course. One is to verify the identity of the student by requiring them to send a picture of a photo ID before accessing tests. Webcams and software such as Respondus LockDown can deter students from using additional resources during online tests as the software requires the student to use a webcam to video their surroundings and actions during a test (Nash, 2015). However, some studies have found little difference between the performance scores of students who utilized webcam proctoring and those who did not (Hylton, Levy, & Dringus, 2016), though proctored students in the Hylton et al. study took less time to complete their tests. Instructors can customize test options in most LMS platforms. Instructors can use different types of test questions, generate random questions for each student from pools provided by textbook publishers, set timed tests to eliminate extra time to look up answers, prevent printing of the test questions, display questions one at a time, and use a mix of questions such as short answer/essay in addition to objective questions. Instructors also may want to provide students with only their test scores at first and wait to display any feedback or correct questions until after the due date. This method will prevent students from seeing the questions if they need to take the test a second time (due to technical glitches, for example) (Paullet et al., 2016).

CONTINUOUSLY IMPROVING ONLINE COURSES

Three aspects of the online course need to be evaluated to ensure continuous improvement: (a) the online instructor, (b) the online environment (e.g., learning management system), and (c) the support systems that enables the student to register for classes, review their schedules, and pay their tuition bills. Evaluation should be both quantitative and qualitative (DeCosta, Bergquist, Holbeck, & Greenberger, 2016). Additionally, administrative support is critically important to the success of online courses and programs (Holt, Palmer, Gosper, Sankey, & Allan, 2014). Only through administrative support can online instructors gain the financial resources to purchase and update effective learning management systems, ensure efficient hardware and infrastructure, and gain professional development opportunities.

Online courses experience low success and completion rates. In a study about student completion, Crossley, McNamara, Paquette, Baker, and Dascalu (2016) found methods of improving completion rates for large online courses. Since attrition is high, Crossley et al. examined the use of tools for clickstream analysis and natural language processing to determine what factors might affect success of completion. For clickstream analysis, student access of content such as lectures, videos, forums, forum reputation (likes/dislikes of posts), page views, and access to assignments were analyzed. For natural language processing (NLP), several tools (WAT, TAALES, TAACO, ReaderBench, and SÉANCE) were used to examine forum posts of 50 words or more for text structure, co-

hesion, sophistication, sentiment (positive and negative terms, for example), and learner comprehension. When combining clickstream and NLP analyses, Crossley et al. found that these variables were most predictive of course completion:

- More weekly lecture views.
- How early students submitted assignments.
- Post length and quality (sophistication and cohesion between posts, and word certainty).
- More activity in forums.

Many LMS platforms generate reports that measure student interactivity in the content areas, and these reports could be used to evaluate student completion of online courses. Incorporating these areas into course requirements may increase the chances of student engagement and completion of online classwork.

SUMMARY

Teaching online is challenging but can also be very rewarding. Instructors who learn effective methods to engage students in online courses not only provide diverse learning experiences for their institutions but also enhance the educational opportunities and geographical boundaries of their prospective students. Online education encompasses many forms of delivery; but in each variation, the need to actively engage students is critically important to support their success—engagement with the content, engagement with the instructor, and engagement with other students in the course. This level of engagement can be accomplished through effective course design, by deliberately and intentionally defining the instructor's presence in the online classroom, and by requiring student-to-student dialog about meaningful content. With the use of effective online resources and tools, and by managing the unique aspects of online courses, online instructors can ensure an effective learning environment and continually improve their courses as new technologies become available.

REFERENCES

- Association for Educational Communications and Technology. (2001, August 3). *The handbook of research for educational communications and technology*. Retrieved from <http://www.aect.org/edtech/ed1/13/13-02.html>
- Bingham, T., & Reid, S. I. (2016). Paint me a picture: Translating academic integrity policies and regulations into visual content for an online class. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 12(2), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-016-0008-8>
- Bower, B. L., & Hardy, K. P. (2004, Winter). From correspondence to cyberspace: Changes and challenges in distance education. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 128, 5–12. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cc.169>
- Bryant, J., & Bates, A. J. (2015, March/April). Creating a constructivist online instructional environment. *TechTrends*, 59(2), 17–22.

- Clark, C., Strudler, N., & Grove, K. (2015). Comparing asynchronous and synchronous video vs. text based discussions in an online teacher education course. *Online Learning*, 19(3), 48–69.
- Crossley, S., McNamara, D., Paquette, L., Baker, R., & Dascalu, M. (2016). Combining click-stream data with NLP tools to better understand MOOC completion. *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Learning and Analytics Knowledge* (pp. 6-14). Edinburgh, UK: Learning Analytics and Knowledge Conference. doi: 10.1145/2883851.2883931.
- Dalsgaard, C., & Thestrup, K. (2015, November). Dimensions of openness: Beyond the course as an open format in online education. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 16(6), 78–97.
- DeCosta, M., Bergquist, E., Holbeck, R., & Greenberger, S. (2016, July). A desire for growth: Online full-time faculty's perceptions of evaluation processes. *The Journal of Educators Online-JEO*, 13(2), 19–52.
- Ekblaw, R. (2016). Effective use of group projects in online learning. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 9(3), 121–127.
- Eom, S. B., & Ashill, N. (2016, April). The determinants of students' perceived learning outcomes and satisfaction in university online education: An update. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education*, 14(2), 185–215. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dsji.12097>
- 15 popular learning management systems: Which one is the best? (2018, July 23). *FinancesOnline*. Retrieved from <https://financesonline.com/15-popular-learning-management-systems-one-best/>
- Forte, G. J., Schwandt, D. R., Swayze, S., Butler, J. & Ashcraft, M. (2016). Distance education in the U.S.: A paradox. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 17(3), 16–30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17718/tojde.95102>
- Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2000). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 2(2-3), 87–105. doi:10.1016/S1096-7516(00)00016-6}
- Gray, D. (2013). Barriers to online postsecondary education crumble: Enrollment in traditional face-to-face courses declines as enrollment in online courses increases. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 6(3), 345–348. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1073229>
- Holt, D., Palmer, S., Gosper, M., Sankey, M., & Allan, G. (2014). Framing and enhancing distributed leadership in the quality management of online learning environments in higher education. *Distance Education*, 35(3), 382–399. doi: 10.1080/01587919.2015.955261
- Howell, S., Sorenson, D., & Tippets, H. (2010). The news about cheating for distance educators. *Faculty Focus Specialty Report: Promoting Academic Integrity in Online Education*, 4–7.
- Hylton, K., Levy, Y., & Dringus, L. (2016). Utilizing webcam-based proctoring to deter misconduct in online exams. *Computers & Education*, 92–93, 53–63.
- Kumar, S. (2015). Teaching tools and media competencies for a 21st century classroom. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 5(11), 140–142. doi:10.15373/2249555X

- Lee, E., Pate, J. A., & Cozart, D. (2015, July/August). Autonomy support for online students. *TechTrends*, 59(4), 54–61.
- Mayer. (2001). *Multimedia learning*. New York, NY: Cambridge University.
- Mbati, L., & Minnaar, A. (2015, April). Guidelines towards the facilitation of interactive online learning programmes in higher education. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 16(2), 272–287. <http://dx.doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v16i2.2019>
- Moreillon, J. (2015, May/June). Increasing interactivity in the online learning environment: Using digital tools to support students in socially constructed meaning-making. *TechTrends*, 59(3), 41–47.
- Murray, K. (2012, April 20). Five apps for building online polls and surveys. *TechRepublic*. Retrieved from <http://www.techrepublic.com/blog/five-apps/five-apps-for-building-online-polls-and-surveys/>
- Nash, J. A. (2015, April). Future of online education in crisis: A call to action. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 14(2), 80–88.
- Pappano, L. (2012, November 2). The year of the MOOC. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2012/11/04/education/edlife/massive-open-online-courses-are-multiplying-at-a-rapid-pace.html?pagewanted=all&_r=0
- Pappas, C. (2014, January 18). The 20 best learning management systems (updated 2017). *eLearning Industry*. Retrieved from <https://elearningindustry.com/the-20-best-learning-management-systems>
- Pappas, C. (2015, November 3). Top 10 cloud based learning management systems for corporate training. *eLearning Industry*. Retrieved from <https://elearningindustry.com/top-10-cloud-based-learning-management-systems-for-corporate-training>
- Patiniotaki, E. (2016). Audiovisual translation and assistive technology: Towards a universal design approach for online education. In A. Pareja-Lora, C. Calle-Martínez, & P. Rodríguez-Arancón (Eds), *New perspectives on teaching and working with languages in the Digital Era* (pp. 173-183). Dublin, IE: Research-publishing.net.
- Paulet, K., Chawdhry, A., Douglas, D., & Pinchot, J. (2016, July). Assessing faculty perceptions and techniques to combat academic dishonesty in online courses. *Information Systems Education Journal*, 14(4), 45–53.
- Pittaway, S. M., & Moss, T. (2014, July). Initially, we were just names on a computer screen: Designing engagement in online teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(7), 140–156. <http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n7.10>
- Sener, J. (2015, July 7). Updated e-learning definitions. *Online Learning Consortium*. Retrieved from <https://onlinelearningconsortium.org/updated-e-learning-definitions-2/>
- Top 10 elearning statistics for 2014 infographic. (2013, December 1). *eLearning Industry*. Retrieved from http://elearninginfographics.com/elearning-statistics-2014-infographic/?utm_campaign=elearningindustry.com&utm_source=%2Ftop-10-e-learning-statistics-for-2014-you-need-to-know&utm_medium=link

Common Core and Business Education

Donna Gavitt
Selinsgrove Area High School
Selinsgrove, PA

Jorge Gaytan
North Carolina A&T State University
Greensboro, NC

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Jill White and Charlotte Boling, author of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Common Core Standards are established by state departments of education in the United States to guide K-12 teachers' curricula selections and instructional activities. Are K-12 teachers given an opportunity to provide input for the development of Common Core Standards? While Common Core focuses primarily on the disciplines of English language arts and mathematics, these two disciplines are the foundation of most, if not all, other disciplines. This foundation is particularly important in business classrooms where many programs are directed toward college, career, and workforce readiness.

However, "without substantial improvement in advanced literacy proficiencies, such as those identified by the National Association of Educational Progress [NAEP], students will be unable to handle the quantity and complexity of assigned reading in college" (Schoenbach, Greenleaf, & Murphy, 2012, p. 3). A suggested course outline for

a *careers* course that meets Common Core Standards at the high school level, entitled College and Career Readiness, is presented in this chapter. The focus of this chapter is career readiness using Common Core to achieve core literacy proficiencies in reading and writing.

MUTUAL GOALS—COMMON CORE AND BUSINESS EDUCATION

Students are not academically prepared for postsecondary education. As reported in 2011 by ACT[®] Inc., a provider of college preparation tests, only one in four students met the benchmark scores in English language arts, mathematics, reading, and science. In fact, “the common core state standards, which have been adopted by 46 states and the District of Columbia, differ from most previous state standards . . . in the goal of college and career readiness of all students . . . 62% of U.S. jobs in 2018 would require more than a high school education (Rothman, 2012, p. 10).

Common Core has a clear purpose. As specified by the National Governor’s Association [NGA] and the Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], the Common Core Standards are (a) research and evidence based, (b) aligned with college and work expectations, (c) rigorous, and (d) internationally benchmarked (NGA & CCSSO, 2017). However, the *lag* time in K-12 education is at least 6-13 years. Students do not have the foundations for reading, analyzing, and reporting information in complex text because they have had little exposure to complex text. Teachers in all disciplines, in general, and in the academic field of business education, in particular, must learn the requirements of the Common Core Standards. State legislators, state departments of education, schools, and administrators across the United States need to change their thinking, actions, and recommendations to set goals for high-level literacy.

The Common Core State Standards [CCSS] initiative by the Council of Chief State School Officers and the National Governors Association launched a project in April 2009 “to develop *anchor* standards for college and career readiness in English language arts and mathematics, which would indicate the knowledge and skills needed at the end of high school. Then, a separate team would design grade-by-grade standards in those two subjects that would lead students to the anchor standards” (Rothman, 2012, p. 11). Based on the concept of Common Core, all teachers must teach reading and writing. Students often enter grades 9-12 without adequate content literacy or vocabulary skills. In fact,

When students have difficulty reading and understanding subject area texts, they hit a ‘literacy ceiling’ that limits what they can achieve both in the classroom and in their lives outside of school. Naturally, the literacy ceiling also limits what teachers can achieve in their classrooms. (Schoenbach et al., 2012, p. 5)

A lack of emphasis on Common Core Standards is just one problem in education because the effective implementation of these standards represents another challenge. Quite often, teachers are referred to as English language arts, mathematics, and science teachers; however, schools have teachers in the academic fields of technology, business

and economics, finance, accounting, among others. Regardless of academic discipline, all teachers must engage in continuous cross-discipline teaching and learning and reinforcing basic literacy skills in practice.

TEACHING TO LEARN

Lifelong learning has become the mantra of the 21st century. Teachers must continually demonstrate the acquisition of new learning skills. All teachers must relearn how to teach literacy and, in the process, demonstrate the lifelong ability to learn new and improved ways to teach literacy to provide students with a pattern for learning because, “employers are putting increasing emphasis on learning as a skill in its own right” (“Learning and Earning,” 2017, p. 1). K-12 educators must be committed to learning new skills and to instilling this commitment in their students because,

A 2016 Pew Research Center survey, *The State of American Jobs*, found that 87% of workers believe it will be essential for them to get training and develop new job skills throughout their work life in order to keep up with changes in the workplace. (Rainie & Anderson, 2017, p. 1)

Literacy and learning behaviors are the focus of Common Core and should be the focus of all teachers. The question is as follows: How should instructors teach learning behaviors?

Best Practices and Cross-Discipline Integration

The importance of self-study and individual lifelong learning is stressed throughout this chapter. According to Sawchuk (2012, p. 2),

To ensure that students master the new standards, educators will have to change the way they teach. Teachers are wrestling with an absence of truly aligned curricula and lessons. Added to those factors are concerns that the standards are pitched at a level that may require teachers themselves to function on a higher cognitive plane.

ACT® Inc. focuses on college and career readiness. “WorkKeys® from ACT, Inc., is a comprehensive program that aligns, builds, and certifies the skills needed for workplace success” (ACT® Inc., 2017, p. 1). The ACT college entrance exam is used for college readiness across the United States. The ACT’s website provides an effective sequential guide to complement Common Core to prepare students by making preparation materials available to students.

The College Board, providers of SAT, PSAT and other college preparatory tests, redesigned the SAT in 2016 to align it with college and career readiness and to be more competitive with the ACT. SAT practice is encouraged and, in many cases, parents pay for college preparatory tutoring to increase the probability of their children being accepted by the schools of choice. “The College Board released new data Monday showing that students who used its free online practice course through Khan Academy for as little as six to eight hours gained 90 points on average between their PSAT and SAT scores” (Gewertz, 2017, p. 3).

Another practice many high schools use for college preparation is advanced placement (AP) courses and tests which require higher-level reading, studying, and understanding deeper textual content. Gardner (2017) reported that while students could gain college credit for these courses, some colleges have reconsidered AP credits. Many colleges are claiming that the content is not necessarily aligned with their courses or the students are still not ready for college-level work. Another option for some students is online college courses or nearby colleges offering dual enrollment. Students can earn college credits in high school and enter college with some classes or even a semester completed. These value-added courses are often reduced in price for high schools that participate, providing strong incentives for parents and students.

While ACT, SAT, and AP courses and dual enrollment are all designed to prepare students for success in college, they do not prepare students for career and working success. Business educators could fill the gap with a career education course required for all students before they leave high school. In the process, students would explore an individualized career path, including a Plan B, gaining experience in self-learning and relearning to select the most suitable career choice.

A BUSINESS COURSE USING COMMON CORE STANDARDS

Gewertz (2015) stated that “. . . creating one set of challenging academic expectations for all students would improve achievement and college readiness. But the idea proved to be the only thing that was simple about the Common Core” (p. 4). The course outlined below looks at *how* business educators teach Common Core in a .5 credit, 90-minute class period held every other day. The time frame provides guidance for the length of the course. Teachers can select ideas and strategies that meet Common Core Anchor Standards and develop objectives, activities, and assessments that are effective. Alberti (2013) wrote that one of the key shifts teachers must make, if they are to *make the shift* to Common Core, is more exposure for students to engage with complex text.

Higher-order demands include tasks that require students to synthesize, analyze, and apply information. In the following outline of a career education course for high school juniors or seniors, students are actively engaged in using technology, conducting research, summarizing, analyzing, synthesizing, defending of ideas, learning independently following a personalized plan, making choices, learning decision-making processes, understanding online learning, and learning parental review and participation, among others. Common Core is the common thread, as it represents preparation for ACT and SAT college entrance exams.

The course outline includes scope and sequence, followed by an outline of topics and activities for a class over 40 days. Activities for class sessions include practice in developing student skills in thinking and analyzing. Marzano (2010) commented that “. . . practice makes perfect sense. Practice has always been and will always be, a necessary ingredient to learning procedural knowledge” (p. 2). SAT and ACT *questions of the day* are used as essential questions or *bell ringers* to build relevance for lessons. Students

have choices of digital or paper output formats when documenting the individual information.

An Outline for a Career Preparation Course

The 90-minute class periods for half a school year account for 45 classes. Forty classes are described below, allowing for testing interruptions, revisions, and extended individual work days.

Self-Assessment and Research Skills

- Introduction and Expectations of Each Topic—Syllabus (1 Day)
- Effective Search Strategies (1 Day)
- Interest, Abilities Inventories (1 Day)

Career Research and Hot Jobs

- Current Hot Jobs News Article (1 Day) (Online or print articles may be used)
- Career Research and Presentations (4 Days)
- Format and Organization of Print or Digital Career Portfolio; Rubric for Each (1 Day)
- Reading the Classifieds; Write an Ad for a Career Job Interest (1 Day)

College Research and Decision Making

- Guidance Counselor Presentation (1 Day)
- College Comparison and College Admissions **guest(s)** (3 Days)
- College Essay Comparison (1 Day)
- College Applications/FAFSA (2 Days)
- Locating Scholarships (1 Day)
- Guidance Office Scavenger Hunt/Guidance Interview (1 Day)
- Develop a College Financial Plan or Work Financial Plan (1 Day)

Job Acquisition Skills

- Resumes (5 Days)
 - Intro/PowerPoint
 - Finding Errors in Resumes
 - Student Resume and Peer Review

- Cover Letter (1 Day)
- Job Application (2 Days)
 - Monster.com/Careerbuilder.com/Local Businesses
 - Civil Service & <https://www.indeed.com>; Search USAjobs
- Thank You Letter (Job Interview or College Interview) (1 Day)
- Social Media and Locating a Job (1 Day)
- Interviews (5 Days)
 - Common Questions
 - Practice Interviews
 - Live Interviews - Business or Community **Guest** Interviewers
- Final Course Essay (2 Days)
- Portfolios— Presentation, Reviews, Feedback (2 Days)
- Guests—College Panel Q & A (Former Students in college or workforce) (1 Day)

Anchor Standards, Objectives, Activities, Essential Questions, Assessments and Resources for Five Topics

Topic #1: Self-Assessment and Research Skills

Introduction and Syllabus—Lesson 1 (one class)

An introduction to the course illuminates the expectations of the teacher and responsibilities of each student. In simulating the *flipped classroom* strategy, students are expected to complete much research out of class and return with their ‘findings’ to share in a broad, effective research activity for classroom discussion. Students become generators in addition to consumers of information. Students complete a teacher-generated website/resource Google form for every three research sites they visited or print resources as references.

Each class begins with a bell ringer and the SAT question of the day. Questions are available at <http://prep4sat.com/sat-reading-sat-question-of-the-day/before students are logged in to their individual computers>. Students briefly discuss several student-generated questions submitted by students in a teacher-generated and prepared Google form. Each student selects work entries throughout the course to place in a digital or paper-based career portfolio demonstrating thoughtful, insightful career analysis and preparation. Brief teacher demonstrations, instruction, and feedback generally occur at the beginning of each class or at the beginning of each topic.

Topic #2: Interest Inventories (2 days)

Anchor Standards

CCS ELA Writing Standard - Grades 11-12. Range of Writing

#10 (p.47). Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences.

College and Career Readiness [CCR] Standard Research to Build and Present Knowledge

#7 (p.46). Conduct short as well as more sustained research projects to answer a question (including a self-generated question) or solve a problem; narrow or broaden the inquiry when appropriate; synthesize multiple sources on the subject, demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation.

CCS ELA Writing Standard - Grades 11-12. Production and Distribution of Writing

#6 (p. 46). Use technology, including the Internet, to produce, publish, and update individual or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback, including new arguments or information.

Objectives

1. Conduct short discussions using prior knowledge to answer the essential questions.
2. Summarize and synthesize multiple sources, demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation.
3. Determine interests and abilities to refine career interests.
4. Collect and organize data for career portfolio product as an ongoing process in online digital folders using school server, or in a notebook using the defined formats described on Day 1.

Essential question:

What will I be doing in two years . . . four years . . . six years in working toward my #1 career goal of _____ and/or #2 career goal of _____?

Introduction

Demonstrate Internet search exercise: How to conduct a more narrowed search. Locate generic interest inventories online using “site” and domain (e.g., site.edu or site.org). To eliminate a website, use *en* in front of the site or the word (e.g., en.wikipedia.org).

Some inventories, such as the Self-Directed Search [SDS] (<http://www.self-directed-search.com/What-is-it>) match personality types to occupations using John Holland’s theory of personality and work choices. Some inventories may have a cost, but the theory is widely used.

For a more *organized search*, the following sites are free and teacher tested:

1. Career Assessments: <https://www.careeronestop.org/ExploreCareers/Assessments/interests.aspx>

2. In Pennsylvania, PA Career Zone: <https://www.pacareerzone.org/ip/>
3. Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery: www.military.com/join_armed_forces.asvab
4. Education Planner.org: <http://www.educationplanner.org/students/self-assessments/>
5. Career maps: www.gc.cuny.edu/lmis/information/career_maps
6. MIT Alumni provide career resources: <https://alum.mit.edu/careers/career-resources>

Activities

Compose and submit an answer to the essential question using a teacher-generated Google form. Teachers can access a sample Google form at <http://catlintucker.com> (Tucker, 2015).

1. Engage in ongoing sustained research.
2. Create a spreadsheet using standard spreadsheet software or Google sheets for easy and shared access, listing most important characteristics in your personal inventory.
3. Format and title the spreadsheet as prescribed by the teacher with tab 1, *Skills Inventory*; tab 2, *Resources* for maintaining an accurate list of sources and websites visited, brief description, and URL. Complete two interest and/or skill inventories at the recommended websites.
4. Using teacher-supplied guided questions, analyze and summarize personal findings using
5. Word processing software to create the summary document; accurate spelling, grammar and structure; one page, typed, and formatted document as outlined by the teacher.
6. Record and submit the Website Credibility teacher-generated Google form (only for sites used).

Assessments

1. *Complete a spreadsheet* organized for portfolio entries with skills inventory and resources.
2. *Compose answers* to the essential e-questions and website credibility online Google forms
3. *Complete a one-page written digital summary analysis*, following the handout with teacher-prepared guided questions, of a skills/personality inventory, submitted electronically to the teacher for digital editing, revisions and feedback.

Resources

1. SAT questions of the day (<http://prep4sat.com/sat-reading-sat-question-of-the-day/>) in reading, writing, or math can be accessed by students using the PREP4SAT App on their devices.
2. A comprehensive list, EFrameworkClassroomSupportsCareer.pdf of suggested resources and activities for career building can be found here: <https://www.cuny.edu/academics/programs/notable/CATA/lit/hseframework/Section5CUNYHSEFrameworkClassroomSupportsCareer.pdf>
3. Credibility checklists can be created from online resources, such as <https://www.education.wisc.edu/>
4. Search for *Web Credibility Checklist* at <http://libguides.berry.edu/evaluatingweb>
5. Gooru, found at <https://www.gooru.org/welcome/>, can be used for digital documents; search using *Information Literacy*.

Topic #3: Career Research and Hot Jobs (7 days)

Anchor Standards

CCSSI ELA Writing Standards for Research to Build and Present Knowledge

(p. 46) #8. Gather relevant information from multiple authoritative print and digital sources, using advanced searches effectively; assess the strengths and limitations of each source in terms of the task, purpose, and audience; integrate information into the text selectively to maintain the flow of ideas, avoiding plagiarism and overreliance on any one source and following a standard format for citation.

CCR Standards for Speaking and Listening – Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas

(p. 50) #4. Present information, findings, and supporting evidence, conveying a clear and distinct perspective, such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning, alternative or opposing perspectives are addressed, and the organization, development, substance, and style are appropriate to purpose, audience, and a range of formal and informal tasks.

(p.48 #5.) Make strategic use of digital media and visual displays of data to express information and enhance understanding of presentations.

CCSSI ELA Writing Standards - Range of Writing

(p.47 #10.). See Topic #2

Objectives

1. Use a graphic organizer from the CUNY Curriculum Framework (<http://www2.cuny.edu/academics/academic-programs/model-programs/cuny-college-transition-programs/adult-literacy/cuny-hse-curriculum-framework/>) to support decisions, refine, narrow or broaden the inquiry when appropriate; synthesize multiple sources on the subject, demonstrating understanding of the career researched.
2. Generate questions for the guest speaker and submit prior to the event.

3. Investigate *Hot Jobs* using multiple sources and incorporate the information in an 8-1/2 x 11 infographic for digital viewing.
4. Submit an answer to the e-question on the teacher's Google form and submit updated web credibility Google form.
5. Write a 3-minute cohesive (full sentences, correct spelling and grammar) spontaneous narrative on the topic the guest speaker presented, using (but not limited to) one of these prompts: "*I thought this speaker showed . . . or . . . This job surprised me because . . . This job might be something I would like because . . .*" or similar thought.

Essential Question:

How do I know what I don't know? How do I find out what I don't know?

Introduction

In this section, with teacher demonstration and individualized teacher-to-student coaching, students continue to refine their career goals. The teacher creates multiple differentiated quizzes on topics in Moodle or using vocabulary meaning surveys in Edmodo. These are just a few ways the teacher can access student prior knowledge, building on vocabulary.

Students will research career choices and demonstrate their research using magazines, online sources, or journal articles related to *Hot Jobs in the News*. Some resources include Forbes Inc., msnbc.com, Kiplinger Personal Finance, Wall Street Journal, The Economist, Time Inc., and BLS.gov. Students will explore classified ads in local newspapers and *create* a job ad for their chosen career using similar technical language in preparation for a discussion on complex, technical text. A teacher-led discussion on the meaning of complex text follows for understanding of the text structures students encounter. Students present their findings, using infographics, from their research.

Introduce the SAT Question of the Day, followed by the Bell Ringer challenge of a teacher-made infographic of a very unusual job found online or in an article. The teacher challenges students in a *can you top this*' presentation in preparation for their creation of an occupational infographic.

Activities

Invite a mystery guest with experience in an unusual career or business from the community, as many careers are new or not yet known. Design the learning environment as a guessing game much like the old TV show "What's My Line?" Students formulate *one* question each using generic questions found in the skills inventories, such as: *Do you sit at a desk? Are you outdoors? Do you have an assistant?* When each student has asked one question, students should be able to guess the occupation of the mystery guest.

Students continue to log research sites on the spreadsheet adding Tab 3, *Job Criteria*. This page will record detailed information on two career selections based on the skills inventories and articles read. Here is a suggested list of headings found at bigfuture.collegeboard.org: Summary of the Occupation, Description of Credentials Needed, Short List of Activities that a Person in that Occupation Would Perform on a Daily Basis, List of Qualities and Skills Needed for the job, Prerequisite Courses and Knowledge, and Job Outlook and Average Salary.

Prior to the activity on day four, the teacher will demonstrate a search in Google *images > infographics* sharing the possibilities for creating this project using graphic software. Students will create a digital infographic that can be accessed during their presentation of a *Hot Job*. One day with a guest speaker and another day used in creating the infographic allows three-four days for independent reading, research, and analysis for synthesis of the information. The teacher coaches with hands-on assistance for searching, reading complex text, and validating of the information gathered. This topic is arguably the most research heavy with complex texts, graphs, lists, and requires organizational and procedural skills. Alberti wrote that one of the key shifts toward Common Core standards is “regular practice with complex text and academic language” (Educational Leadership, 2013, p. 4). In part, these activities prepare students for evidence-based writing and ideas across content areas as students grapple with nonlinear and technical texts. Yaron (2016) provided 10 strategies and writing rubrics to guide teachers in evaluating this work with evidence using selection, validity, sufficiency, ideas, relevance, sequencing, analysis, three questions, feedback, and revision.

Assessments

1. *Digital Response* to the e-question in the Google form and the *evidence* of resources web credibility form.
2. *Observation* of and participation in *organization of information* in the spreadsheet as it is updated with Tab 3, *Job Criteria*.
3. *Present information*, findings, and *supporting evidence*, conveying a clear and distinct perspective appropriate to the audience of peers using an infographic.
4. *Analyze and write, using technical writing*, a job advertisement using the student’s personal career selection.
5. *Three-minute “free-write and out the door”* using the teacher prompts, before class is dismissed, on the day of the mystery guest speaker; pencil and paper or digital email submission.

Resources

1. Many states (such as Pennsylvania) have an occupational resource search such as the following:
2. www.jobgateway.pa.gov/jponline/JobSeeker/ManageJobSearch/CareerTools.aspx

3. PA State Standards templates:
www.education.pa.gov/K-12/PACareerStandards/Pages/default.aspx#tab-1
4. Starting the search: <https://bigfuture.collegeboard.org/get-started>
5. Descriptions of jobs and corresponding college requirements: www.workstats.dli.pa.gov/Products/HPOs/Pages/default.aspx
6. The Occupational Outlook Handbook: www.bls.gov/ooh/
7. 10 strategies for evidence-based writing and rubrics: <http://foundationsofstrongteaching.blogspot.com/>
8. Catlin Tucker's technology hunts: <http://catlintucker.com/>
9. Advice for students about Social Networking: <http://careerconnections.nj.gov/careerconnections/prepare/networking/>
10. Minnesota State Career and Education Resource: www.minnstate.edu/careers/index.html
11. The ACT Test User Handbook for Educators www.act.org/content/dam/act/unsecured/documents/ACT-UserHandbook.pdf
12. The ACT College and Career Planning e-book- <http://pages.act.org/eBook-Prepare-For-Whats-Next.html>

Topic #4 College Research and Decision Making (10 days)

Anchor Standards

CCR for Conventions of Standard English (p.51, #1, #2)

1. Demonstrate command of the conventions of Standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.
2. Demonstrate command of the conventions of Standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing.

CCR for Conventions of Standard English – Vocabulary Acquisition and Use (p.51. #4)

Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing meaningful word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate.

CCSS Language Progressive Skills (p.56 chart)

L.7.3a. Choose language that expresses ideas precisely and concisely, recognizing and eliminating wordiness and redundancy.

Objectives

1. Apply research to make decisions about the process and choices of future goals.
2. Listen and respond to experts in making rational decisions about jobs and application to college.

3. Compare colleges to determine distance, costs, coursework, and pre-requisite requirements.
4. Complete the Common Application online, including the essay.
5. Record calculated costs (budget) for two choices of colleges in the spreadsheet, *Tab 4 Budget*.
6. Present and defend decisions made about work, career and education to a guidance expert.
7. Complete an online or paper-based college application form.
8. Using Primary sources compile resources (loans and scholarships) for financing a college education.
9. Analyze the requirements of the FAFSA with a parent (evidenced by their signature as having seen the document).

Essential Questions:

To generate interest in these nine lessons, use these possible e-questions:

1. What might some jobs look like ten years from now?
2. What if, after four years of college, my career is obsolete?
3. How can guidance counselors help in my school-to-job or school-to-college planning?
4. How can I prepare to locate a college that accommodates my personal and academic interests?
5. What is the difference between private colleges and public colleges?
6. Do I want to stay in my state and close to home when choosing my college?
7. Should I look at a two-year college, a four-year college or technical school?
8. What does it mean when a college is accredited?
9. How much will my education cost, realistically?
10. What is the difference between a grant, a scholarship, and a loan?

Introduction

Students have read and studied informational texts concerning job descriptions and careers. The challenge is to transform that career goal into a tangible pathway *to* the goal. Experts do not know what some jobs will look like with the onset of Artificial Intelligence and Autonomous Systems.

Guidance counselors often have insights and resources for students but need additional time to communicate their expertise. In one class period, guidance counsel-

ors present information to the class on college success rates, graduation rates, general requirements, research for college entry and generally answer questions. In the remaining nine classes, students make appointments to speak to their counselor and share their ideas on college and careers or the counselors can take students out of class for a 15-minute counseling session. The final culminating personal essay for the course is placed in the student's file to assist counselors in helping students achieve their career goals.

Throughout lessons 11-19, students continue reading informational text more deeply, re-reading when necessary to clarify meanings. This preparation becomes critical when navigating pages of charts on careers, completing the Common Application for college, or working through the College Handbook published by the College Board. The College Handbook is especially helpful to locate a specific college major related to a selected career and, following that index citing a page number, to identify the colleges (by state) that have a similar major.

Activities

The sequence of activities in these class sessions follow closely the objectives and are predominantly completed independently by the student, as the teacher is the *guide on the side*. Students have narrowed their research to one or two viable careers.

Show a college tour video at the start of each class session. These can be found at college websites or at <https://www.youniversitytv.com/category/college/>. Students answer the SAT question of the day as a bell ringer with an essential question generated by the teacher or a student. Students are encouraged to use any available time to practice SATs at [khanacademy.org](https://www.khanacademy.org).

Now students must **match their career(s) to the education required** for that career and find schools with those or similar majors. At this point, students begin to refine their college search based on more personal questions. How far can I travel? Do I want to commute? How much is college tuition per year? Is my college choice based on where my parents want me to go to school?

Guidance counselor(s) come to share their expertise on colleges with the class and answer questions students have about their chosen job, career field, and particular schools. Students can set up appointments for one-on-one consultations at short intervals throughout these lessons.

The College Handbook provides an accurate and up-to-date listing each year of two-year and four-year colleges. Working in pairs according to their career interests, **students narrow their search for colleges using the College Handbook**. After narrowing the search to three or fewer schools, students view the colleges' websites for more detailed information and comparisons, completing a graphic organizer on the three colleges (viewing the websites and searching the Handbook can be alternating

activities depending on the availability of books). Students gain knowledge about how to navigate college websites and where to go for specific information not found in the College Handbook. This assignment is a precursor for the creation of the college budget spreadsheet where students must include meal plans, which are sometimes hard to find on college websites.

Create a sample graphic organizer use to compare information about colleges. This *student-generated* organizer can be simple or complex based on the student's future goals. Students will collaborate to make decisions about labels based on *their* priorities. All graphic organizers will not be the same. Some may only show two colleges or two technical schools.

	College 1	College 2	College 3
City, state, town			
Distance			
Tuition cost			
Majors/minors			
Prerequisites			
Sports			
Scholarships			
Meal plan			

Teachers should preview this process before demonstrating it in class. Students will complete the Common Application online found at <https://apply.commonapp.org/> Login. Students are asked to login at home and share their progress and information with their parents. This activity should be completed by all students for *practice completing an online form* and specifically understanding unfamiliar vocabulary and requests made using technical writing. The Common Application requires students to create a login and password and is recommended to be done as a class with guided practice. STUDENTS MUST NOT SUBMIT at the end of the application and are asked instead to make a printed copy in .pdf format. This copy is placed in their digital portfolio as a reference guide for when they actually complete and submit their Common App online. Students can create a login for practice by selecting *parent or other adult* in the ❶ *registration type*, first window. If the student is a senior completing the application in class, the student would select *student*. Students are expected to complete the essay portion in the application as additional practice and for the purpose of proofreading the narrative essay. This essay can be reviewed and edited by another student or the teacher, depending on each individual student's preference. All colleges have applications online. This activity provides practice for completing technical application forms.

Students will record costs related to the colleges selected in a budget spreadsheet using formulas to calculate approximate costs for each year for a two- or four-year educa-

tion. As students examine college websites, financial data can be recorded for the next activity. College Navigator at the National Center for Education Statistics is an excellent tool for gauging college costs (<https://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator/>).

Supplied with a questionnaire in a *scavenger hunt* format, students will analyze potential scholarship opportunities, first through the guidance department and then online. Guidance departments often receive information on scholarship opportunities from organizations within the school or in the local community such as the Rotary, Chambers of Commerce, VFW, local industries, among others. Government websites, such as www.usa.gov/financial-aid and www.educationplanner.org/students/paying-for-school/ways-to-pay/scholarships.shtml, offer options for financial aid.

Students obtain a Free Application for Federal Student Aid [FAFSA] form at <https://www.usa.gov/financial-aid>. The teacher will conduct a Q & A session in class. As a group, students review the procedures, requirements, and purpose of the form. Because much of the information on this form is confidential, students are directed to take the form home for a parent signature on the form to show they have seen the application requirements and filing date. The form with the parent(s) signature should NOT be filled out when it is returned.

Assessments

1. Evaluate completed *checklist of documents and teacher observation of activities*.
2. A *record of colleges* that fit the criteria of the student's career selection(s), research and teacher *observation* of the career to college match.
3. *Analysis and synthesis of two or three potential college choices* using the graphic organizer.
4. A *completed Common Application* saved in the portfolio as a .pdf document.
5. *Parent-signed blank FAFSA form* returned for check-off.
6. A *completed search listing* of three potential scholarships, showing the documents.

Resources

1. <https://www.youniversitytv.com/category/college/https://apply.commonapp.org/Login>
2. <https://www.usa.gov/financial-aid>
3. Many state government websites include opportunities for scholarships or grants. For PA residents: www.pheaa.org/funding-opportunities/state-grant-program/

Topic #5 Job Acquisition Skills (20 days)

Anchor Standards

Reading Standards for Informational Text –Grades 11-12

(p. 40 #7). Integrate and evaluate multiple sources of information presented in different media or formats (e.g., visually, quantitatively) as well as in words in order to address a question or solve a problem.

Writing Standards- Text types and purposes -Grades 11-12

(p.45 #1). Write arguments to support claims in an analysis of substantive topics or texts, using valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence.

Production and Distribution of Writing- Grades 11-12

(p.46 #4). Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

Range of Writing

(p.47 #10). See Topic #2

Objectives

1. Produce a personal resume with teacher-made rubric, after thorough research and practice.
2. Write a cover letter for a job posted in the newspaper or online.
3. Complete a job application obtained in person from a business, from a company website, government website, or supplied by the teacher.
4. Write a thank-you letter for a college tour, job interview, or information received about a job.
5. Analyze and critique social media websites for job postings.
6. Participate in two interviews, one with a classmate and one with a business guest interviewer.

Essential Questions

What are the steps of proper etiquette in obtaining a job? Why is each step important to the job seeking process? Why do I need a resume? What does a resume contain? Why write a thank-you message?

Introduction and Activities

Exhibit and discuss acceptable and unacceptable resumes, the purpose of resumes, and the tailoring of resumes for specific jobs. The presentation could be a PPT, a pre-designed scavenger hunt online (teacher previewed) to find certain examples of resumes, or demonstration of use of a template in a word processing program. A short segment of this instruction should cover the *do's* and *don'ts* of posting certain personal information online. Resources for this section include:

1. Monster.com: free resume and cover letter samples at www.monster.com/resumes/post-resume?intcid=skr_ResumeCTA1_www_create-account
2. Careerbuilder.com also supplies resume samples and instruction: www.careerbuilder.com/advice/topic/resumes.
3. The OWL at Purdue Online Writing Lab has numerous technical writing examples: <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/4/16/>

Students build their resumes, engaged in thinking, pairing, sharing, and observing. This same learning strategy sequence is used for the cover letter and thank-you letter after a job interview.

A job application will be completed by the teacher for class discussion. Discuss positive and negative aspects when filling out an application. The local newspaper, local restaurants or grocery stores, civil service job listings, and the federal government (<https://state.usajobs.gov/>) may furnish application forms. Most states have state-specific sites for civil service jobs (for PA, www.scsc.pa.gov/Pages/default.aspx). Students will complete and submit a job application for feedback and revisions to be entered in the portfolio as a guide.

For an introduction to interviews, the teacher prepares a presentation by locating a list of interview questions or using pre-screened online job interview videos (e.g., YouTube.com) for a critique discussion using some common interview questions. Students may videotape each other answering several interview questions. Using technology, students convert the camera video to an .mpg video for self-critique and placement in the digital portfolio. A business community member will be asked to participate in live interviews with the class. Time may limit the questions from students participating; however, students gain experience in thoughtful and spontaneous answers to sometimes difficult questions and an opportunity for friendly self-critique of performance.

Students will summarize their experiences in the course in a three-page professional narrative essay following suggested teacher prompts, a rubric, formatting requirements, organization, proper grammar, sentence structure, and spelling. This essay will appear in the student portfolio as well and will be sent to the school guidance department for their student record file.

In one of the final days, a group of three or four former students who are now working or in college can be invited to participate in an informal Q&A panel session where students have an opportunity to ask about *the real experience*. Suggested topics: Were they prepared? Was this course helpful? What was the hardest adjustment in the first semester in college?

Assessments

1. Essential questions answered and web credibility forms updated
2. Completed professional resume edited and revised with a completed job application
3. Two professional letters: cover and thank-you letter
4. Participation in a live interview with the teacher or a guest community member
5. Completed list of potential interview questions for repeated practice

COMMON CORE AND CAREER EDUCATION RESOURCES

The ACT (www.act.org/content/en.html), SAT (<https://ready4.com>), and International Baccalaureate (IB) program (www.ibo.org/programmes/diploma-programme/assessment-and-exams/) provide tests for various types of measures of college and work ready skills. These three sites provide enormous amounts of resources, constantly updated, for developing a Career Preparation course. The stated purpose of IB is “. . . diploma program assessment procedures measure the extent to which students have mastered advanced academic skills in fulfilling these goals: analyzing and presenting information; evaluating and constructing arguments; and solving problems creatively” (p. 1).

In the event that an individual is not living in a state that actively promotes the Common Core, other states, organizations, and state-to-state partnerships have developed many resources for everyone to be able to access a Common Core learning environment. Textbook publishers are moving toward the development of materials aligned to the standards. In national and cross-state efforts, the Smarter Balanced Consortium has created a digital library of curriculum frameworks using a grant from the U.S. Department of Education (www.smarterbalanced.org/educators/). Colleges that accept the Smarter Balanced Curriculum as a college- and career-ready achievement standard are listed on their website found at www.smarterbalanced.org/about/higher-education/. The Partnership for the Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC) is a two-state consortia for the creation of common core assessments in English and Mathematics to include performance tasks and to “assist states and districts in the implementation of the standards” (Rothman, 2012, p. 1). The Kentucky Department of Education has also built an online portal, titled Continuous Instructional Improvement Technology System, which will host lessons, tests, and curriculum materials (<http://education.ky.gov/districts/tech/ciits/pages/continuous-instructional-improvement-technology-system.aspx>).

EngageNY offers curriculum supplements and lessons for using Common Core standards (<https://www.engageny.org/ccss-library>). Pennsylvania Core Standards (www.pdesas.org/Standard/View) are aligned to the National Common Core Standards. Open Educational Resources provide standards-aligned lessons (www.oercommons.org). Georgetown University’s Center on Education and the Workforce (<https://cew.georgetown.edu/>) provides materials for a career preparation course. Other publications that

are career-relevant are available from the U.S. Department of Labor, which publishes jobs reports each year.

SUMMARY

This chapter provided a variety of resources as a starting point for aligning a business career curriculum to the Common Core Standards, which can be met in courses for all subject-matter, especially business education. A suggested outline for a course for college and career preparation has been included as the basis for a course to prepare students for colleges and careers of their choice. The activities for the course emphasize Common Core Standards that enable the students to develop or strengthen literacy skills as well as skills in comprehension, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

REFERENCES

- Act, Inc. (2017). *ACT information for our products*. Retrieved from <http://www.act.org/content/act/en/products-and-services.html>
- Alberti, S. (2013). Making the shifts. *Educational Leadership*, 70(4), 25.
- (The) College Board. (2017). *College handbook*. New York, NY: The College Board.
- Gardner, W. (2017). *Reality check*. Retrieved from http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/walt_gardners_reality_check/2017/05/ap_tests_face_uncertain_future.html?cmp=eml-enl-eu-news3
- Gewertz, C. (2015). *The Common Core explained*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/common-core-state-standards/index.html#definition>
- Gewertz, C. (2017). *High school & beyond*. Retrieved from http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/high_school_and_beyond/2017/05/college_board_reports_score_gains_from_free_sat_practice.html
- Learning and earning. (2017, January 14). Special report: Lifelong education. *The Economist*, 4.
- Marzano, R. J. (2010). Art and science of teaching: When practice makes perfect sense. *Educational Leadership*, 68(3), 81.
- NGA Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO]. (2017). *Read the standards*. Retrieved from <http://www.corestandards.org/read-the-standards/>
- Rainie, L., & Anderson, J. (2017). *Pew Research Center internet & technology*. Retrieved from <http://www.pewinternet.org/2017/05/03/the-future-of-jobs-and-jobs-training/>
- Rothman, R. (2012). A common core of readiness. *Educational Leadership*, 69(7), 11-15, 21. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org>
- Sawchuk, S. (2012). *Common standards*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/collections/standards-report-2012/index.html>
- Schoenbach, R., Greenleaf, C., & Murphy, L. (2012). *Reading for understanding* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Tucker, C. (2015). More than a Google search. *Educational Leadership*, 73(1), 78-79.

Information Technology

Herbert Brown
Alicia Finnell
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC

Information Technology (IT) courses must keep pace with changing times. Employers seek and hire students who are ready and able to apply current technical skills when they enter the workplace. IT skills are so fundamental today that they are an expectation just as reading, math, and writing—an essential competency all students need. For the United States to be competitive in the global job market, business educators must strive to prepare students with the technical skills that business and industry expect.

This chapter discusses IT courses taught at the secondary, postsecondary, and adult levels, related teaching strategies for those courses, and technological trends that should be included in the business education IT curriculum as well as skills needed by all students.

A CHANGING INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY CURRICULUM

Students today possess more advanced technical skills than those of an earlier generation. Students learn to use the technology before they even learn to touch type; therefore, technology is not foreign to most students, and they embrace it. These are reasons for developing and implementing a more advanced curriculum. The *National Business Education Standards* from the National Business Education Association (2013) and the ISTE Standards from the International Society for Technology in Education [ISTE] (n.d.) are used as a framework for designing and enhancing the K-16 IT curriculum.

Standards

Regardless of whether industry certification programs are used, the overall IT curriculum is designed around industry standards; national, state, and local needs; and the NBEA National Standards for Business Education. Many states use the NBEA standards as the foundation on which to develop the state curriculum and pathways. Not only do the standards provide a content framework, they provide suggested academic levels at which IT content can and should be delivered, from kindergarten through postsecondary (K-14) (NBEA, 2013). States use the work of Advance CTE to cluster specific courses in to career clusters identified by Advance CTE to define distinct pathways for career success (“Career Clusters,” n.d.).

Whereas the NBEA standards outline IT standards for business education programs, ISTE (n.d.) has detailed IT skills for all students, teachers, and administrators, referred to as the ISTE Standards. The ISTE Standards for students identify seven categories of skills that all students should possess to be successful in school and life. The ISTE Standards for teachers identify categories of skills that teachers should incorporate into their classrooms to enhance learning, promote digital citizenship, and encourage professional growth. The ISTE Standards for administrators provide a framework that can assist administrators in the development of technology-enhanced learning environments (ISTE, n.d.). From all the standards available as resources, all educators have the information they need to help them embrace the use of technology and integrate it into the courses they teach, either as a teaching tool, as the content of the course, or maybe as both.

In recent years, there has been a national effort to implement computer science curriculum and standards into the core academics. The Computer Science Teachers Association (2016) has developed a set of K-12 computer science standards with the purpose of implementing computer science education at all levels of mainstream education. These standards include developmentally appropriate objectives focused on hardware, software, coding, logic, and appropriate and effective use of technology.

Junior High and Middle School Curriculum

The IT curriculum at the middle/junior high school level varies across the country. In junior high and middle school IT courses, students are typically taught to use software in application suites, such as the Google Applications (Google Docs, Sheets, Slides, and Forms) and Microsoft Office. Several IT courses have similar content, but different titles. For example, the “Computer Skills and Applications” course in North Carolina (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2017b) has content and skills development standards similar to courses titled “Computer Applications” in Nebraska (Nebraska Department of Education, 2017), and “Computer Technology” in Arkansas (Arkansas Department of Career Education, 2017). The junior high and middle school curriculum typically focuses on exploratory exposure to technology, with a moderate depth of skill development advanced skills are further developed at the high school level.

High School Curriculum

High school IT programs of study and career pathways and majors are designed to teach students the knowledge and skills necessary for success in college and IT-related careers. For example, IT pathways available in Utah are Digital Media, Network and IT Support, Programming/Software Development, Web Development and Administration (Utah State Office of Education, 2016). Georgia's IT pathways are Web and Digital Design, Programming, Computer Science, Information Support and Services, Networking, and Health Information Technology (Georgia Department of Education, 2017). In North Carolina, the career clusters in information technology are Programming and Software Development, Web and Digital Communications, Information Support and Services and Network Systems (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2017a). Examples of courses in the pathways/majors are computer technology I and II, digital business applications, IT essentials and IT support, multimedia and Web design, networking and networking administration, and computer programming I and II. Newer programs in mobile application development, specific certification training, cybersecurity, and others are also growing in popularity (National Association of State Directors, 2013).

Postsecondary/College Curriculum

The postsecondary and college curriculum is defined by increased depth of content and integration of technology for problem solving and applications. Business applications of technology are examined and encouraged at the postsecondary level. This increased depth is reflected in the NBEA IT standards represented at level 4 in its standards document (NBEA, 2013). IT concepts that require advanced student preparation include advanced database systems, enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems, advanced programming, application coding, cybersecurity, and advanced networking. At the college level, students are also able to specialize in a specific IT area and acquire advanced skills in areas such as computer networking (Cisco, Windows Server, and Linux), Web development, and programming. Advanced courses and IT skills at the postsecondary/college level are typically included in technology programs such as computer science, computer information systems, and other IT areas.

Adult Learners

The adult learner market includes learners who require retraining or skills development to improve their current positions or to prepare for another career. Adults who already possess IT skills typically do well as they improve their skills to reach more advanced IT topics. Adults without an IT background, however, may find it more difficult and intimidating to work with a computer (Sivakumaran & Lux, 2011). Sivakumaran and Lux (2011) suggested a three-step process to alleviate computer anxiety for adult learners. Step one is to help the adult learner understand the purpose behind using the computer and understand the importance of using the computer to meet their specific needs. Step two is to provide a positive environment that allows adult learners to work with the technology and receive assistance in a safe, bias-free learning environment. Step three is to provide ongoing support for the adult learner so they have a support structure to go to when they need assistance.

Industry Certifications

The goal of industry certification training is to verify independently an individual's competence in some application of computer technology. Employers use certifications as an indicator of skills competency. IT certifications can also result in increased pay, enhanced employee self-confidence, and improved employment opportunities. IT certifications are a preferred measure of the skills of potential employees that do not possess a preferred two-year or four-year IT degree (Wierschem, Zhang, & Johnston, 2010). These certifications may include hardware certifications, such as the CompTIA A+ or Cisco Network Engineer, or software-based certifications, such as Office Applications–Microsoft MOS certifications and network-server software applications, such as Microsoft Certified IT Professional and Linux or Redhat certification. Two software-based certification-based programs that states continue to embrace are the Microsoft Imagine Academy program (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/education/imagine-academy/default.aspx>) and the Adobe Certified Expert (ACE) program (<http://www.adobe.com/training/certification.html>).

Individuals may also earn Web development certifications, such as the W3schools online certification or Adobe certifications. Database certifications in Oracle database administration and others are also available. Other lucrative certifications include Project Management Professional (PMP) and Certified Information Systems Security Professionals (CISSP) (Hales, 2017).

The IT curriculum should be constantly changing to remain current with rapid changes in the industry. Although there is diversity in the skills and curricula that are taught and in the strategies used to introduce students to information technology, business educators are challenged to grow with the technology to be effective in the instructional environment. The next section will address specific strategies and resources for delivering IT curriculum.

TEACHING STRATEGIES AND RESOURCES

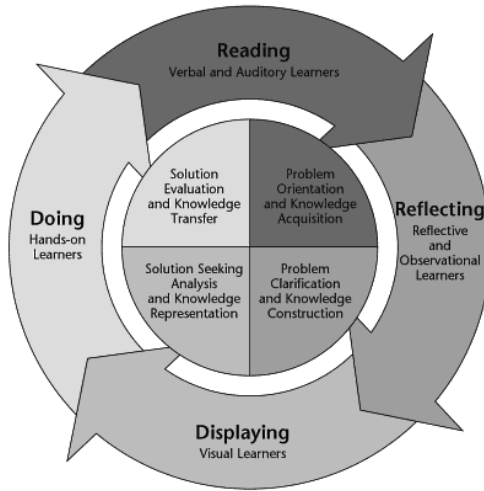
Business education students have the opportunity to work with their minds and their hands. Information technology, in particular, is an area that lends itself to more student-centered instructional practices. Because of the performance-driven nature of IT courses, students must be actively engaged in their learning experiences. Teachers must also keep in mind that learners have multiple intelligences and learning styles. For that reason, an effort must be made to differentiate instruction and make modifications for students with special needs (Orey, 2001)

Read, Reflect, Display, Do

The model referred to as the Read, Reflect, Display, Do (R2D2) Model (Figure 1), can be effectively used to differentiate instruction and make learning activities more interactive. The R2D2 framework emphasizes reading and/or listening to information, reflecting on it, displaying what was learned, and doing something with that new knowledge (Bonk & Zhang, 2008). Each phase is designed to reach a different type of learner and

uses technology-based resources and tools. Bonk and Zhang (2008) shared and discussed more than 100 learning activities for reading, reflecting, displaying, and doing.

Figure 1: The Read, Reflect, Display, and Do Model (R2D2)



Source: Bonk & Zhang (2008).

Web-Based Teaching Resources

Often textbooks reference links to online teaching resources; however, teachers often teach without a textbook and must find their own resources. Web searches may yield results that are not helpful; however, some state departments of education and their affiliates have done an outstanding job providing resources for teachers. Colleges and universities also share helpful teacher resources. Some resources from various organizations that might be helpful for business educators can be found at the following URLs:

- Teach-ICT.com (<http://www.teach-ict.com/index.html>)
- CompuCert (<http://www.compuert.com/>)
- CTE Learning Resources (<http://www.khake.com/page6.html>)
- Excel and Access Flash Videos (<http://www.datapigtechnologies.com/ExcelMain.htm>)
- Computer Applications lessons (<http://lessonplans.btskinner.com/computer.html>)
- Networking and Programming Resources (<http://www.khake.com/page65.html>)
- CTE Resources (<http://www.cteresource.org/verso/categories/information-technology>)

- MIT Technology Review (<http://www.technologyreview.com>)
- MIT Open Courseware (<https://ocw.mit.edu/index.htm>)

Digital Communication and Word Processing

Examples of digital communication media used today include email, phone, voice mail, text messaging, instant messaging, Web chats, and social media (Bovee & Thill, 2016). Computer applications can allow individuals to create electronic presentations and then share those presentations in Web-based meetings and videoconferencing with people across a large geographic area and by podcasting and online videos. Collaboration and digital communication are fostered through the use of shared workspaces, wikis (e.g., Google Apps, WikiSpaces, Sharepoint and Wiggio), blogs (e.g., WordPress), microblogs (e.g., Twitter and Tumblr), and social networks (e.g., Facebook and LinkedIn) (Bovee & Thill, 2016). When teaching about word processing and digital communication, the following strategies are recommended:

- Teach students to carefully plan, compose, format, and complete messages and show students examples of exemplary communication products. Students should not rely on built-in templates.
- Have students prepare business-related documents: plans/proposals, brochures, catalogs, letters, news releases, newsletters, and product descriptions and reviews.
- Chronicle class activities, lessons learned, helpful resources, and interviews of professionals in the field through student-produced class newsletters, Web sites, and blogs.
- Focus on social media as a communication tool. Create social media plans for school events and research effective ways to use social media in communications and marketing.
- Teach students to produce job search documents. When working on job-related documents and research, discuss the substantial impact of the Internet on job search practices. Discuss the need to format resumes in multiple formats (scannable, PDF); discuss online job searches and job databases as well as Web-based job resources such as Onet (<https://www.onetonline.org/>).

Spreadsheet Software

Spreadsheets are used for a number of business and personal tasks. In business, spreadsheets are often used for payrolls, inventories, price quotations, payment calculations, financial statements, sales reports, data collection, mailing lists, and schedules. Popular spreadsheet programs include Microsoft Excel, Google Sheets, OpenOffice Calc, and Apple Numbers. Science Education Resource Center's (SERC's) Pedagogy in Action (<http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/index.html>) and K-12 Science portals (<http://serc.carleton.edu/k12/index.html>) for educators are valuable resources for spreadsheet lessons. Its "Teaching with Spreadsheets" (<http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/spreadsheets/index.html>) and "Teaching with Spreadsheets across the Curriculum" (<http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/spreadsheets/index.html>)

edu/sp/library/ssac/index.html) Web sites provide examples of teaching with spreadsheets, learning modules, and references and resources for spreadsheets in education. When teaching about spreadsheets, the following strategies are recommended:

- Stress “why” and “how” the technology is used by sharing real and relevant examples to give students an authentic view of what they will be learning to create.
- Create data lists and data collection spreadsheets and use sort, filter, and conditional formatting to manage and make decisions based on the data.
- Assign learning activities that are personal and relevant to students and require students to research, plan, and create spreadsheets, and then make decisions based on results.
 - Recreate tax forms and schedules. Calculate the refund due or amount owed.
 - Comparison shop groceries. Determine differences and decide best buys.
 - Plan a senior/spring-break trip (e.g., transportation, activities, subsistence).
 - Maintain a personal grade sheet for class. Use percentages from the syllabus to compute averages for grade categories and calculate the final course grade.
- Collaborate with math and science teachers to reinforce core academic skills.

Database Management Software

Database software is typically included in some form in K–12 and postsecondary education areas. The differences in the implementation of database software at different levels are designed to engage students from a beginning general knowledge and use of database applications to designing and using databases and information to solve business problems. Students typically begin with flat-file databases (such as Microsoft Excel) to manipulate data into useful information, such as sorting a file or filtering data based on a set of criteria. Students then progress to relational databases such as Microsoft Access, FileMaker, or OpenOffice Base. They build the database structures, determine and establish relationships, populate records, and query the database to obtain useful information. The highest level of database management software typically includes enterprise-level database applications such as Oracle and MySQL. These applications require not only the same development processes of any relational database application but also require students to understand and design large database structures, configure and secure database servers, and create useful information through reporting and query functions using structured query language [SQL]. These applications are typically taught in advanced courses such as North Carolina’s Oracle Database Programming I & II (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2017b).

The following strategies for teaching database concepts are recommended:

- Begin database instruction by covering the key concepts and designs for databases, including types of databases, records, fields, tables, files, queries, forms, and reports.

- Have students create simple flat-file databases that contain information of interest to them and apply the database concepts to design the spreadsheet and use data tools (sort, filter, etc.) to refine the data and make decisions based on results.
- Discuss and design relational databases that contain the same information in the flat file, but add relationships and additional data to demonstrate the difference and importance of relational database systems. Create a database with multiple tables, create relationships, and examine the importance of designing databases using this method. Explore the use of queries, reports, etc., to make decisions and extract meaningful data from the database.
- Add programming elements to build interactive interfaces or Web-based database applications for a specific purpose (e.g. student advising database system, invoicing system, and inventory system).

Graphics, Presentation, and Multimedia Software

Graphics, presentation, and multimedia software are well represented in business education classrooms. This category includes the manipulation and creation of graphics in all formats for numerous purposes, including desktop publishing and Web development. Software in this category includes Adobe Photoshop, Fireworks, and Illustrator; Corel Draw and Paintshop Pro, and open-source applications such as GIMP (<http://www.gimp.org>), Inkscape (<http://inkscape.org>), and Paint.NET. Instruction in computer graphics should include the manipulation of existing images and the creation of original images and artwork. Digital cameras are also useful tools in the computer graphics classroom for gathering original images for projects. Dedicated cameras, however, are not required as most cell phones today have exceptional cameras for still photography as well as video.

Presentation software allows students to develop graphical and text-based presentations. Software in this category includes Microsoft PowerPoint, Google Slides, Prezi, and OpenOffice solutions such as OpenOffice Impress. Multimedia software can include a range of other development applications for multimedia; the most common is Adobe Flash. This category may also include 3-D development environments such as Maya (<http://www.autodesk.com/products/maya/overview>), Alice (<http://www.alice.org>), Google SketchUp (<https://www.sketchup.com/>), and Blender (<http://www.blender.org>). Students are drawn to courses that include these applications as it allows them to use their creativity and create amazing products.

Video creation and editing is also very popular in classrooms today. The proliferation of tablets in the classroom has created a diverse range of apps designed to easily capture and edit video. These tools provide students with easy-to-use tools to incorporate video in all classrooms. Students can also use their cell phones and dedicated video cameras to capture, store, edit, and produce HD quality videos. The following strategies for teaching graphics, video, presentations, and multimedia concepts are recommended:

- Develop graphic designs for the school's sports programs, Web site, clubs, etc. Partner with these groups in the school to develop artwork for their programs.
- Partner students with local businesses to develop custom logos and multimedia applications for those businesses.
- Create school presentation templates and assist school personnel and clubs with presentation development.
- Create instructional videos or create promotional videos for schools, programs, clubs and more. Service learning opportunities abound for students working in digital media.

ADVANCED INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY STRATEGIES

The business education curriculum continues to evolve to include new advanced topics in information technology including electronic publishing, advanced Web development, computer networking, cybersecurity, project management, mobile application development and more. This section briefly describes typical learning objectives in each of these areas with recommendations for content coverage and teaching strategies.

Web Development and Electronic Publishing

The introductory level of Web development should include good design and layout discussions and the use of tools to build cohesive and professional Web sites (not unintended, disjointed Web pages). Although there are many drag and drop applications such as Wix (<http://www.wix.com>) and Weebly (<http://www.weebly.com>) that facilitate rapid site development, business educators must teach a more technical level of Web development. Students should understand not only Web coding, but also the importance of Cascading Style Sheets (CSS) in all aspects of content and design. Once the basics have been covered, the course should evolve to include more advanced scripting (e.g., Javascript, VBscript, and XML) and begin to include Web programming elements to build more dynamic Web sites (e.g., ASP, PHP). Database integration with Web sites should also be addressed with the programming elements. Students should also be exposed to Web server hosting and the use of content management systems if possible.

Desktop publishers have evolved to increasingly developing publications for Web and other online delivery, including e-books. Apple offers a product, iBooks Author, that facilitates the development of e-books for the iPad and Apple computer platform ("iBooks Author," n.d.). Other publishers use the standard portable document (PDF) or EPUB formats as well as proprietary formats. These electronic formats include digital rights restrictions and encryption that limit the ability to duplicate and print these digital materials. Desktop publishing courses must address both print and electronic formats as well as layout and design standards.

The following strategies for teaching Web development and electronic publishing concepts are recommended:

- The basics of good Web and electronic publishing design must be discussed throughout any Web development or electronic publishing course, including core graphics design elements to ensure correct use of graphics, spacing, white space, color, and other design elements.
- Introduce students to a variety of Web development and electronic publishing semantics and development tools.
- Students can create real Web sites and publishing documents for businesses and nonprofit organizations in their community or for school personnel, athletics, or clubs. Students could also partner with teachers to help them update and maintain their personal classroom Web pages and create materials for their classes and clubs.
- Leave development projects open ended, allowing students to self-select topics to encourage and foster diversity in the classroom. Make assignments authentic for the students.
- Higher levels of Web development should focus strongly on installing, configuring, and managing LAMP development/hosting platforms (Linux, Apache, MySQL, and PHP).

Computer Networking

Computer networking has tremendous potential for growth in business education programs. One restricting factor can be teachers who feel inadequately prepared to teach courses in computer networking. To address this issue, more teacher education programs and states need to provide coursework and training in computer networking. Computer networking areas include both hardware and software, although some states have correlated computer networking hardware courses (Cisco hardware coursework) with the technology education program area. Schools and school IT personnel need to embrace virtualization tools, such as Virtual Box and Microsoft VirtualPC, that allow computer lab machines to host multiple operating systems, including Microsoft and Linux server installations on one computer. Although computer networking courses are typically designed around specific software vendors, such as Microsoft and Linux and their certification programs, students should be exposed to multivendor networking environments and develop projects that explore the integration of dissimilar systems. The following strategies for teaching computer networking concepts are recommended:

- Use newer computer systems (lab machines) with virtualization software (e.g., Virtual Box or Virtual PC) and allow students to begin network software courses with the installation process through initial configurations. Server-based virtualization solutions such as Microsoft's Hypervisor (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/cloud-platform/server-virtualization>) and Linux Xenserver (<https://www.xenproject.org/users/virtualization.html>) can also be solutions for hosting networking software for network courses.
- Partner with or shadow networking personnel in the school, district, or local businesses.

- Explore business models and case studies to design effective and efficient network designs.
- Have students build server systems from installation to advanced service installation and configuration. Partner with other classes, such as the Web development class and build server solutions for them.

Trends: Project Management, Mobile Application Development, Cybersecurity

A number of IT areas are beginning to grow in the business education curriculum as evidenced by state curriculum development and the NBEA standards. Some of these new areas include project management, mobile application development, and cybersecurity.

Project management covers multiple curriculum classifications. For example, in North Carolina, project management courses appear in many of the career clusters in marketing education, family and consumer sciences, agricultural education, and technology education, in addition to business education (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2017a). The mobile application development area has grown rapidly with the proliferation of mobile devices in our society. Many programs, such as App Inventor (<http://appinventor.mit.edu/explore/>), allow students to quickly design and code working mobile applications.

Cybersecurity, on the other hand, can require specialty equipment and lab design to implement successfully. While the concepts of cybersecurity can be taught using traditional classrooms and methods, effective teaching of ethical hacking and hardening of computer systems, servers, and networks requires *offline* networked computers, servers, and network equipment that allows students to attempt to hack systems. As with other IT programs, cybersecurity students can work toward the very lucrative and sought after Certified Information Systems Security Professionals (CISSP) certification (Hein, 2012).

The following strategies for teaching advanced topics are recommended:

- Cover project management basics and the use of software applications (Microsoft Project or open-source software solutions) to organize and manage projects.
- Partner with other classes, individuals, and school officials who are working on projects. Project management students can help organize and manage the projects.
- Partner with school officials or businesses to develop small mobile applications (e.g., a school calendar or high school sports app for Android and iOS).
- Create a “network-isolated” computer lab with network switches, servers, and client computers running a variety of operating systems and build hacking scenarios and opportunities.
- Create innovative case studies around real and imagined cybersecurity issues.

Support for Instruction

Educators need to use a variety of tools to engage and educate students. For office suite applications, many textbook vendors provide modern electronic tools for instruction, reinforcement of concepts, testing, and remediation, including SAM, MyITlab, SimNET, and SNAP. These tools provide a complete software solution for training and testing skills development with the Microsoft Office software suite.

Online tools are also available—and many are free—that help instructors reach students; these include social media tools such as Ning (<http://www.ning.com>) and Edmodo (<http://www.edmodo.com>), as well as content management systems such as Moodle (<http://moodle.org>), Google Classroom (<https://classroom.google.com>), and Canvas (<https://www.canvaslms.com/>). Teachers can also use blogs, wikis, and Web tools such as Prezi (<http://prezi.com>), Powtoon (<https://www.powtoon.com/>), TEDEd (<http://ed.ted.com/>), testeach (<https://www.tes.com/lessons>), ExplainEverything (<https://explaineverything.com/>) and others to engage students in innovative ways.

Cloud computing is now an integral part of software, mobile applications, server hosting, office applications, data storage, and so much more. Software vendors such as Adobe have fully embraced the cloud for the distribution and management of the majority of their applications evidenced by their “CC” or the *creative cloud* versions. Google Applications are another example of popular cloud-based applications. Delivering software in the cloud allows vendors to quickly address programming issues by patching their cloud applications, providing almost instantaneous updates to their software. Some of the more common cloud storage applications include Google Drive, Dropbox, iCloud, Box, and others. Instructors need to embrace these technologies and teach their appropriate use in classrooms, replacing the era of USB thumb drive submissions. Cloud computing is now embedded in all aspects of IT and should, therefore, be included in IT instruction through both the use of cloud computing resources and discussions of the impact of cloud computing on IT.

SUMMARY

The business education IT curriculum needs to continue to keep pace with the IT industry. Rapid curriculum change requires educators and state and local officials to review curriculum and revise offerings regularly and as rapidly as possible. Curriculum developers should also include industry partners, certifications, and standards to ensure that business education students are prepared for the workforce and ensure continuing education for careers in information technology. Instructional technologies offer new opportunities to design instruction that is authentic (real and relevant), engaging, and motivating to the students. The instructional process should also have flexible coursework that embraces and encourages diversity within the student body. Service learning and partnerships can be invaluable for the success and growth of business education programs at all levels. The IT curriculum is an important part of the business education curriculum and should be grown and developed to meet industry and student needs and expectations.

REFERENCES

- Arkansas Department of Career Education. (2017). *Occupational program areas - Business and marketing technology: Frameworks*. Retrieved from <http://arcareereducation.org/services/career-technical-education/programs-of-study>
- Bonk, C. J., & Zhang, K. (2008). *Empowering online learning: 100+ activities for reading, reflecting, displaying, and doing*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bovee, C. L., & Thill, J. V. (2016). *Business communication today* (13th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Career clusters. (n.d.). *Advance CTE—State leaders connecting learning to work*. Retrieved from <https://www.careertech.org/career-clusters>
- Computer Science Teachers Association. (2016). *CSTA K-12 computer science standards*. Retrieved from http://c.ymcdn.com/sites/www.csteachers.org/resource/resmgr/Docs/Standards/2016StandardsRevision/INTERIM_StandardsFINAL_07222.pdf
- Georgia Department of Education. (2017). *Plans of study – Information technology*. Retrieved from <http://www.gadoe.org/Curriculum-Instruction-and-Assessment/CTAE/Pages/POS-Info-Tech.aspx>
- Hales, J. (2017). 15 Top-paying certifications for 2017. *Global Knowledge*. Retrieved from <https://www.globalknowledge.com/ca-en/content/articles/top-paying-certifications/>
- Hein, R. (2012, August 27). 12 IT Certifications that deliver career advancement. *CIO from IDG*. Retrieved from <http://www.cio.com/article/2392856/careers-staffing/12-it-certifications-that-deliver-career-advancement.html>
- iBooks author. (n.d.). *Apple Inc*. Retrieved from <https://www.apple.com/ibooks-author/>
- International Society for Technology in Education. (n.d.). *ISTE Standards*. Retrieved from <http://www.iste.org/standards/standards>
- National Association of State Directors of Career Technical Education Consortium. (2013). *The state of career and technical education: An analysis of state CTE standards*. Retrieved from <https://careertech.org/sites/default/files/State-CTE-Standards-ReportFINAL.pdf>
- National Business Education Association (NBEA). (2013). *National standards for business education*. Reston, VA: Author.
- Nebraska Department of Education. (2017-2018). *Nebraska career education: CTE course codes and clearing endorsements*. Retrieved from https://www.education.ne.gov/wp-content/uploads/.../NCE_CourseCodes_20172018.pdf
- North Carolina Department of Public Instruction. (2017a). *2016 North Carolina career and technical education career clusters*. Retrieved from <http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/cte/>
- North Carolina Department of Public Instruction. (2017b). *Business, finance and information technology programs of study*. Retrieved from <http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/cte/program-areas/business/programs>

- Orey, M. (Ed.). (2001). Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology. *Global Text*. Retrieved from [https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Orey,+M.+\(Ed.\).+\(2001\).+Emerging+perspectives+on+learning,+teaching,+and+technology&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholar](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Orey,+M.+(Ed.).+(2001).+Emerging+perspectives+on+learning,+teaching,+and+technology&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholar)
- Sivakumaran, T., & Lux, A. C. (2011). Overcoming computer anxiety: A three-step process for adult learners. *US-China Education Review B*, 1, 154–160. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED524800>
- Utah State Office of Education. (2016). *CTE pathways program – Information technology education*. Retrieved from <http://www.schools.utah.gov/cte/pathways/>
- Wierschem, D., Zhang, G., & Johnston, C. (2010). Information technology certification value: An initial response from employers. *Journal of International Technology and Information Management*, 19(4), 89–108.

Business Communication

S. Ann Wilson

Marsha Bayless

Stephen F. Austin State University

Nacogdoches, TX

Christine Haririan

Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania

Bloomsburg, PA

Employers expect job candidates to have the requisite knowledge and technical skills to perform a specific job at some level of proficiency, but they also expect their employees to be able to effectively communicate. According to the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE, 2016), employers said that verbal communication is the most important candidate skill. Anthony and Garner (2016) found that half of the prospective employers they surveyed identified writing skills as the most commonly lacking skill in entry-level applicants. Technology continues to influence business communication in the classroom as well as in business organizations. Virtual work digitally mediated or enhanced communication, global communication, and just-in-time information exchange have joined the traditional communication skills (Waldeck, Durante, Helmuth, & Marcia, 2012).

As rapid changes in technology have impacted society, future business leaders must learn to communicate effectively through email, voice mail, text messaging, and instant messaging. Facebook and Twitter are increasingly used in the business world and demand skills from business graduates. A thorough understanding of cultural and ethical issues that impact the business communication field is also required.

This chapter addresses business communication framework components, teaching strategies, integrating business communication into other courses, and social media.

FRAMEWORK

The National Business Education Association's *National Standards for Business Education* (2013) provides standards with corresponding performance expectations for what America's students should know and be able to do in business. The standards address the areas of accounting, business law, career development, communication, economics and personal finance, entrepreneurship, information technology, international business, management, and marketing. All students must master oral and written communication skills in order to be ready to enter the work world and interact effectively with fellow employees as well as all individuals in society.

Importance of Communication Skills in Business

According to the National Association of Colleges and Employers, requisite competencies that broadly prepare college graduates for a successful transition into the workplace include oral/written communications (NACE, 2016). The *Wall Street Journal* found from 2.3 million LinkedIn profiles that nearly 58% of employees who touted stellar communication skills were hired over the course of a year (Davidson, 2016).

When asked what communication skills employers identify as important for new college graduates, of the 165 communication skills identified, oral communication was ranked first with electronic ranked as second while written was tied as third (Coffelt, Baker & Corey, 2016). Information and communication technologies may have advanced, but a need exists to recognize written language conventions to be followed in pedagogy, educational policy development, and research (Daffern, Mackenzie, & Hemmings, 2017).

Thompson (2017) listed business communication trends for 2017 as:

1. Virtual offices – millennials will make the traditional office environment more flexible while maintaining collaboration and engagement via digital channels.
2. Trust-building – digital communication creates lack of trust and the loss of personal touch, which could inhibit effective collaboration and community building.
3. Fintech – the sale of financial products using technology helps customers save, borrow, invest, and spend using smartphone apps and websites.
4. E-commerce vs. customer relationship management (CRM) – some customers still prefer bricks and mortar over digital, so CRM training will be especially important to keep customer loyalty.
5. Live video – online video accounts for more than 50 percent of mobile traffic.

6. Interactive sessions – online sessions designed as interactive workshops foster daily employee collaboration.

Social media is playing a larger role in communication and has blurred lines between personal and business communication. According to Walden (2016), rules for social media use are influenced by both organizational and individual factors. With blurred lines, employers are still wrestling with what is appropriate communication on company time versus break or private time.

Preparing students to meet these increasing expectations for communication skills is the continuing responsibility of business educators. Business communication for today's business educator is a varied and complex responsibility.

Business Communication Standards and Instructional Levels

Business Communication can be defined as the study of issues related to communication in the workplace. Those issues include oral communication, written communication (including application of basic language mechanics), interpersonal and team communication, nonverbal communication, and technological communication. Some universities refer to the course as Managerial Communication. As more high schools and community colleges work together on advanced placement courses and articulated credit to community colleges, Business Communication as a course title may be more frequently used than Business English at the secondary level, especially in career and technical offerings (Utah State Board of Education, 2009-2016).

Historically, Business English was a subject offered at the secondary level while Business Communication, a course with a broader perspective, was offered at the postsecondary and university levels. Business English can be defined as the use of basic language mechanics that are developed into organized ideas presented orally or in writing appropriately using precise language to ensure coherence, logical progression, and support for ideas in a business context. A high school Business English course includes a unit for the writing process and another unit for research. The first unit, writing process, includes writing essentials, effective communication skills, business documents and technology, data collection, and putting it all together. The second unit, research, includes incorporating varied resources, survey design and analysis, interviews, mission statements, and a business project (Texas Education Agency, 2017).

The *National Standards for Business Education* defined the role of communication in the business education curriculum as the following: “encourages mastery of all communication skills essential for interacting effectively with people in the workplace and in society. Of equal importance is the mastery of the basic skills—listening, reading, writing, and speaking—and their applications in both personal and professional settings.” (National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 40). Communication achievement standards are identified for the foundations of communication which are defined as active listening, the basic communication process, reading and research, and technology.

Further areas of communication are interpersonal skills (including professionalism and business etiquette), leadership, and collaborative communication.

Written communication is divided into mechanics and writing basics and business messages. Spoken communication includes speaking basics and presentation skills. Employment communication focuses on communication for employment success (National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 48). These skills must be taught in the context of application in both social and organizational settings. Specific objectives with two to four performance levels that align with elementary, middle/junior high, secondary, and postsecondary instructional levels are listed in the standards.

Foundations of Communication

As communication is a distinctive area that covers all disciplines of business education, it is unique. While courses may be explicitly designed for business communication, the concepts are also included throughout the business curriculum and should not be limited to only one course. As mentioned earlier, the ability to actively listen, to understand the basic communication process, to complete reading and research, and to incorporate technology throughout communication are key issues of the foundations of communication (National Business Education Association, 2013).

Interpersonal Skills

The achievement standard for interpersonal skills is to apply the “interpersonal skills in personal and professional environments to communicate effectively” (National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 43). Performance expectation levels are provided for Professionalism, Business Etiquette, Leadership, and Collaborative Communication.

Soft skills are personal attribute-driven general skills, such as the ability to give and receive feedback, work collaboratively, and manage time. They are usually self-developed (as opposed to hard skills, which are typically acquired in school or on the job), and these soft skills will help in a wide range of jobs, not just the target job being applied for.

Employers also look for employees with a positive work ethic. Some characteristics exhibited include honesty, discretion, respect for diversity, respect for others, and being cooperative. Honesty means taking responsibility for mistakes and owning up to failures. Discretion means not being involved in office gossip. Respect for diversity means understanding how important it is to have a diverse workplace which allows for more creativity and better problem solving regardless of ability, age, gender, or race. Respect for others is reflected in ones’ behavior. Respect for others’ time, consideration of people’s feelings and shared workspace, and willingness to hear and consider everyone’s opinion are desired attributes. (“Five characteristics,” n.d.).

Written Communication

The achievement standard for written communication is to “prepare clear, complete, concise, correct, and courteous written messages for personal and professional uses”

(National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 45). Performance expectation levels are provided for Mechanics and Writing Basics and Business Messages.

Spoken Communication

The achievement standard for spoken communication is to “demonstrate professional speaking techniques and strategies” (National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 47). This standard includes Speaking Basics and Presentations. The Speaking Basics includes such items as exchanging ideas in conversation, asking questions with confidence, discussing opinions and ideas both positively and tactfully, and organizing thoughts effectively before speaking. Presentations focuses on identifying purpose and audience, creating appropriate visual aids for the audience, and effective ways of delivering the presentation.

Employment Communication

The achievement standard for employment communication is to “communicate effectively for employment success” (National Business Education Association, 2013, p. 48). This standard relates to employment skills and documents concerning the employment process.

Meeting the levels in the framework may be accomplished through a variety of teaching strategies.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

Business educators must ensure that their students are well prepared for the workforce. The following are suggested ways to make such preparations: (a) Enhance students’ understanding of communication apprehension and its consequences in order to create sustainable solutions for students; (b) Provide instructional routines that focus on actively engaging all students in a wide variety of experiences and opportunities to speak, tell stories, and practice creative writing to gain proficiency in effective communications; (c) Develop interactive activities that provide fun ways for students to think about the impact that dress and grooming might have on hiring decisions and why employers want their employees to look professional; and (d) Develop academic standards to holistically assess oral, written, and professional presence skill development, despite assumptions of students’ abilities.

In order to prepare future business graduates, the following strategies are suggested for teaching writing, speaking, nonverbal communication, listening, and reading.

Writing Strategies

Students in the academic business communication course are often expected to write a document based on a problem or case for which they have no additional company information while in the workplace communication is often in layers. How can business students be prepared to effectively interact in the workplace?

Students should write, receive feedback, and edit their work as frequently as feasible in the business communication course. As grading student work is always a challenge, some assignments should be set up for peer review. Providing students the opportunity to edit other's work is a valuable skill that will be helpful to them as they work with colleagues in the workplace (Stowers & Barker, 2003).

It is critical that students understand the concept of audience. The one rule a successful writer cannot break is that the writing has to be about the reader and not the author (Max, 2016). To whom are they writing the documents and what are they trying to achieve? In the business communication course, students are often trying to judge what the teacher wants. In the workplace, they need to determine what the audience wants and needs.

Students should have practice with conducting research that will help them enhance the writing assignment. For example, if a student was asked to write to a client about a cruise vacation, that student might be required to go online and research a specific cruise on a cruise website for details that could be included in the letter to the client. This activity will help the student understand that when writing a business letter, more research may be required before writing.

The writing instructor should use activities and assignments that engage and motivate students (Zumbrunn & Krause, 2012). For example, if the business communication class is composed of 60% nonbusiness majors and a very technical business topic is selected for the writing assignment, the majority of students may not be interested. On the other hand, if a topic such as green practices or charitable giving is selected, students might be more interested in the writing assignment.

Real documents from the workplace in the classroom setting should be used when possible. The instructor could ask students to improve a poor example or explain why an example was a good one. This activity would also be a good problem for a team assessment or evaluation.

Business speakers could be asked about their experiences with written communication and what skills they believe are important. A study of business communication teachers and business executives found that both groups placed an emphasis on the importance of correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation (Rollins & Lewis, 2014). An idea to improve grammar and the correctness of writing is to allow five minutes of in-class editing time before an assignment is turned in. Students can review each other's work individually or in a team or examine their own work. Any corrections or marks they put on the assignment will not count against them (Smith, 2011).

Software is available that may assist students in an individualized approach to improving their grammar. Some software comes with textbooks as a supplement. Use of such supplements may provide writing assistance to students outside of the regular class (Sigmar & Cooper, 2011).

Reflective writing assignments that allow students to link textbook theory with real work experiences can be a valuable tool for developing critical thinking in the writing process.

Another teaching option at the postsecondary level is to involve students in competitive events related to business communication. The Association for Business Communication (ABC) conducts an annual writing contest for business students at the university level. Students review a case problem and write a solution (ABC, 2017).

American University, Washington, D.C., established its Kogod Center for Business Communications (KCBC) in 2006 to expose faculty to best practices in pedagogy to support communication skills building ("Communication," 2015). Instructors are encouraged to implement the following practices: (a) Design progressive assignments. "A fundamental for students to learn to write well is to turn in iterative drafts, not just one big project at the end of the semester," (para. 8); (b) Comment on early drafts. This practice "helps students think and express themselves more clearly" (para. 8); (c) Critique presentation skills. "We not only provide feedback, but also have student teams critique one another's presentations" (para. 9); (d) Incorporate peer editing to integrate peer editing into each writing assignment. "Sometimes young writers need to get some distance from what they just wrote or said by evaluating someone else" (para. 10); (e) Give "assignment makeovers." (f) Emphasize revision by breaking assignments into smaller chunks on the syllabus. Faculty can more effectively focus students' attention on the project and help them learn the crucial benefits of revising their work.

Speaking Strategies

Some employers request improved oral presentation skills in applicants more frequently than written skills. Skill development is needed in public speaking, confidence boosting, interviewing skills, and interpersonal skills. With traditional, as well as emerging modes of communication, best practices for efficient, effective communication will be crucial for success in communicating messages that are understood with the same meaning for both the sender and the receiver (Lear, Hodge, & Schulz, 2015). How can students be prepared to meet employers' expectations for spoken communication? As with any skill, perfect practice makes perfect. In other words, the more opportunities students have to practice speaking informally or formally to different audiences, the more successful they will be when this skill is required in the workplace. Student organizations can play an integral part in providing students avenues to perfect their speaking skills.

To help students develop professional skills, oral exams can be an important component of business classes to build and assess business communication skills that are desired by managers (Burke-Smalley, 2014). Role playing and discussions are other teaching methods to put students into a scenario to practice real-world applications to specific problems. In order for role playing to be successful, the teacher should remember the following adapted tips ("The Essentials," n.d.):

- **Prepare carefully:** Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand.
- **Set a goal or outcome:** Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other.
- **Use role cards:** Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that person might use.
- **Brainstorm:** Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use.
- **Keep groups small:** Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices.
- **Give students time to prepare:** Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them.
- **Be present as a resource, not a monitor:** Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it.
- **Allow students to work at their own levels:** Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion or to use every grammar point you have taught.
- **Do topical follow-up:** Have students report to the class on the outcome of their role plays.
- **Do linguistic follow-up:** After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This follow-up can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, succeed when the instructor prepares students first and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- **Prepare the students:** Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it.
- **Offer choices:** Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence.
- **Set a goal or outcome:** This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor or individual reports on the views of others in the group.

- **Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion:** Large groups can make participation difficult.
- **Keep it short:** Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say.
- **Allow students to participate in their own way:** Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation.
- **Do topical follow-up:** Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion.
- **Do linguistic follow-up:** After the discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This activity can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Through well-prepared communicative output activities such as role plays and discussions, students are encouraged to experiment and innovate within a supportive atmosphere that allows them to make mistakes without fear of embarrassment. Such opportunities will contribute to their self-confidence as speakers and to their motivation to learn more.

Telling a story is another way that students can practice effective speaking. Almost any aspect of business can be turned into a relevant and interesting story which will help to convey a message (Santos, 2014.)

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication includes all the gestures, expressions, and tones that accompany verbal communication and may include over 90% of the weight of a typical communication (Morella, 2010). Nonverbal communication can include facial expression, eye contact, voice, posture, breath, and attention. An understanding of these components can help an executive give effective feedback and can help an employee receive it (Seppala, 2017). Nonverbal behavior and communication is a frequently discussed topic in the workplace. A review of the academic work in nonverbal communication was conducted by Bonaccio, O'Reilly, O'Sullivan, and Chioocchio from the University of Ottawa (2016).

Effective nonverbal communication can increase an employee's success on the job. A study by the *Harvard Business Review* found that employees were more involved in their work when their bosses treated them with respect. Several suggestions to improve credibility in the workplace related to nonverbal communication including dress the part with a professional image, avoid speaking in questions where your sentences end on a high inflection, and focusing on good posture (Walcutt, 2016).

Nonverbal communication may involve gender issues as well. Isozaki (2015) suggested that nonverbal communication can be a critical skill for women as credibility can

be enhanced by displaying a confident style, speaking in a positive way, and not letting one's voice trail away in a whisper. To be effective, a woman must sound like she knows the material and is comfortable in discussing it with others.

When working with management teams, nonverbal communication can be a key ingredient in successfully interpreting the team experience. Wall and Morgan (2015) designed a hierarchical-group problem solving situation that involved a blind-folded participant assembling a puzzle with instruction from other team members. Picking up on nonverbal cues as well as other communication skills was critical to the successful completion of the simulation.

Conducting activities for students to become more aware of nonverbal communication could include such activities as having a team of students study and report on a specific culture and focus on nonverbal communication. Another idea would be to turn down the sound on a television program and try to read the nonverbal communication. Role playing exercises with students acting out different roles could also be helpful in learning about nonverbal communication (Bayless, 2005).

Educational and Workforce Implications

Olszewski, Panorska, and Gillam (2017) reported on one of the first studies examining the outcomes of a training program to improve verbal and nonverbal communication skills for adolescents for the purpose of improving their performance on initial job interviews. The data empirically supported the use of a comprehensive program targeting specific oral and nonverbal skills to bring about significant positive changes in adolescents' verbal and nonverbal communication skills.

The Language for Scholars (LFS) program may be helpful to educators who are working to assist adolescents in meeting requirements for higher education and for improving their ability to be competitive in the workforce. This program may be chosen if educators wish to bring about improvements in both verbal (revisions, false starts, repetitions) and nonverbal communication (stance, facial expressions, eye contact, and gestures) during interviews. LFS may give adolescents the extra verbal and nonverbal communication skills that will make them stand out against the millennials and retirees who are competing for the same jobs.

Listening Strategies

Good listening is essential for effective communication. Students at every level must be made aware of their own listening skill through exercises that deal with listening and recall of facts. According to Cox (2009-2017), the following ten teaching strategies can help students listen:

- Incorporate teaching strategies that model good listening skills, e.g., offering praise and acknowledging students' accomplishments and not correcting every single thing the students says wrong.
- Develop a personal relationship with your students.

- Use a hand signal to sharpen listening skills.
- Talk less and have students talk more.
- Utilize technology to teach students about what they are learning.
- Give students a listening task through partnering with another student.
- Have students “check-in” with each other for information missed.
- Hold all students accountable for listening by only giving them half of the notes.
- Listen for questions by allowing pauses for students to write them down.
- Break the monotony by varying when students might be called on.

Students may find self-help tips for developing active listening skills on the Mind-Tools website (“Active,” n.d.). A practical exercise to reinforce active listening is for students to create podcasts to which other students listen and respond. Also, Ferrari-Bridgers, Vogel, and Lynch (2015) provided a great resource for teachers to foster critical listening with a method to assess and measure any increase in students’ listening skills.

Reading Strategies

Teachers should focus on the reading process rather than the product. By using reading material that students will use in other contexts outside the classroom, students are able to develop reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and nonrelevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension (“The Essential,” n.d.).

Activities to help students develop reading skills include prereading, while reading, and postreading (“The Essential,” n.d.). Prereading activities include teaching the student to use the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information. Students should be encouraged to look at graphics and captions to infer meaning of the content. While reading activities could include techniques to skim the text for the main topic, students should also look at vocabulary and watch for grammatical structures. Postreading activities include checking for comprehension and application.

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) helps students learn specific strategies associated with enhanced reading comprehension, including activating prior knowledge and setting a purpose for reading (“preview”); monitoring understanding and taking steps to fix comprehension when it breaks down (“click and clunk”); finding the main idea of short sections of text (“get the gist”); and generating questions and reviewing key ideas (“wrap up”) (Abuhasnah, 2015).

INTEGRATION OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION INTO OTHER COURSES

For students to be successful in business communication, they need to have reinforcement across the curriculum. Other business courses should involve the key speak-

ing and writing activities. Hoskins (2014), provided five painless tips for developing and refining writing skills:

- Read to learn to write well.
- Get your writer's six-pack with writing exercise.
- Track and change your writing by letting it rest for a day or two then revisit and edit as you rewrite.
- Keep a journal.
- Note to self to check for audience appropriateness.

Echoing the importance of writing during class, the instructor can show the importance of writing by providing some time each day for writing during class. The topic of the writing should be clearly focused, of interest to students, and related to the course content. In addition, the instructor should provide feedback to students (Zumbrunn & Krause, 2012).

In order to integrate business communication skills across a business curriculum, the curriculum designer may wish to decide where in the curriculum various business communication skills should be emphasized. For example, speaking assignments may be given in a business communication course. However, reinforcement may be provided in other courses. An example would be to add speaking assignments to at least two other courses. If one asked students in accounting to explain a company's financial statements, this would be an easy way to add speaking to the accounting course. In a marketing course, instructors could add a speaking assignment related to an advertising idea or campaign that a company might be running. For concepts of listening and nonverbal communication, the instructor might add an assignment to an economics class of asking students to view a television program on financial news and ask them to summarize key points (listening) and relate the impact of any nonverbal communication. A similar activity could be assigned to a finance class. As team integration is a key component in many business classes, communication in teams can focus on team sand oral communication skills.

An easy way to add writing or speaking to a business class is to add a related assignment when designing course modules or units. Course modules will dictate what type of writing or speaking assignment is most effective. For example, an early module might include an email or a short memo with more complicated writing appearing later in a course.

Internet Resources

The Internet abounds with resources related to ideas about business communication. Searching with an Internet browser will produce current results. The following websites relating to business communication are a sampling of what can be found on the Internet.

Skills You Need https://www.skillsyouneed.com/	This website offers information to develop and improve interpersonal and leadership skills.
Coursera https://www.coursera.org/	This forum is designed for college courses that include recorded video lectures, auto-graded and peer-reviewed assignments, and community discussion forums.
Purdue OWL http://owl.english.purdue.edu/	This writing center provides handouts and information. It focuses on grades 7-12 as well as the collegiate level.
UN World Food Program www.freerice.com	This website combines grammar and vocabulary practice with the opportunity to earn free rice for those in need. Other subject areas are also included.
Syntaxis www.syntaxis.com	This site is for business communication training for business professionals. A series of free grammar quizzes is available.
Brain POP www.brainpop.com	This site offers some information about various secondary school subjects. Under writing, cartoon-style videos are available. One describes blogs and provides a quiz afterward.
FLRT www.Mindplay.com	This is a reading fluency tool to increase reading comprehension. Pricing is based on the number of students using the system.
Youseeu www.Youseeu.com	This site allows an instructor to set up a class and students can post videos of their presentations, PowerPoint slides supporting the presentations, and sync the two together. The instructor can view videos and post comments. Especially useful for online experiences. Fees are determined by the number of students and minutes used.
Word Press www.wordpress.com	A site that will let students build blogs that can be used to work on written communication.
Google Blogger www.blogger.com	This site lets a user create a free blog. Blogs can be used to improve writing.
Flat World www.flatworldknowledge.com	This website provides access to free college textbooks in a variety of business areas.
Mind Tools www.mindtools.com	This site showcases information on improving several business communication areas including active listening.

SOCIAL MEDIA

Social media sites, such as Facebook, Twitter, and others, are rapidly changing the way everyone communicates whether personally or professionally (Walden, 2016). Not only has social media impacted personal communication, more businesses are using social media to connect with customers and employees.

An additional issue relating to social media is accessing the technology during work hours. Some companies define how personal use of social media can be handled in the workplace. In a study of Navy personnel, Stanko and Beckman (2015) found that a key issue relating to technology was that personnel were anxious to connect with contact family and friends for nonwork tasks during work time. When attention was diverted

from the job at hand to nonwork tasks, productivity suffered. Security problems could also occur when using nonwork applications and thus cause issues that employees were not aware of and which could affect the safety and security of the work environment. Monitoring employees' nonwork use of technology can be an overwhelming challenge. Software is being designed to examine all of an employee's use of technology to compare it to other employees to compare how workers use the technology and to find any areas that might need special attention (Stanko & Bechman, 2015).

Swan (2014) suggested various ways students can use tech tools such as Google Docs, Moodle, and Naviance to assess "soft skills." Although the results reported here are mixed - the studies reported both advantages and disadvantages to teaching and learning with social network sites (SNSs) - several themes were apparent that are relevant to the professional preparation and development of teachers. First, teachers (and students) who were more active social network site users in their personal lives were among the strongest supporters of this new media in education and reported plans to use it in future teaching practices. Thus, teacher education efforts might assess whether, how and why teachers are using widely available and popular technologies in their personal lives and then tailor opportunities to practice and reflect on using the technology in the profession.

Although general technology use and adoption surveys have found that teachers are fairly proficient in their computer and Internet skills generally and have fairly high computer self-efficacy, their workload and a structured and standardized curriculum have been found to be inhibitors to social media adoption (Kale & Goh, 2014). Age, self-efficacy, workload, and views about social media in teaching were found to be significant factors predicting teachers' likelihood to espouse this technology for teaching. Thus, infrastructural improvements (e.g., students' not having computers or Internet access at home), work load adjustments, and increased professional development opportunities are needed to promote the integration of SNSs in teaching practices (Kale & Goh, 2014). Second, although students generally believed in the potential of using social network sites as supports for learning, their actual academic help-seeking, collaborative learning, and other self-directed educational activities within SNSs occurred outside of school. Students' saw little evidence of teaching with SNSs in their classes; SNS use was reported, they perceived these efforts as primarily reinforcing traditional pedagogies and assessments.

Given young people's use of these everyday technologies for various informal learning purposes, teachers need to better understand their students' out-of-school practices if they are to improve their teaching with SNSs (Luckin et al., 2009). This knowledge includes understanding variability in their students' attitudes, prior knowledge, and experience. Sustained professional development opportunities that expose teachers to research about students' experiences with social media and to techniques for assessing their students' knowledge, attitudes, and expectations would help fulfill this need.

Third, teacher education initiatives should set up opportunities to critically evaluate recent research literature on conditions for potentially beneficial or harmful social media integration (e.g., the importance of fostering a learning attitude and students' views of social media as potential spaces for learning, language and literacy development, collaboration, self-direction and co-production rather than merely spaces for socializing, teacher-driven content learning, or distraction).

Communication in New Media

“New Media” is a 21st century catchall term used to define all that is related to the Internet and the interplay among technology, images, and sound (Socha & Eber-Schmid, 2014). Because this area evolves and morphs continuously, it is very difficult to define since what it will be tomorrow is hard to predict. The cell phone, which was once considered new media, is now replaced by the “smart phone,” that enables the user to surf the Internet and use downloadable apps for everything from shopping, communication, and entertainment.

Social media applications were originally used to make communication among friends and family easier and faster. Social media entered the business realm with sites like LinkedIn to connect business professionals who were seeking those with common business interests. With the rapid expansion of social media, businesses soon observed that having a Facebook page for a company or product was a fast way to contact and get feedback from interested customers. When customers tweeted about a bad customer experience at a business, companies found it in their best interests to follow tweets to solve problems quickly and effectively.

Communication through social media has changed expectations for many people. The communication has to be faster and shorter. Some individuals new to texting believe responses are rude. Those who have long texted one-word answers such as “yes,” “no,” and “duh” think a longer message is too much to read. According to a study by Walden (2016), three primary (and sanctioned) uses for social media at work were accessing Facebook and Twitter for mental breaks during the day, sharing task-related information tips on internal organizational blogs, and communicating with professional clients via personally maintained social networking sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn. Since there are over 3 billion Internet users, with over 2 billion of them having active social media accounts, businesses are now using the popular social platforms for marketing and gaining valuable data about customers (Copp, 2016).

Etiquette and Technology

Old-school manners still have a place with new-school technology. While in the past, a person could leave a cell phone in the office when attending a meeting, how does that work when the phone is so much more than merely a phone? In fact, it can be one's timepiece, calendar, contact information, and message center. When technology becomes wearable and becomes embedded in everything people do, how does the etiquette work then? What if an employee has been sitting in an important meeting for

too long and their fitness tracker announces it is time to move? What if there is an alert on their watch? The key to correct etiquette will be how the employee responds. Do they focus on the people around them or decide that the electronic message is more important and should be answered immediately (Lamoreaux, 2016).

Another challenge of technology is immediacy. Increasingly, a fast response is not necessarily the best response. In the rush to respond, mistakes might be made in tone, content, or style. Was a text style of response used to an email accidentally? These kinds of errors can impact one's image in the company. While most users no longer have to be reminded not to send their email message in all caps, a learning curve usually takes place in the use of technology. As technology use increases, users begin to learn what is acceptable and what is not, and these expectations change over time. For example, texting under the table is something that is being done less frequently than it once was (Budman, 2013). A current trend is to ask people not to leave the phone on the table, since you seem to be waiting for a message and your priority will be to pick up the phone as soon as possible (Budman, 2013).

Etiquette when using social media is also key to workplace success. Using technology ranging from text messages, email, social media, cell phones, and tablets does not stop at knowing how to work the various devices or use the different web sites. In fact, knowing when and how to use technology can have a lasting impact on a business student's success in the workplace. Students should understand that a casual posting to a social media site may be viewed by others in the workplace and impact the impression of the student. For example, if an employee posts that meetings at a conference are boring and they would rather be socializing at local drinking establishments, an employer or other person in the company would not appreciate such comments (Budman, 2013).

An exercise which would help students to deal with the idea of etiquette in technology would be to have them work in teams to come up with a list of common sense rules for using technology. Then have them interview individuals of different ages with different types of work experience and ask for input about the lists. The instructor could then follow up the exercise with a discussion of any differences between the student lists and the interview results.

SUMMARY

Business communication skills are critical for today's business graduates. Merely understanding how to operate a machine or software will not be sufficient in the year 2030. Students must understand that learning is a constant process requiring all of their communication skills of writing, speaking, nonverbal, listening, and reading. The Information Age continues as technology advances and social media and the Internet play an even more important part in the way everyone communicates. In addition to using new communication sources, the etiquette of new technology must be considered for successful business communication. Teachers should realize that the Internet may be their greatest resource to obtain new ideas and techniques for improving student communication.

REFERENCES

- Active listening: Hear what people are really saying (n.d.). *MindTools: Essential Skills for an Excellent Career*. Retrieved from <http://www.mindtools.com/CommSkill/ActiveListening.htm>.
- Abuhasnah, R. (2015, April 27). A comprehensive strategy to enhance content area learning. *Edutopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.edutopia.org/discussion/collaborative-strategic-reading-csr-comprehension-strategy-enhance-content-area-learning>
- Anthony, S., & Garner, B. (2016). Teaching soft skills to business students: An analysis of multiple pedagogical methods. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*, 79(4), 360-463. doi:10.177/2329490616642247.
- Association for Business Communication (ABC). (2017). *Student writing contest*. Retrieved from <http://www.businesscommunication.org/page/2017-student-writing-contest>
- Bayless, M. L. (2005). Nonverbal communication: The silent but important language. In J. C. Scott (Ed.), *Communication for a global society: NBEA 2005 yearbook*. (No. 43, pp. 146-157). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Bonaccio, S., O'Reilly, J., O'Sullivan, S. L., and Chiocchio, F. (2016). Nonverbal behavior and communication in the workplace: A review and an agenda for research. *Journal of Management*, 42(5), 1044-1074. doi:10.1177/0149206315621146.
- Budman, M. (2013). Stop texting under the table. *Conference Board Review*, 50(4), 18-23.
- Burke-Smalley, L. A. (2014, June 27). Using oral exams to assess communication skills in business courses. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*, 77(3), 266-280. doi:10-1177/2329490614537873.
- Coffelt, T. A., Baker, M. J., & Corey, R. C. (2016, May 25). Business communication practices from employers' perspectives. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*. doi:10.1177/2329490616644014.
- Communication channels. Why teaching communication is "everyone's job." (2015, September 4). *BizEd*, Retrieved from <https://bized.aacsb.edu/articles/2015/09/communication-channels>
- Copp, E. (2016, August 17). 10 benefits of social media for business. *Hootsuite for Enterprise*. Retrieved from <https://blog.hootsuite.com/social-media-for-business/>
- Cox, J. (2009-2017). 10 teaching strategies to help students listen. *Teach Hub.Com: K-12 News, Lessons and Shared Resources By Teachers, For Teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.teachhub.com/10-teaching-strategies-help-students-listen>.
- Daffern, T., Mackenzie, N. M., & Hemmings, B. (2017, January 16). Predictors of writing success: How important are spelling, grammar and punctuation? *Australian Journal of Education*, 61(1), 1-13. doi:10.1177/0004944116685319.
- Davidson, K. (2016, August 30). The 'soft skills' employers are looking for: Communication, teamwork, punctuality and critical thinking are in high demand, an analysis of 2.3 million LinkedIn profiles. *The Wall Street Journal*. Retrieved from <https://blogs.wsj.com/economics/2016/08/30/the-soft-skills-employers-are-looking-for/>

- The essentials of language teaching—Guidelines for building communicative competence. (n.d.). *Resources*. Retrieved from <https://essentialsoflanguageteachingnet.wordpress.com/resources/>.
- Ferrari-Bridgers, F. & Vogel, R., & Lynch, B., (2015, March 12). Fostering and assessing critical listening skills in the speech course. *International Journal of Listening*, 31(1). doi: /10.1080/10904018.2015.1020231.
- Five characteristics of having good work ethics. (n.d.). *Career Trend*. Retrieved from <https://careertrend.com/13361479/five-characteristics-of-having-good-work-ethics>
- Hoskins, R. (2014, March 25). Why good writing skills are important in today's workplace – and tips for developing them. *Executive Secretary Magazine*. Retrieved from <http://executivesecretary.com/why-good-writing-skills-are-important-in-todays-workplace-and-tips-for-developing-them/>
- Isozaki, C. (2015). Plan to be amazing. *California CPA*, 83(8), 21.
- Kale, U., & Goh, D. (2014, March). Teaching style, ICT experience and teachers' attitudes toward teaching with Web 2.0. *Education and Information Technologies*, 19(1), 41–60.
- Lamoreaux, K. (2016). Wearables: Etiquette in the workplace. *Cio.com*, 12–13.
- Lear, J. L., Hodge, K. A., & Schultz, S. A. (2015) Talk to me!! Effective, efficient communication, *Journal for Research in Business Education*, 57(1), 64–77.
- Luckin, R., Clark, W., Graberb, R., Logana, K., Meea, A., & Olivera, M. (2009, June). Do Web 2.0 tools really open the door to learning? Practices, perceptions and profiles of 11–16-year-old students. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 34(2), 87–104.
- Max, T. (2016, September 13). The one unbreakable rule in business writing. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*, 2–5. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2016/09/the-one-unbreakable-rule-in-business-writing>
- Morella, M. (2010, December). Try talking for a change: Face time may beat email. *U.S. News and World Report*, 48–49.
- National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE). (2016, February 24). Employers say verbal communication most important candidate skill. *NACEweb*. Retrieved from <http://www.nacweb.org/career-readiness/competencies/employers-verbal-communication-most-important-candidate-skill/>
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- Olszewski, A., Panorska, A., & Gillam, S. L. (2017). Training verbal and nonverbal communications interview skills to adolescents. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 38(4). doi:10.1177/1525740116678095
- Rollins, W., & Lewis, S. (2014). A comparison of processes used by business executives and university business communication teachers to evaluate selected business documents. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 18(1), 139–147.
- Santos, A. (2014, April 1). Folktales aloud: Practical advice for playful storytelling. *School Library Journal*, 60(4), 193.
- Seppala, E. (2017, January 20). When giving critical feedback, focus on your nonverbal cues. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*, 2–5. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2017/01/when-giving-critical-feedback-focus-on-your-nonverbal-cues>

- Sigmar, L. S., & Cooper, T. W. (2011). Incorporating web-assisted instruction into the business communication curriculum. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 15 (Special Issue), 1-13.
- Socha, B., & Eber-Schmid, B. (2014). What is new media? Defining new media isn't easy. *New Media Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.newmedia.org/what-is-new-media.html>
- Smith, W. (2011, March/April). The literate business student. *BizEd* 10(2), 42-48.
- Stanko, T. L., & Beckman, C. M. (2015). Watching you watching me: Boundary control and capturing attention in the context of ubiquitous technology use. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(3), 712-738. doi:10.5465/amj.2012.0911
- Stowers, R. H., & Barker, R. T. (2003). Improved student writing in business communication classes: Strategies for teaching and evaluation. *Journal of Technical Writing and Communication*, 33(4), 337-348. <https://doi.org/10.2190/02MT-8NUL-KVHR-8R7M>
- Swan, C. (2014). Tech tools for assessing the “soft” skills. *Technology & Learning. Questia*. Retrieved from <https://www.questia.com/magazine/1G1-367822737/tech-tools-for-assessing-the-soft-skills>
- Texas Education Agency (2017, March 23). *Career and technical education – Business English*. Retrieved from <http://cte.unt.edu/business/business-english>
- Thompson, E. (2017). 6 business communication trends for 2017. *The Huffington Post, Inc.* Retrieved from http://www.huffingtonpost.ca/evan-thompson/6-business-communication-_b_13625468.html
- Utah State Board of Education (2009-2016). *Business and marketing education: Preparing students for the world of business*. Retrieved from <http://www.schools.utah.gov/CTE/business/Course-Information.aspx>
- Walcutt, L. (2016, November 2). Get no respect? Here're 4 ways to increase your work cred. *Forbes.com*. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/levelup/2016/11/02/get-no-respect-herere-4-ways-to-increase-your-work-cred/#222a1f6c926>
- Wall, K. H., & Morgan, S. (2015). Puzzled? A hierarchical-group, problem solving simulation. *Simulation and Gaming*, 46(5), 631-642.
- Waldeck, J., Durante, C., Helmuth, B., & Marcia, B. (2012). Communication in a changing world: Contemporary perspectives on business communication competence. *Journal of Education for Business*, 87(4), 230-240. doi:10.1080/08832323.2011.608388.
- Walden, J. A. (2016), Integrating social media into the workplace: A study of shifting technology use repertoires. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 60(2), 347-363. doi:10.1080/08838151.2016.1164163.
- Zumbrunn, S., & Krause, K. (2012). Conversations with leaders: Principles of effective writing instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 65(5), 346-353. doi:10.1002/TRTR.01053.

Accounting

Sharon Garvin
Wayne State College
Wayne, NE

In a broad sense, accounting involves meeting the financial information needs in the economy. There is power in understanding how the reports are generated and what the numbers mean. Responsive accounting educators are always seeking better ways to attract, educate, and develop students into becoming the business professionals most certainly needed in the workplaces of the future. This chapter will define a focus for accounting education and provide suggestions for strategies and resources that may be used.

THE PURPOSE OF ACCOUNTING EDUCATION

To continue to be relevant, the accounting function within an organization must rapidly adapt to the increased complexity, global expansion and competition, and technological opportunities and threats that exist in the world today. Therefore, *accounting education*, to be relevant, must also quickly adapt to better prepare the accounting and business professionals of the future. There is a need for curricula to close the gap between what accounting professionals do and what students are taught to do in the accounting classes they take. A stronger focus on professional judgment, decision making, and how accounting provides key information for making those decisions, together become the updated focus of accounting education.

THE ACCOUNTING EDUCATION MINDSET

There have been a number of accounting education change proposals over the years (Bedford, 1986; AECC, 1990; Albrecht & Sack, 2000). During that time, some aspects of

accounting education changed drastically; others did not. In 2008, the U. S. Treasury's Advisory Committee on the Auditing Profession felt new initiatives were necessary and recommended that the American Accounting Association (AAA) and American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA) jointly form a commission to recommend a new structure for accounting education. The collaboration of these two groups would be powerful as the AAA is the United States' primary organization for accounting academics (who prepare accounting professionals for the workplace) and the AICPA is the United States' primary professional organization for public accountants (often the primary consumer of accounting graduates entering the profession). The Pathways Commission was formed in 2010 to propose a new structure for "education for the accounting profession and develop recommendations for educational pathways to engage and retain the strongest possible community of students, academics, practitioners, and other knowledgeable leaders in the practice and study of accounting" (Pathways, 2012, p. 9).

The Pathways Commission

Initial efforts of the Pathways Commission resulted in the report, "Charting a National Strategy for the Next Generation of Accountants," issued in July 2012. Seven broad recommendations were made, the fourth and fifth of which are most relevant for this chapter:

- Develop curriculum models, engaging learning resources, and mechanisms for easily sharing them, as well as enhancing faculty development opportunities in support of sustaining a robust curriculum.
- Improve the ability to attract high-potential, diverse entrants into the profession.

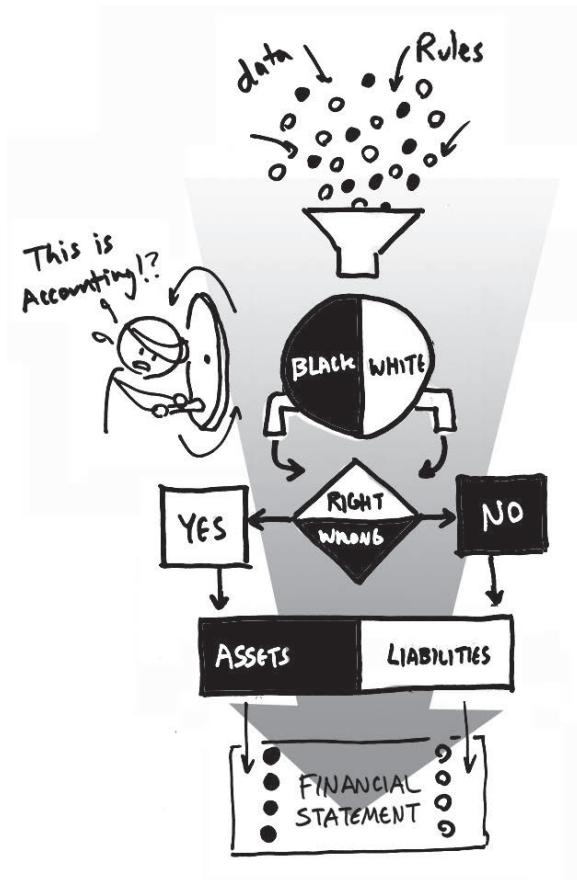
A main difference between these efforts and those of earlier calls for accounting education revision came from the seventh recommendation in which the Pathways group committed itself to a more forceful implementation of the improvements. The recommendations were introduced in a 40-minute presentation video by William Ezzell, which may be found online at the following link. The portion of that video related to the fourth recommendation occurs approximately between the 26-minute to 32-minute points of the video and notes the willingness of the National Business Education Association (NBEA) to receive and adopt new materials for use in accounting education at the introductory levels. <http://www.aicpa.org/News/AICPATV/Pages/Home.aspx?bctid=1671993390001>

The Impact of the First Course in Accounting and the Pathways Vision Model

Select members of the Pathways Commission then set out to define a vision for students' first academic exposure to accounting, regardless of whether that exposure occurred at a high school, community college, or four-year college/university. First impressions matter, and a negative perception of accounting in the initial class may discourage those who have the highest abilities for success in the profession from pursuing

accounting-related careers. The group noted that the public perception of accounting was often of a narrow, tedious, mechanical, and always-black-or-white vocation as noted in the diagram shown as Figure 1. But that perception is erroneous. Accounting is so much more than the technical debits and credits of bookkeeping that one can learn for free on the Internet. The great need is to shift perspectives so all recognize the larger role accounting plays in a prosperous society. The value accountants supply result from their provision, analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of accounting information to help stakeholders solve problems, plan strategically, or make decisions. Figure 2, known as the Pathways Commission Vision Model, is depicted here (Pathways, 2013).

FIGURE 1. Accounting: The Perception



American
Accounting
Association

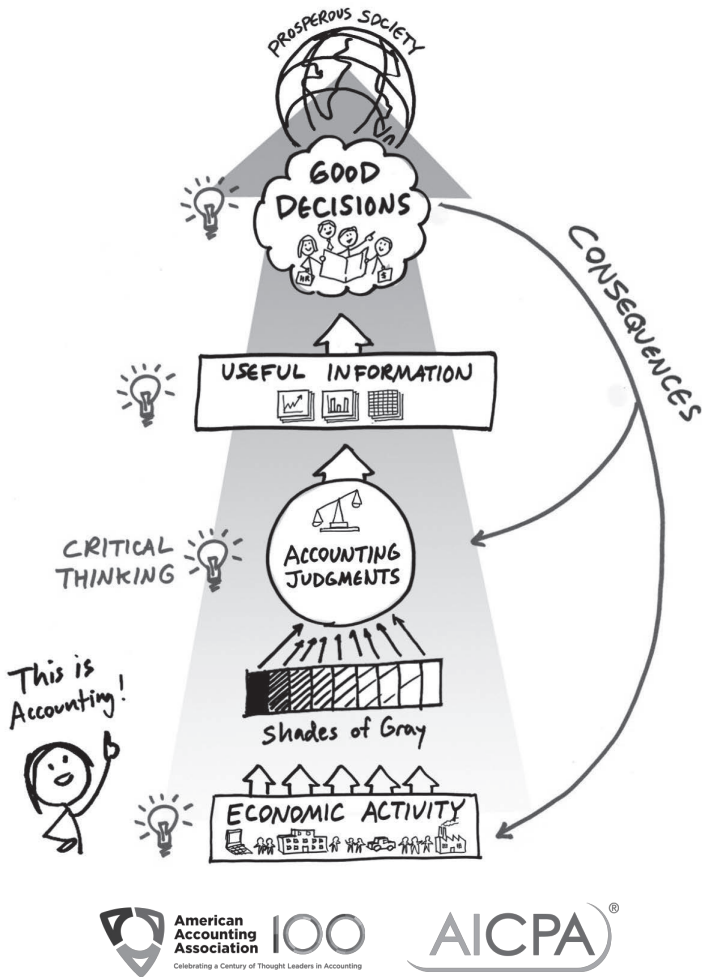
Celebrating a Century of Thought Leaders in Accounting

100



This work is by The Pathways Commission and is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NoDerivs 3.0 Unported License.

FIGURE 2. Accounting: The Reality



American
Accounting
Association
Celebrating a Century of Thought Leaders in Accounting

100

AICPA®



This work is by The Pathways Commission and is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NoDerivs 3.0 Unported License.

The light bulbs in the diagram represent opportunities for critical thinking. Starting from the bottom of Figure 2, readers should note how economic activity is often more “gray” in nature (as opposed to black and white) such that it is subject to an accountant’s professional judgment in deciding if, when, and how the economic activity should be measured. This judgment is developed through critical thinking. The accountant also must exercise professional judgment in deciding how to subsequently report the information (critical thinking skill) which will have a direct impact on whether the information will be judged as useful by stakeholders (another critical thinking skill) who will

then use the information to make decisions (still another critical thinking skill). Thus, if accountants have succeeded in supplying reliable financial information needed by users in a timely manner and in a reporting format that users can understand, then those users will make good decisions which will benefit society. Because the decisions will have economic activity consequences, the cycle begins again. Accounting both affects and is affected by all of the elements in the system.

Reviewing the diagram again assuming an internal user focus provides a different perspective. Many businesses use accounting metrics for goal-setting and reward systems for employees. The selected accounting measures are meant to motivate the employees to make the “good decisions” to work harder or smarter which, in turn, will increase productivity for the benefit of the firm. Experience notes, however, that some managers and employees may deceive others through accounting system manipulation to produce erroneous reports in hopes of receiving undeserved rewards. In response, accounting professionals developed internal control systems to detect such frauds or, better yet, prevent them from occurring in the first place. Controls are part of accounting also. The teaching of the significance and purpose of internal controls in keeping the accounting system true to its purpose will continue to be increasingly important in accounting education.

One conclusion from this model is that all students in introductory accounting classes, not only those with accounting career aspirations, must develop critical thinking skills. Each decision maker must understand the perspectives, environments, and decisions to be made by the other decision makers. The Pathways Commission recommends accounting educators introduce the Vision Model during the first course in accounting, explaining the basics of each element and describing how all are interconnected. Subsequent accounting classes should revisit the model, as students’ expanded learning enhances their capacity for making professional judgments and for increasing their understanding of the larger role of accounting in society (Wilson & Wilson, 2013).

G. Peter Wilson, past president of the AAA and part of the Pathways Vision for Accounting Education Committee, explained how the Vision Model could be utilized in an introductory financial accounting course. As topics are covered, students assume the role of outsiders and are shown examples of real company financial statements and footnotes related to those topics. Next, instructors provide fictitious company information so students can assume the role of insiders, seeing the underlying economic activity and accounting decisions that had to be made. Finally, students return to an outsider role, now better understanding the information, why it was provided to users, and how it can assist them in making decisions (Wilson, 2015).

LEARNING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Is there an overall purpose that may be stated here to guide the setting of detailed objectives at the high school and early college levels? The Pathways Commission, having defined an extensive list of learning objectives for undergraduate accounting majors, concluded that the accounting profession’s defining attribute was professional judgment

(Pathways, 2015). Thus, in shortened form, the primary goal of accounting education should be the development of professional judgment capabilities in students. Alternatively, a recent study of prominent accounting educators concluded that learning objectives should focus primarily on the ways that accountants add value to the organizations that employ them (Lawson, et al., 2014).

NBEA National Standards for Accounting Education

The *National Standards for Business Education*, a publication of the National Business Education Association, has an accounting education section that correctly emphasizes the importance of understanding, interpreting, and using accounting information to make business decisions. The Standards recognize that in order to demonstrate these competencies, students must gain familiarity with (a) typical financial reports issued by accountants, (b) basic analysis methods for using reports, (c) the underlying principles used by accountants for the measurement and reporting decisions made in preparing reports, and (d) the internal control safeguards to provide assurance so users may rely on the integrity of reports. Accounting process performance expectations are still included but over time have become a smaller part of the educational experience as technological innovations continue to streamline the bookkeeping parts of accounting. This shift reinforces the Standards reviewers' stated commitment to develop in students "critical-thinking skills [that] are crucial to performing the more sophisticated decision-making that is required of workers who wish to participate fully in the global economy" (NBEA, 2013, p.x). Accounting educators would do well to assess their courses against the Standards to ensure they have likewise shifted their instruction to increased emphasis of higher-level skills.

Continuous Integrated Approach

The result of the aforementioned considerations should motivate teachers to develop multiple competencies concurrently. In an introductory accounting class, this would not only include student performance of transaction analysis and preparation of journal entries but also consideration of effects on the financial statements, effects on ratios, effects on users' analysis, effects on users' behaviors, and effects on subsequent decisions. Professional judgment and critical thinking would be interwoven throughout. Perhaps an example would clarify. See Figure 3.

But if Company Z chooses Option #2, what will it do when it needs the use of the equipment in the years after the one-year rental agreement ends? And although the problem did not detail current asset and current liability levels, would not Company Z's current ratio and thus its liquidity rating have been lower under Option #2 because of the decrease in cash? These and other questions from students or posed by the teacher for student consideration at the end of the activity will demonstrate that most decision makers never have full information at the time a decision is required. Getting students to recognize uncertainty and risk but still asking them to recommend a decision is an essential competency that accounting educators need to cultivate.

FIGURE 3. Accounting Treatment Affects Decisions

Assume it is January 1. Company Z needs a piece of equipment for its operations that a local dealer currently has in stock. Company Z also knows it will seek financing next year for a major business expansion and wants its financial statements to look favorable to the bank. **OPTION #1:** The cost of the asset is \$4,000. The asset would have a four-year life, and be depreciated using the straight-line method with no salvage. Company Z would finance the \$4,000 from the dealer by signing a three-year promissory note, with interest rate of 5%, with principal and all interest payable at the end of the third year. **OPTION #2:** The dealer agrees to let Company Z rent the equipment, but only for one year, by making monthly payments of \$100, payable at the beginning of each month with the first payment made today.

STEP 1: Transaction Analysis and First Year Entries

(Critical Thinking: If, when, and how to record?)

OPTION #1:

Assets increase (equipment)

Liabilities increase (notes payable)

Depreciation Expense will be incurred

Interest Expense will be incurred

OPTION #2:

No legal title to asset transferred

No debt agreement signed

Only Rent Expense will be incurred

Accounts	Debit	Credit	Accounts	Debit	Credit
Equipment	\$4,000		Rent Expense (total)	\$1,200	
Notes Payable		\$4,000	Cash		\$1,200
Depreciation Expense	\$1,000				
Accumulated Depreciation		\$1,000			
Interest Expense	\$ 200				
Interest Payable		\$ 200			

STEP 2: Effects on Financial Statements

(Critical Thinking: How would major items to be reported change?)

OPTION #1:

Assets increased by \$3,000

Liabilities increased by \$4,200

Net Income and Equity decreased by \$1,200

OPTION #2:

Assets decreased by \$1,200

Net Income and Equity decreased by \$1,200

STEP 3: Effects on Ratios

(Critical Thinking: Effect on leverage measures? Effect on profitability measures?)

Excluding the effects of the journal entries in Step 1, at the end of the first year, assume Company Z has total assets, total liabilities, total equity, and net income of \$10,000 and \$3,000 and \$7,000 and \$4,000 respectively. AFTER including the entries, ratios would be as follows:

OPTION #1:

Debt Ratio: $\$7,200 / \$13,000 = 55\%$

(total liabilities/total assets)

Return on Assets: $\$2,800 / \$13,000 = 22\%$

(net income/total assets)

OPTION #2:

Debt Ratio: $\$3,000 / \$8,800 = 34\%$

Return on Assets: $\$2,800 / \$8,800 = 32\%$

continued next page

FIGURE 3. Accounting Treatment Affects Decisions *continued***STEP 4: Effects on Analysis and Behavioral Influences***(Critical Thinking: Which option more favorable?)***OPTION #1:**

More Risky, Unfavorable
 (based on high debt ratio)
 Less Profitable, Unfavorable
 (based on low ROA)
 (based on lower return on assets)

OPTION #2:

Less Risky, Favorable
 More Profitable, Favorable

Because Company Z wishes to make a favorable impression at the bank when it seeks major financing for an upcoming project, it will choose Option #2.

STEP 5: Effects on Decisions to be Made*(Critical Thinking: Will the bank charge a high interest rate?)*

Based on expected financial statements and ratios at the end of the year when Company Z might approach the bank to secure financing for expansion, the bank would be more likely to loan money to Company Z under Option #2 conditions and offer a lower interest rate (due to the lower perceived riskiness) than it would if Company Z chose Option #1.

Initial reviews of the NBEA National Standards may leave accounting educators feeling overwhelmed based on the number and depth of performance expectations listed. The key, however, lies in utilizing activities that cover multiple objectives simultaneously. The example provided would help students meet selected performance expectations in five of the seven major standards listed: Financial Reports, Financial Analysis, Accounting Principles, Accounting Process, and Interpretation and Use of Data (NBEA, 2013).

INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDANCE AND RESOURCES

Award-winning accounting educators understand that students learn in different ways and believe strongly that a wide variety of activities should be present to enable optimal learning for all. They suggest not only using lectures, examples, homework and quizzes, but also case studies, technology, discussions, class presentations, group projects, web-based learning, problem-based learning, collaborative learning, and experiential learning (Wygall & Stout, 2015).

Flipped Classrooms/Interactive Presentations

Much of accounting can be divided into two categories of theory and practice. Practice emphasizes “what” is done and theory emphasizes “why” it is done. It can be beneficial, for example, to flip part of an accounting class and have students watch YouTube (private channel of the instructor), watch lecture videos, and fill out instructor-provided lecture outlines outside of class. This covers the practice or technical side of an accounting topic while freeing up class time to discuss theory or to work through a comprehensive example problem in which theory explanations are integrated. Additional class periods can be used for individual/group activities for application of what has been learned.

Advantages of using videos for instruction include the ability for students to learn new material at their own pace and opportunities for later review. Phillips and Trainor (2014) found students who had not experienced flipped classrooms were open to trying it and recognized the potential benefits they might realize.

In creating instructional videos, one can easily find available screen-capture products, such as Screencast-O-Matic and the costlier Camtasia, through an Internet search. Some screen-capture products are free or low-cost. Stice, Stice and Albrecht (2015) theorized that use of video resources more likely engages low-performing Accounting Principles I and II students, although their research indicated that students who chose to study primarily through reading from the textbook outperformed students who chose to study primarily through watching videos. Research conducted by Brown, Danvers, and Doran (2016), however, indicated that adding guided reading questions for students to answer while watching the videos positively impacted motivation, reading comprehension, level of effort, and understanding of the material. Other accounting educators have found some success by embedding questions into the video presentations that students must answer before continuing. The benefit is that educators receive analytics on students' watchfulness and accuracy in answering questions. Thus, the central takeaway appears to be building in some kind of engagement opportunity with the student during the outside-of-class learning sessions. For example, some teachers have had success using EdPuzzle (<https://edpuzzle.com>) to embed questions for students to answer in their videos.

Online Guided Examples

Because financial accounting courses often require students to follow highly structured processes and procedures for measurement and reporting, they are uniquely suited for students' learning through the solving of problems. When students are doing assigned work outside of class, short online videos of problem demonstrations can provide the needed guidance that otherwise frustrated students might need to complete the exercises. Textbooks offering online homework submission often have these short video examples embedded near textbook exercises. Likewise, teachers can create their own example exercise videos. The two dangers with these are that students might default to watching the video before even trying to do an exercise on their own, and the online exercise demonstrated might be identical to the assigned exercise except for changed numbers. In this case, the student need only mimic the video procedures to get the homework points without much serious thought. Instructors must then be sure to include follow-up activities or assignments that require students' thinking beyond these early technical issues.

Interactive/Adaptive Learning Software

Many accounting textbook publishers provide accompanying online homework systems that allow students multiple chances to answer questions and provide feedback or hints to assist those who answered incorrectly. Students are more apt to do this type of homework (because the instructor generally assigns points to it). Students also appreci-

ate the immediate feedback they receive as to whether their answers are correct or not, and teachers appreciate the software's instructional assistance, the automatic enforcement of submission deadlines, the automatic grading, and automatic entering of grades in a gradebook. Less benefits result when answers become available from students who have taken the class previously or from postings on the Internet. In response, many online homework systems now allow for assigning of algorithmic exercises in which the numbers within exercises differ per student. Accounting instructors are encouraged to contact publishers of accounting textbooks to request review copies and learn about online enhancements that accompany the texts. Major accounting textbook publishers include the following:

- Cengage Learning <http://www.cengage.com>
- Cambridge Business Publishers <https://cambridgepub.com>
- McGraw-Hill Education/Glencoe <http://www.mheducation.com>
- Pearson Higher Education <https://www.pearsonhighered.com>
- Wiley <http://www.wiley.com>

Other online products exist for the purpose of teaching basics like the accounting cycle. Some require cumulative checks of learning before allowing a student to proceed to new material. Quantum adaptive learning and assessment software (<http://www.quantumal.com>) provides low-cost, individualized instruction covering the essentials of financial accounting. The product uses artificial intelligence to provide step-by-step feedback as students choose to “check my work” or “show solution”. The software clearly explains why a student's answer was wrong or right. There are options to ask questions by clicking on an extensive list of frequently asked questions from real classes. Students must continue to complete questions in various categories of journal entries or financial statements until learning objectives have been “mastered” and can click on a “how am I doing?” option at any time to assess their progress. The product is also useful for reviewing before examinations. Teachers can see student or class progress at any time and generate a report indicating the most frequently occurring errors so they can adapt their in-class instruction to assist with these identified difficulties.

In-Class Teamwork Activities

Dellaportax (2015) stressed that accounting classes should be so much more than just technical instruction; decision-making practice must be included. Easy-to-add decision activities include (a) giving students balance sheets from two companies and asking which one is the better loan candidate (answer: the one with the lower debt ratio and higher current ratio); (b) giving students sales and cost of goods sold information from two different products and asking which one receive stronger marketing efforts (answer: the one with the higher gross profit margin ratio); (c) giving students sales, variable costs, and fixed costs information from several departments and asking for a ranking of best to worst performance (answer: from highest contribution margin to lowest); and (d) giving students statements of cash flows from two companies and asking which one

had better cash management (answer: the one with positive operating cash flows, negative investing cash flows, and negative financing cash flows).

A study by Abeysekera (2015) concluded that students preferred interactive instructional methods where they could learn through two-way communications by asking questions or entering into discussions with their peers and their teachers. Resolving issues together seems to facilitate students' understanding of the content in these types of courses. Additionally, research by Du (2015) indicated that even students who were not overly excited about accounting still agreed that attention-focused, cooperative learning had a positive impact on maintaining their interest in accounting. An online option for teamwork activities might be Accounting in the Headlines (<https://accountinginthe-headlines.com>) that includes blog postings with activities involving real companies. The site provides optional student handouts with the blog posting and discussion questions, PowerPoint files that teachers can use to lead the activity, and sometimes financial statement handouts related to the activity.

Ainsworth and Deines (2011) authored a textbook that transformed the content sequencing for introductory accounting courses. Instead of separate financial and managerial components, their approach was more similar to that used in upper-level accounting information systems courses. The focus became business processes as they relate to operating, investing, and financing activities, thus integrating financial and managerial accounting topics. The text included numerous active and cooperative learning activities for use in the classroom.

Critical Thinking Activities

Critical thinking activities are lacking in many accounting classes. The older approach of watching an instructor lecture followed by watching an instructor solve problems only serves to promote the memorization-instead-of-learning tactic as well as the one-right-answer stereotype, both of which accountants are trying to dispel. As mentioned earlier, critical thinking activities could involve case studies, technology activities, discussions, class presentations, group projects, web-based learning, problem-based learning, collaborative learning, and experiential learning. Realize critical thinking skills cannot be attained in one sitting; only multiple practice opportunities over time will achieve the desired results.

Young and Warren (2011) recognized the importance of adding to their introductory accounting classes some business scenarios that required students to deal with incomplete information and use their professional judgment because there might be more than one acceptable solution. Planning these took time. In addition, they started to include a 25-point extra essay/problem item after each 100-point regular exam that required students to demonstrate the critical thinking skills they had been developing.

Pathways Commission participants, G. Peter and Carolyn Wilson, have been developing the Navigating Accounting site (www.navigatingaccounting.com). Most important for this topic is that under the Group Projects tab there are Industry Comparison Ex-

ercises and Critical Thinking Exercises that use financial information from real companies. These are free for instructors to use in their classes. Other resources available at the site include instructor presentation videos, slides, and transcripts as well as Practice Exams with Exam Supplements and Exam Solutions, Self-Assessment Quizzes, and study guides. This site is a work in progress.

Frequent Self-Assessment Opportunities

The current generation of accounting students in the United States is well accustomed to taking tests. Access to online gradebooks throughout most of their school years has contributed to their desire for immediate feedback. The two factors together have resulted in students frequently requesting opportunities to self-assess their learning. In response, practice quizzes have been written by textbook publishing companies, teachers, students themselves, and others who then made them available in online format with immediate feedback provided.

The Accounting Challenge (ACE) is a mobile learning app that was developed at the Singapore Management University's School of Accountancy. It is free to download on both Apple and Android devices. Students test their accounting knowledge through fast-paced multiple choice, matching, true-false, or drag-accounts-into-debit-or-credit-categories-of-journal-entries questions. In a game-like competition, each correct answer is awarded two points, with one point deducted for each incorrect answer. Students can choose to be quizzed in either financial or management accounting topics. When a session is finished, there is a review option so students can go back through the questions to better consider why they missed certain items.

Accounting Coach (<http://www.accountingcoach.com>) is a site with many free resources. It is mentioned here because students may use the review questions and tap or click to see answers, solve puzzles to review vocabulary, or take extensive multiple-choice practice quizzes. Alternatively, teachers can also print out PDF versions of the quizzes to use in class.

The Quizlet site (<http://quizlet.com>) has freely offered sets of review flashcards created by teachers and students, and accounting teachers are encouraged to go “search” or “create” decks of items for their students to use in individually testing themselves over their accounting knowledge. More recently Quizlet Live, also free and available at the site, was developed for in-class use. The teacher selects a study set and chooses the “Live” option and the “Create Game” option. The site generates a unique code to share with students who will go to www.quizletlive.com on a computer or mobile device to join the game and enter their names. There must be six or more students (and devices) for the software to work. Quizlet Live will randomly create teams of three to four students and notify students of their team assignments. Students move around the classroom to sit with their teammates. The teacher can project the teacher screen so all see the progress of the teams as a competition to see who correctly completes all of the items first. Any incorrect answer submitted by a team sends students back to the start. As the activity

concludes, the teacher can elect to see which items students missed and review the corresponding content with them.

Real Company Financial Statements/Footnotes Usage

The use of financial statements of real companies enhances accounting education because students can see how the concepts they are learning about result in actual reports used by actual decision makers. United States public companies are required to submit reports including financial statements to the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC). These may be obtained by anyone online, free of charge. To do so, (a) go to www.sec.gov; (b) click on “Filings;” (c) click on “Company Filings Search;” (d) type in the name of the desired company (example, Microsoft); (e) click “Search;” (f) from the choices, click on the red CIK numbers associated with the item that has an SIC code in its listing; (g) for Filing Type, type in 10-K (the 10-K is the annual report submitted to the SEC) and hit the Enter key; (h) choose either “Documents” to open up the entire 10-K report or choose “Interactive Data” to view financial statements and other information with an option to import the information into a spreadsheet via the “View Excel Document” option.

Lafond, McAleer, and Wentzel (2016) demonstrated how introductory financial accounting classes could download financial statements into spreadsheet software and create graphs to analyze the company. For example, students could create a pie chart of major categories of liabilities and equity to describe how the company is financed. They could create stacked bar graphs for comparison of accumulated depreciation and the related cost of fixed assets to draw conclusions about whether depreciable assets were, on average, young or middle-aged or old. Spreadsheet cells could be programmed to calculate basic ratios. Line graphs could be created to evaluate sales or income trends for the last five years. The students could repeat the activities for another company in the same industry (example, Lowe’s versus Home Depot) and compare results to judge which company would be the better investment candidate.

Spreadsheets and Accounting Software

As part of a Pathways Commission study, academic and practitioner focus groups ranked technologies, and chose the top technology future accounting professionals must have mastery in to be electronic spreadsheets (Pathways Commission, 2015). Thus, any spreadsheet instruction and practice opportunities that accounting teachers can provide to their students will be rewarded with enhanced students’ preparation for the workforce. This can be as easy as requiring accounting textbook problems to be done on spreadsheets. The earlier mentioned financial analysis graphing activity would be valuable. As students move into Accounting II classes and cover topics like cost-volume-profit analysis, budgeting, performance evaluation, and managerial decision making, their use of spreadsheets to analyze various scenarios should naturally increase.

Spiceland, Spiceland, and Schaeffer (2015) showed improved student interest and performance in accounting when a variety of stimulating technological enhancements

were added to classes to engage students and foster active learning. Using accounting software packages should be part of the strategy as it also directly prepares students for the workplace. Research by Boulianne (2014) studied a large number of students in three groups and discovered that students who did a manual case and then completed the same case using accounting software attained the highest learning, students who did the case only using accounting software attained the second highest learning, while students who did the case only manually were in third place.

An online accounting software system called Wave Accounting (available at <https://www.waveapps.com/accounting>) is freely available on the Internet and works well for use in accounting courses. A project for students in an introductory financial accounting class can be accessed at <http://tinyurl.com/zwb8up7>. The types of transactions listed can be used to gain familiarity with other software packages. Another option students can be assigned is the free version of Express Accounts (available at <http://www.nchsoftware.com/accounting>). Students can get a feel for other accounting software programs through 30-day free trials from vendors such as QuickBooks, FreshBooks, Xero, and ZohoBooks. Internet searches of these products will bring up any available trial options.

Written Analysis and Oral Presentation Assignments

The AICPA's Core Competency Framework continues to highlight the importance of communication skills for future accounting professionals. Specifically, these individuals "should have the skills necessary to give and exchange information within a meaningful context and with appropriate delivery. They should have the ability to listen, deliver powerful presentations and produce examples of effective business writing" (AICPA, n.d.). There are a variety of ways to accomplish these goals. Cameron and Dickfos (2014) successfully achieved oral communication skills improvement in students through a three-minute, elevator pitch assignment where students sought to obtain business financing within the context of an accounting class. Video technology allowed students to later watch and reflect on their own performances, more accurately assess their communication skill levels, and better understand the importance of oral communication in their future careers. Accounting educators should include opportunities in their classes for students to write about or talk about what the numbers mean. In financial accounting classes, this often relates to financial statement analysis projects. In managerial accounting classes, this could include business memo explanations of results generated by spreadsheet computations.

A listing of available accounting cases was developed to assist accounting educators. It includes cases for introductory financial, introductory managerial, and intermediate accounting levels, provided courtesy of the University of Notre Dame (<http://www.cases.ndacct.com>). After making a selection, one might be able to access the case through college/university libraries or otherwise could purchase it from the original source.

Assessment Including Analytics

Evaluation of whether students have achieved desired learning outcomes via review of students' performance on examinations, projects, presentations, and spreadsheets is a necessary part of the assessment process. Instructors might wish to have accounting practitioners fill out rubrics to get an external perspective of student performance. Other feedback can be obtained if accounting educators are using textbook online homework systems. Such systems often provide information on amount of time students spent on assignments, number of times "help" was requested, or number of times the software was asked to "check my work". Instructors often administer their exams online—in class—for the sole purpose of more easily collecting summary analytics of student achievement. Evaluating the assessment results is an important part of measuring educational effectiveness and can help teachers identify where changes in instructional strategies are most needed.

Other Resources

Exploring the AICPA's Start Here Go Places site (<https://startheregoplaces.com/teacher>) can be part of an assignment for students to learn about accounting career opportunities. The site also has an option to go to a teacher section that provides activities, virtual tours, and games.

A goal of the Open Course Library (<http://opencourselibrary.org>) is to provide high quality, open educational resources that any teacher can explore, copy, adapt, and share at little or no cost. All of the digital content was designed by experts and has passed industry quality standards. A search of "accounting" at the site brings up several principles of accounting classes. Within the courses are links to Susan Crosson's instructional accounting YouTube videos, which accounting instructors may elect to show in class or assign for students' viewing.

Showbie (<https://www.showbie.com>) is a popular and free app particularly suited to iPads that teachers can use to share resources or assign activities to students with mobile devices. Students can take pictures of or type responses to submit their work, and teachers can grade and send the items back with comments either written with a pen tool, or typed as text, or spoken using short voice notes. Students enjoy using the app and much appreciate the personalized feedback and attention from their instructor.

SUMMARY

This chapter has sought to provide a variety of choices for professional educators to use in planning their instructional activities related to accounting. The chief purpose of this chapter, however, was to encourage these educators to reflect on the larger meaning of accounting in society and to more fully realize the responsibility they have been charged with to develop accounting and business competencies in those who will become the business leaders of the future. Their job is not to teach classes; their job is to develop professionals who are critical thinkers. May teachers feel empowered to experiment often as they seek to create the optimal educational environment for their students. The ongoing, changing marketplace demands nothing less.

REFERENCES

- Abeysekera, I. (2015). Student preferences for instructional methods in an accounting curriculum. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 27(3), 310-319.
- Accounting Education Change Commission (AECC). (1990). Objectives of education for accountants: Position statement number one. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 5(2), 307-312.
- Albrecht, W. S., & Sack, R. (2000). *Accounting education: Charting the course through a perilous future*. Accounting Education Series, Vol. 16. Sarasota, FL: American Accounting Association.
- Ainsworth, P., & Deines, D. (2011). *Introduction to accounting: An integrated approach* (6th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA). (n.d.). *Core competency framework and educational competency assessment*. Retrieved from <http://www.aicpa.org/interestareas/accountingeducation/resources/pages/corecompetency.aspx>
- Bedford, N. (1986). Future accounting education: Preparing for the expanding profession. *Issues In Accounting Education*, 1(1), 168-195.
- Boulianne, E. (2014). Impact of accounting software utilization on students' knowledge acquisition: An important change in accounting education. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, 10(1), 22-48. doi:10.1108/JAOC-12-2011-0064
- Brown, C., Danvers, K., & Doran, D. (2016). Student perceptions on using guided reading questions to motivate student reading in the flipped classroom. *Accounting Education*, 25(3), 256-271. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2016.1165124>
- Cameron, C., & Dickfos, J. (2014). 'Lights, camera, action!' video technology and students' perceptions of oral communication in accounting education. *Accounting Education*, 23(2), 135-154. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2013.847326>
- Dellaportax, S. (2015). Reclaiming 'sense' from 'cents' in accounting education. *Accounting Education*, 24(6), 445-460. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2015.1114456>
- Du, C. (2015). The effect of cooperative learning on students' attitude in first-year principles of accounting course. *Business Education Innovation Journal*, 7(2), 207-116.
- Lafond, C., McAleer, A., & Wentzel K. (2016). Enhancing the link between technology and accounting in introductory courses: Evidence from students. *Journal of the Academy of Business Education*, 17, 95-108.
- Lawson, R., Blocher, E., Brewer, P., Cokins, G., Sorensen, J., Stout, D., Sundem, G., Wolcott, S., & Wouters, M. (2014). Focusing accounting curricula on students' long-run careers: Recommendations for an integrated competency-based framework for accounting education. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 29(2), 295-318.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.

- Pathways Commission. (2012). *The Pathways Commission: Charting a national strategy for the next generation of accountants*. Retrieved from <http://commons.aaahq.org/groups/2d690969a3/summary>
- Pathways Commission. (2013). *Pathways Vision Model: THIS is accounting!* Retrieved from <http://commons.aaahq.org/hives/a943df3efc/summary>
- Pathways Commission. (2015). *In pursuit of accounting's curricula of the future*. Retrieved from <http://commons.aaahq.org/groups/2d690969a3/summary>
- Phillips, C., & Trainor, J. (2014). Millennial students and the flipped classroom. *Journal of Business and Educational Leadership*, 5(1), 102-112.
- Spiceland, C., Spiceland, J., & Schaeffer, S. (2015). Using a course redesign to address retention and performance issues in introductory accounting. *Journal of Accounting Education*, 33(1), 50-68.
- Stice, J., Stice, E., & Albrecht, C. (2015). Study choices by introductory accounting students: Those who choose to study by reading text outperform those who choose to study by watching video lectures. *SSRN*. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2787478>
- Wilson, G. P., & Wilson, C. (2013). *The Pathways Vision Model for accounting education*. Retrieved from <http://commons.aaahq.org/groups/2d690969a3/summary>
- Wilson, G. P. (2015). *Pathways Vision Model: Applications in introductory financial accounting*. Retrieved from <http://www.navigatingaccounting.com/presentation/presentations#Teaching>
- Wygall, D., & Stout, D. (2015). Shining a light on effective teaching best practices: Survey findings from award-winning accounting educators. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 30(3), 173-205.
- Young, M., & Warren, D. (2011). Encouraging the development of critical thinking skills in the introductory accounting courses using the challenge problem approach. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 26(4), 859-881.

Business Foundations and Management

Pamela Scott -Bracey
Mississippi State University
Starkville, MS

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Betty J. Brown and George Mundrake, authors of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Business education has evolved in many different ways over the years. Although the field's foundational concepts have always remained constant and relevant, the modernization of certain business topics and the infusion of technology requirements on a national level led to the creation of more specific course topics and plans. In addition to these courses being available to serve as preparation for careers in the field of business, today's business courses also teach learners how to manage business affairs and financially thrive in their own personal lives. This chapter will discuss content and activities for foundational business and management courses at both secondary and postsecondary levels.

OVERVIEW OF BUSINESS FOUNDATIONS AND MANAGEMENT

While most business foundations and management courses were formerly only found in high schools and on college campuses, they can now also be found in middle schools and career-technical education centers. A variety of names are now used to depict these courses; however, the ultimate goal of all of them is to provide conceptual knowledge about business. Today's business courses prepare students to live in a technologically-advanced, economically diverse global society, while also providing the opportunity for

teachers to share the knowledge and skills to help students learn to manage their own personal finances (Brown & Mundrake, 2013).

Introductory Business Courses

Introductory business courses are designed to serve as exploratory academic experiences for students. Through these courses, students gain the opportunity to learn about the roles of individuals and business in an economic system, general business terminology, and how interdependent all components of an economic system are as a whole. Secondary courses of this nature may be identified with a course title similar to one of the following names: “Intro to Business”, “Business Foundations”, “Business Fundamentals”, or “Business Essentials”, while postsecondary introductory courses may be listed as titles similar to “General Business”, “Business Basics”, or “Principles of Business”. Upon completion of these courses, students should have basic general knowledge about the field of business, and their individual and collective roles as productive citizens.

Management Courses

Management courses allow students to study the role of management and leadership in business. This is done in many ways that generally include discussing the structures and required functions necessary for day-to-day business operations. Regardless of the career role students may decide to fill upon graduating from high school and/or college, being well-versed in leadership traits, management techniques, strategic planning, and effective communication strategies is essential.

Business Ethics

While many may suggest that the notion of proper ethics has become more subjective in recent years, courses related to business ethics remain essential to maintaining etiquette and moral standards in the workplace. Although business educators may find it easier to avoid certain topics related to ethics in the classroom, teaching about business ethics assists students in broadening their perspectives beyond the ethical beliefs that were or were not instilled in them early in life. Learning about business ethics increases the notion of personal balance and respect for others. This also encourages students to employ processes to make ethical decisions based upon situations that may occur in the workplace.

Global Awareness and International Management

As the United States of America continuously becomes more diverse, it is inevitable that global awareness and learning about international management is essential. Students who plan to have a successful career in business must know the impact that other countries have on the economy and world market. Activities that were once restricted by geographic, financial, or political constraints are now available and accessible due to the globalization of e-commerce, wireless communication, and mobile technologies (Dlabay, 2013). The need for global awareness and international management is evident through observations of the daily occurrences of diverse cultural interactions in schools and businesses, as well as the vast variety of products produced in other countries that are regularly used by American consumers.

Diversity

Diversity should not simply be a term infused throughout the business education curriculum to show the importance of accepting individuals regardless of their racial or ethnical background. Diversity in the business world has now become a way of life. Although global business expansion can create concern about the loss of America's cultural identity, the world is changing and those interested in thriving in the field of business must simply adapt.

Environmental Awareness

Knowledge of location, climate, terrain, waterways, natural resources, and other geographic factors helps students understand and value business foundations from a national and global perspective (Dlabay, 2013). In addition to physical environmental awareness, students must also be taught to consider cultural environments including traditions, education, and religion. Proper behaviors in cultural settings are essential to establishing and maintaining global relationships.

STANDARDS FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

Standards are generally the first step in instructional planning and should describe what students should know and be able to do in any given context following the completion of business courses (Cennamo, Ross, & Ertmer, 2013).

National Standards for Business Education

Business educators may locate the *National Standards for Business Education* on the website of the National Business Education Association (www.nbea.org). Headquartered in Reston, Virginia, this professional organization provides several helpful resources to aid educators in planning their course curriculum. The national standards address a variety of business topics and provide corresponding performance expectations for what students should know and be able to do in the field of business according to education levels (Wilson & Bayless, 2013).

AACSB Standards

In addition to state and national curriculum standards, business educators also have access to industry standards. Although business disciplines vary extensively, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business International (AACSB) serves as a world-renowned voice of standard for college-level degree programs in business. This accrediting agency for bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree programs in business provides guidance and standards for over 650 member institutions of higher education (Anderson, 2013).

PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS

Based upon the *National Standards for Business Education* and the guidelines set forth by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business International (AACSB), business educators must set and maintain high performance expectations for students.

Secondary and college students alike must be required to master advanced content and use more sophisticated critical thinking and decision-making skills in order to ultimately be successful in the field of business (Brown & Mundrake, 2013). The goal in introductory business classrooms should be to use real-life examples to help students realize the relevance of business education and learn how to apply learned concepts to real-life issues and situations (Dick, Carey, & Carey, 2000).

STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING BUSINESS FOUNDATIONS & MANAGEMENT

Teaching introductory courses related to business and management can be extremely fulfilling when creative strategies are utilized. With the broad range of Internet content currently available, business educators now have a plethora of resources in addition to course textbooks that can be used to teach real-world concepts. Students at every level can now connect what they are learning about business to other academic areas through innovative activities, and getting the community involved in the learning process is essential (Roblyer & Doering, 2017). Project-based assignments and the use of graphic organizers such as concept maps, tables, flow charts, diagrams in which students are required to organize and fill in information are helpful to students of all ages and can help set the stage for learning (Brown & Mundrake, 2013).

Secondary

Middle school and high school students can learn to apply business concepts to real world situations through guest speakers, business simulations, field trips, job shadowing, interviewing professionals, or conducting web quests designed by the instructor. Collaborative group projects and flipped classroom experiences where they are allowed to be more accountable for their own learning are also great for this age group.

Postsecondary

Modern college students appreciate instructors who teach beyond the traditional lecture method. Additionally, many postsecondary textbooks now include supplemental websites that connect students to simulations, virtual field trips, digital flash cards, academic games, and enrichment activities. Research projects, documentaries, video projects, essay assignments, guest speakers, internship experiences, and problem-based assignments can be helpful to these students as well.

Infusion of Technology and Social Media Applications

The infusion of digital tools and social media applications in introductory business classrooms definitely has its perks (Piotroski, 2015). By spending a great deal of time working with new technologies, students develop more familiarity with devices and the Internet. Through consistent exposure and proper workforce preparation guidance from business educators, students can inevitably become well versed in the ability to share information quickly, which can ultimately increase productivity and help them learn how to network more effectively as future employees.

DIGITAL RESOURCES FOR TEACHING GENERAL BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT

Many sources provide ideas and resources for teaching introductory business and management courses (Brown & Mundrake, 2013). Several nonprofit organizations and government entities have become committed to ensuring that the next generations of students are knowledgeable in the field of business, especially personal finance and economics. A brief list of learning resources may be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Digital Resources for Business Educators and Students

Resource	Description	Website
U. S. Small Business Administration	Provides a wealth of resources on starting and managing a business, loans and grants for small businesses, how to find contracting opportunities, tax help for small businesses, counseling and training sources, and local resources for small businesses	www.sba.gov
U. S. Census	US census records and population statistics; census data and maps; local job information and online job search assistance	www.census.com
U. S. Federal Trade Commission	Information about identity theft, credit and loans, consumer complaints, internet fraud and safety, and the Do Not Call registry	www.ftc.gov
U. S. Federal Reserve	Lesson plans, publications, activities, and academic competitions, as well as economic data	www.federalreserveeducation.org
O*Net	Database offering information on skills, abilities, interests, activities and knowledge needed for over 900 occupations developed by the US Department of Labor.	www.onetonline.org
National Better Business Bureau	Information from the local Better Business Bureau and materials from the national Better Business Bureau	www.bbb.org
Consumer World	Links to more than 2,000 useful consumer sites, including consumer help sites, online store coupons, price comparisons, booklets, and product reviews	www.consumerworld.org
Jumpstart	Covers more than 100 partner companies and organizations with resources on personal financial literacy and news from business, including newsletters, brochures, and guides for parents and teachers	www.jumpstart.org

Table 1. Digital Resources for Business Educators and Students *continued*

Resource	Description	Website
The Mint	Provides access to activities for students and lesson plans for teachers developed by the Council for Economic Education, as well as information for kids, teens, parents and teachers	www.themint.org
National Foundation for Credit Counseling	Covers consumer services for handling credit problems, including calculators, budget worksheets, consumer tips, and videos	www.nfcc.org
Insurance Information Institute	Online customer brochures on insurance issues; statistics about insurance-related events	www.iii.org
Wall Street Journal	Subscription site with news items about business in the U. S. and worldwide	www.wsj.com
Council for Economic Education	Provides hundreds of online lesson plans sorted by title, grade, standard, concept, or type; online games; and online teacher training	www.councilforeconed.org
EconEd Link	Includes lesson plans on starting and managing a business.	www.econedlink.org
Edmunds	Ratings for new and used cars; guide to local car inventories, care buyer's guides; tips and advice for consumers	www.edmunds.com
Business Insider	Website with news items about business in the U. S. and worldwide	www.businessinsider.com
Forbes	Website with news items about successful businesses in the U. S. and worldwide	www.forbes.com
Bloomberg Business Week	Website with news items about business in the U. S. and worldwide	www.bloomberg.com

STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING BUSINESS CAREER AWARENESS AND DEVELOPMENT

Teaching business career awareness in introductory business courses is crucial (Spire & Bartels, 2015). With the Internet providing a multitude of resources related to business careers and entrepreneurial opportunities, students have the advantage of information constantly lingering at their fingertips. Yet, although the information is available, business educators must continue to teach students how to properly navigate the World Wide Web in pursuit of factual information on credible websites.

Trending Business Careers

As technology in the workplace increases, several new career fields are being created to meet the demand. For example, as social media tools such as Facebook, Twitter,

Instagram, SnapChat, and YouTube become increasingly popular, businesses now target their marketing initiatives through these platforms (Friedman & Friedman, 2013). As a result of this practice, the demand for people to fill positions such as social media managers and Web content editors has grown exponentially (Nwazor & Godwin-Maduike, 2015). Business educators may stay abreast of trending business careers by subscribing to business-related journals, magazines, newspapers, and career websites.

Business-related Career Resources

While there are several business-related career resources, information provided by federal government and state entities may serve as some of the most credible sources of statistical career data (U. S. Department of Education, 2011). For lessons on entrepreneurship, educators could visit their state's Secretary of State web site to review rules and regulations related to starting a business. For general business career lessons, educators could utilize O*Net Online (www.onetonline.org) or Career One Stop (www.careeronestop.org), which are both detailed websites developed and sponsored by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. A list of websites with business career-related resources is featured in Table 2.

Table 2. Business-related Career Resources

Resource	Description	Website
O*Net	Database offering information on skills, abilities, interests, activities and knowledge needed for over 900 occupations developed by the US Department of Labor.	www.onetonline.org
Career One Stop	A comprehensive, integrated, relevant, and personalized workforce information tool sponsored by the US Department of Labor.	www.careeronestop.org
Learn How to Become	Expert-driven educational content related to careers that presents information both logically and creatively to maximize understanding and engagement.	www.learnhowtobecome.org
My Next Move	A streamlined application system for job seekers and students developed by the U.S. Department of Labor.	www.mynextmove.org
Secretary of State	Contains all information needed to form a legitimate business.	www.sos.ms.gov

SUMMARY

In summary, introductory business foundations and management courses provide knowledge, skills, and basic economic understanding for all students. They are inevitably essential stepping-stones for all students whether they are interested in business-related careers, desire to become entrepreneurs, or even plan to pursue other career interests. On the secondary level, students gain a background of career exploration,

while on the postsecondary level, students who have already chosen business as a career path are further prepared for the field. The suggested activities and resources discussed in this chapter may be used on all academic levels, and possess the ability to provide authentic learning experiences when used in innovative manners.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, M. (2013). The business education curriculum in the educational system. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 24–42). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Brown, B., & Mundrake, G. (2013). Business foundations and management. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 164–181). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Cennamo, K., Ross, J., & Ertmer, P. (2013). *Technology integration for meaningful classroom use: Standards-based approach*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Dlabay, L. (2013). International business. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 221–235). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Dick, W., Carey, L., & Carey, J. O. (2000). *The systematic design of instruction* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Friedman, L. W., & Friedman, H. H. (2013). Using social media technologies to enhance online learning. *Journal of Educators Online*, 10(1), 1–21.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- Nwazor, J., & Godwin-Maduike, C. (2015). Social media and academic performance of business education students in South-East Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(25), 127–135.
- Piotrowski, C. (2015). Emerging research on social media use in education: A study of dissertations. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 27, 1–12.
- Roblyer, M. D., & Doering, A. H. (2017). *Integrating educational technology into teaching* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Spires, H., & Bartels, J. (2015). Digital literacy and engagement in business education. In K. V. Hemby & R. E. Grubb (Eds.), *Recent and projected technology tools affecting business education: NBEA 2015 yearbook* (No. 54, pp. 211–225). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Wilson, A., & Bayless, M. (2013). Business communication. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 137–149). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- U. S. Department of Education. (2011). *Increasing educational productivity: Innovative approaches and best practices*. Retrieved from: <http://www.ed.gov/oii-news/increasing-educational-productivity>

Economics and Personal Finance

Tamra S. Davis
Illinois State University
Normal, IL

Ben C. Owen
Genoa-Kingston High School
Genoa, IL

The authors, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Nancy G. Hite, author of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Understanding economic functions and personal finance basics are fundamental skills within financial literacy. Consumers must make multiple financial decisions daily, yet financial literacy is a graduation requirement in only 17 states, while 20 states require a course in economics for high school graduation (Council for Economic Education, 2016). This chapter outlines the content of economics and personal finance courses and presents the curriculum standards for both areas. Additionally, this chapter will present teaching resources and strategies for business educators in the K-12 settings with the goal of aiding educators as they prepare students to be successful and financially literate citizens within the global economy.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ECONOMICS AND PERSONAL FINANCE EDUCATION

The Great Recession of 2009 continues to impact consumers by raising awareness in terms of spending and saving (Hite, 2013); however, per the Council for Economic

Education (CEE) (2016), “there has been no improvement in economic education in recent years and slow growth in personal finance education” (p. 1). The CEE conducts a biennial survey of the states regarding K-12 economics and personal finance education. In the 2016 report, only 40% of states require an economics course, and 34% of the states require a personal finance course for high school graduation (Council for Economic Education, 2016).

Collins (2016) wrote, “In states where personal finance is part of a formal course, teachers are trained on the content, and students are tested, students develop better credit behaviors early in adulthood” (p. 4). The Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education (PCBEE) (2011) concurred with Collins’ findings and stated, “We believe personal financial literacy is an essential component of business and economic education” (para. 2). Additionally, the PCBEE believed that personal financial literacy education should begin in elementary school and continue throughout life. More recently, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) administered student assessments through the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) on financial literacy. The OECD (2017) found that 15-year-old students were not performing at basic levels of proficiency in financial literacy, including the creation and use of simple budgets and understanding how the use of an item, such as an automobile, impacts the costs associated with its use. Specifically, the study found that approximately 20% of students from countries with above average PISA results in math and reading, including the United States, fell below the proficiency level while only 12% of the students scored at the highest proficiency levels. The concern about financial literacy led to the G20 leaders endorsing financial literacy education, requesting OECD and the International Network on Financial Education (INFE) to collaborate with the World Bank and offer education across the G20 countries (G20, 2012).

Other disciplines share the teaching of economics and personal finance courses. Economics is often taught within the social studies department while personal finance can be found in family and consumer science courses; however, the PCBEE (2011) believed that business teachers have the training, skills, and certifications that the other disciplines may not provide to teach a variety of financial and economics courses, making them uniquely qualified to teach financial literacy. Further, business teachers have a duty to take the lead in teaching these courses within the schools.

Through the support of PwC US (2015), the Global Financial Literacy Excellence Center (GFLEC) conducted a study about the financial literacy of Millennials. The study found the following eight trends in how Millennials conduct personal finance:

- Have inadequate financial knowledge.
- Are not happy with their current financial situation.
- Worry about student loans.
- Have debt that crosses economics and educational lines.

- Are financially fragile.
- Are heavy users of Alternative Financial Services (AFS).
- Sacrifice retirement accounts.
- Do not seek professional financial help.

Based upon this study, the authors concluded that providing access to financial education is critical and that providing the education in schools allows for a shift in future generations' financial positions.

Additional findings related to personal finance point to the need for financial literacy. The personal savings rate in the United States decreased from 8.8% in November 2012 to 5.6% in February 2017 (U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2017). Bankruptcies, although down from a high of almost 1.6 million during the height of the housing crisis in 2010, equaled almost 820,000 filings during the year that ended June 30, 2016 (U.S. Courts, 2016). Foreclosures, another indication of the state of the economy, are slowing. February 2017 saw a 16% decrease in the number of foreclosures from February 2016, falling to just over 815,000 properties in some stage of foreclosure (Renwood Realty Trac, LLC, 2017). Based upon the current statistics and studies, the need for economics and personal finance education is apparent.

COURSE CONTENT FOR ECONOMIC EDUCATION

Business educators are highly trained in the field of economic education. Most business teachers completed required courses in macro and microeconomics, consumer economics, and finance; unlike teachers from other disciplines who reported, "that they had not taken any college coursework with any financial education-related content" (Way & Holden, 2010).

The Basics of Economics

According to the American Economic Association (2017), economics is "the study of scarcity, the study of how people use resources, or the study of decision making" (para.1). Microeconomics specifically studies choices, while macroeconomics is the study of businesses, governments, banking, and relationships between the three. Primary principles are important to any study of economics and include scarcity, supply and demand, and costs and benefits.

Scarcity is the basic economic problem of allocating limited resources to unlimited wants. The factors of production are the building blocks of our world and are the scarce resources. Land, labor (human resources), capital (money), and entrepreneurship work together as the factors of production to produce goods and services.

The interaction between the quantity of a resource (supply) available and the desire (demand) for that resource or product defines supply and demand theory. In a perfect

market economy, supply and demand balance themselves into equilibrium where the quantity supplied equals the quantity demanded.

Businesses use an analysis of costs and benefits to determine how to use scarce resources by adding all the benefits and subtracting the costs of the decision. If the outcome is positive, the benefits outweigh the costs and the businesses will move forward.

The way different countries apply the principles of scarcity, supply and demand, and costs and benefits creates the various economic systems around the world. In today's global economy, students need to learn how the various economic systems interact.

Units of Instruction in Economics and the Economics Curriculum Standards

Economics study presents students with various decision-making models. Through the study of economics, students learn the basics of making choices that include identifying a problem, gathering the needed information to make a choice, and evaluating alternatives. One source for teaching decision making is from the *Management Study Guide* (MSG Experts, 2017). The decision-making model follows a five-step process. In Step 1, a specific need is identified. Step 2 requires the consumer to search for information. In Step 3, the consumer looks at all the alternatives identified by the information search and evaluates the alternatives. Step 4 is the purchasing of the product or service, and Step 5 asks the consumer to evaluate the final decision.

Students also need to learn about the Laws of Supply and Demand. Pinkasovitch (2017) identifies supply and demand as the foundational concept in economics. Through supply and demand, students learn about the relationships between prices and the supply and/or demand for a product. The students can then apply the knowledge to scarcity, elasticity, and the theories of micro and macroeconomics, including costs and benefits of various decisions.

Additionally, students need to understand production issues, such as imports and exports. This can lead to a study of how governments influence the production decisions. Issues such as taxes, regulations, and trade agreements are important topics to be included in this section of the course.

NBEA Standards

The National Business Education Association (NBEA) publishes standards for all business education curriculum and provides a solid framework of standards for instruction at the K-14 levels. Per the NBEA standards (2013), the skills students should master in economics include the following:

- Scarcity, choice, and opportunity costs.
- Productivity.
- Economic systems, institutions, and incentives.

- Exchange, money, and interdependence.
- Markets, prices, and competition.
- Supply and demand.
- The role of consumers, governments, and citizens.

Divided into nine standards, the NBEA framework provides performance objectives at the elementary, middle school, high school, and postsecondary level.

Council for Economic Education Economic Content Standards (CEE)

The CEE (2010) includes 20 standards, based upon economic principles such as scarcity, prices, market structure, economic growth, government role, and fiscal policy written for teachers to use in developing instruction. The standards include assessment exercises and provide achievement levels for grades 4, 8, and 12.

COURSE CONTENT FOR PERSONAL FINANCE EDUCATION

As indicated, schools need personal financial literacy courses. Although people use money every day to make purchases, a solid foundation of financial literacy is missing from many of those decisions.

Schools teach personal finance content as a standalone course or within multiple courses such as economics, introduction to business, or consumer economics. Regardless of curriculum decisions for teaching the course, personal finance topics should include decision-making, income, budgeting, saving, investing, buying goods and services, banking, using credit, and protecting against risk.

Teaching goal setting, buying goods and services, and investment decisions provides opportunities to teach decision-making. By introducing students to a decision-making model or problem-solving process, the framework of decision-making allows the teaching of additional financial topics to follow a defined model.

Within a careers unit, the economic concepts of the job market, education for different careers, and income topics such as wages and taxes prepare students for the remainder of the course. A money management unit needs to focus on scarcity, wants and needs, and opportunity costs as students learn budgeting skills. Other topics in the money management segment need to provide information on insurance to protect against risk as part of creating a financial plan. Within the financial plan, students also learn about banking and investing.

Consumer decision making for spending and credit units allow students to continue using decision making skills as they navigate purchasing decisions and establishing credit. Other topics for a financial literacy course may include an introduction to mortgages, bankruptcies, and financing college. Financing college is an important topic at the high school level and postsecondary levels. In 2016, student loans averaged \$37,172 per

borrower and totaled over \$1.3 trillion. The average student loan payment is \$351 per month (“Student Loan Hero,” 2017).

NBEA Standards

The NBEA Standards in personal finance focus on making informed decisions about financial literacy and include managing finances, budgeting, saving, investing, living as an independent adult, earning and reporting income (taxes), buying goods and services, using credit, banking, and protecting against risk. Divided into eight topics, the standards cross K-14 classrooms (National Business Education Association, 2013).

Jump\$tart Standards

The Jump\$tart standards explain the knowledge and skills required at the K-12 level, although the standards can be applied in postsecondary and adult settings. The goal of Jump\$tart is for students to become independent adult consumers. The standards address six areas: spending and saving, credit and debt, employment and income, investing, risk management and insurance, and financial decision-making (Jump\$tart!, 2015).

Numerous teaching strategies and resources are available online. For example, Practical Money Skills offers lesson plans and resources for preK through college students and includes resources for special needs students. Included at the Practical Money Skills website, teachers can find resources that include games, short lessons for economics, and ideas from innovative teachers (Practical Money Skills, 2017). The National Education Association (NEA) provides links to a variety of resources such as a link to Financial Literacy Month resources, games, and articles to support teaching financial education (National Education Association, 2017). The United States Mint also offers a variety of resources for teaching financial literacy, including lesson plans and activities (United States Mint, 2015). The next section of this chapter addresses a few innovative teaching strategies and provides information to find a wide variety of resources for teachers to use in the classroom.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

Teachers know that students learning styles vary. Economics and personal finance are dynamic topics that lend themselves to a variety of teaching strategies. Educators need to build multiple learning activities into the classroom to teach not only conceptual understanding of the topics, but also build technical skills and problem-solving abilities within the business student.

Active Learning Activities

An active classroom is characterized by the teacher facilitating the learning process, and the students doing the work of learning (IGB Global, 2018; Nash, 2009). Examples of active classroom strategies familiar to most teachers include the following:

- Working in pairs or small groups.
- Think-Pair-Share or Think-Write-Pair-Share.

- Give one-Take one.
- Simulations.
- Case Studies.
- Games.

Yee (n.d.) offered over 225 various active learning techniques. Although not all techniques would fit the teaching style of every teacher, every teacher should be able to find a technique that works well in his or her classroom. This section provides additional strategies that allow interactivity in the classroom.

Project-Based Learning (PBL)

Project-based learning focuses on student goals and outcomes through a strategic methodology of presenting the materials. A project will focus on the key learning objectives, providing the foundational information required to lead to critical thinking and problem-solving. In PBL, students will learn collaboration, communication, and self-management (Buck Institute for Education, 2017). Within PBL, students are presented with a problem or question that requires them to research the topic and prepare a public project at the end. Students determine how to work together to solve the problem or question, reflect upon the process, and present their findings to the group. The Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta provides a complete curriculum for personal financial literacy project-based curriculum (Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta, n.d.).

Online Activities

Numerous online activities exist to help students gain a better understanding of personal finance and economic concepts. These activities move students beyond understanding concepts at a theoretical level and allow them to apply content, make decisions, and analyze why these concepts are important to them. Below are a few online resources available to enhance the learning process for students.

The H&R Block Budget Challenge by Proper Living is a national challenge that presents students with real-life budgeting scenarios and personal finance decision making. The focus of the program is to provide students with basic financial literacy skills prior to graduation. Students can win college scholarships by showing they are “real-world ready”; every semester, H&R block provides each of the top five students a \$20,000 college scholarship. This program is free to teachers and incorporates the CEE and Jump\$tart standards into the curriculum (Proper Living, LLC, n.d.).

Google Personal Finance Portfolio allows students to create a stock market and investment portfolio of their choice. Used to monitor changes, track trade history, and analyze stock price changes, the Google Finance Portfolio also allows for individualized portfolio charting that students can use to analyze trends or impacts of decisions made. The Google Portfolio allows teachers to use it as a stand-alone project or as a supplement to a stock market simulation (Google, Inc., 2017).

Collaborative/Group Activities

Cooperative learning is a pedagogy that has been around for several decades. Recent studies indicate that cooperative learning offers a structure that focuses on understanding and application of new concepts (Maier, 2017). Cooperative learning allows small group activities to supplement a traditional lecture based class structure. Under this approach, students would work in small groups, typically three to four students, to complete application and problem-solving activities. Examples of small group activities include these:

- Jigsaw activities: each group member has a piece of information required to complete tasks.
- Card based activities: used to pace group work and incorporate individual decision making into group activities.
- Class surveys: collect and analyze data from other students.
- Cooperative controversy: small group debates analyzing pros and cons and defending argument for their case.
- Pass a problem: students create data and a problem and pass to another student team to be solved (Maier, 2017).

Cooperative learning is beneficial, as it requires communication, interdependence, and participation with other group members; by incorporating these small group activities into class, teachers are increasing the likelihood of comprehension and helping students build valuable teamwork and cooperation skills.

Simulations

Stock market simulations allow students to apply content related to investments and returns in a situation where they see the direct results of the decisions they make. Students often enjoy stock market simulations as it can be competitive within classes and allows them to gain a deeper understanding of personal finance of economic content.

The MarketWatch simulation, found at <http://www.marketwatch.com/>, allows teachers to create a simulation with rules and trade requirements for participants; in addition, the MarketWatch simulation centralizes stock information for students, and individual stock performance follows the actual stock market. The stock market game allows students to make decisions and analyze the impact to their portfolio. When paired with reflection activities, the stock market simulation allows for higher-level learning focused around student decisions (Market Watch, Inc., 2017).

TEACHING RESOURCES

Multiple teaching resources are available from various publishers and online. This section provides a brief description of the most common resources.

Council for Economic Education

The teaching resources tool from CEE is the EconEdLink (Council for Economics Education, 2017b). EconEdLink offers over 400 teaching resources, including lesson plans and assessments for both personal finance and economics in K-12 classrooms. All lessons incorporate the CEE standards (Council for Economics Education, 2017a).

Jump\$tart Coalition for the Personal Financial Literacy

Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy is a clearinghouse for hundreds of resources in the area of personal finance. All resources conform to the Jump\$tart standards (Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy, 2017).

Foundation for Teaching Economics (FTE)

In addition to a variety of resources for teachers and students, FTE has compiled a listing of 13 economic benchmarks to answer the question “How are we doing?” FTE offers workshops to economics teachers along with lesson plans and teaching resources (Foundation for Teaching Economics, n.d.).

Junior Achievement

Junior Achievement (JA) focuses on preparing students to make sound economic decisions and to be successful in a global economy. JA offers unique content delivery through a structured combination of volunteer-led instruction and teacher-led instruction within in the classroom. JA currently indicates that they have 237,680 volunteers ranging from business professionals to college students to retirees that make the JA programs unique and successful. JA offers programs focused on personal finance and economics for elementary, middle school, and high school students. Popular JA programs include JA Finance Park, JA Personal Finance, and JA Economics. The JA curriculum allows students to learn through hands-on experience and application activities built into curriculum and supplemental workbooks (Junior Achievement USA, 2017).

Federal Reserve Education

The Federal Reserve for Education offers a searchable online database for teachers to find grade appropriate materials. Teachers can find personal finance and economics materials classified into grade level groupings including K-4, 5-8, 9-12, college, and adult. The Federal Reserve for Education offers an abundance of lesson plans, booklets, activity ideas, and class materials. All resources found on The Federal Reserve for Education database are free of charge. The link to the online database is <https://www.federalreserveeducation.org/> (Federal Reserve, 2017).

Banzai! Personal Finance

Banzai! Personal Finance offers a customizable classroom management program for personal finance classes. Banzai! provides real-life scenarios and student decision making to teach personal finance content. Banzai! is available to teachers free of charge. Through sponsorship by a local bank or credit union, the teacher will receive the Banzai! booklets free-of-charge. If a local bank or credit union is not available to sponsor the

school, the teachers are still able to use a PDF version of the booklets that can be downloaded (personal communication, Jade Coates, August 16, 2017). The online management system allows for customization of content to meet specific classroom needs. In addition, The Banzai! website provides teachers with a list of state requirements that the curriculum meets (Banzai, 2016).

Additional Resources

Table 1 provides the web links for the resources presented in this chapter.

Table 1. Websites for Teaching Economics and Personal Finance

Name	Web Address	Description
Banzai	https://teachbanzai.com/	A classroom management program for personal finance education (Banzai, 2016)
Council for Economic Education	http://www.councilforeconed.org	Focuses on economic and personal finance education for K-12 classrooms (Council for Economics Education, 2017)
Econedlink	http://www.econedlink.org/	Economics and personal finance resources for K-12 (Council for Economics Education, 2017b)
Econlowdown	https://www.stlouisfed.org/education/	Online resources for economics and personal finance (Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, 2017)
Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta	https://www.frbatlanta.org/education/publications/extra-credit/2015/spring/lessons-and-activities/high-school/personal-finance/project-based-learning-for-personal-finance-classroom.aspx	A complete PBL guide for a semester personal finance class (Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta, n.d.)
Federal Reserve Education	https://www.federalreserveeducation.org/	Provides resources produced by the Federal Reserve for educational use in K-14 classrooms and for the public (The Federal Reserve, n.d.)
Foundation for Teaching Economics	http://www.fte.org/	Their mission is to promote an economic way of thinking by providing resources for teachers (Foundation for Teaching Economics, n.d.)
Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy	http://www.jumpstart.org/	A collection of personal finance education resources (Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy, 2017)

Table 1. Websites for Teaching Economics and Personal Finance *continued*

Name	Web Address	Description
Junior Achievement	http://www.ja.org	JA utilizes a hands-on approach to teach entrepreneurship and economics in K-12 classrooms (Junior Achievement USA, 2017)
Management Study Guide—Decision-Making Model	http://www.managementstudyguide.com/consumer-decision-making-process.htm	An easy to use explanation of the consumer decision-making process (MSG Experts, 2017)
MarketWatch	http://www.marketwatch.com/	Stock market information and simulation (Market Watch, Inc., 2017)
National Education Association	https://www.practicalmoneyskills.com/teach/lesson_plans	A collection of various links to a variety of financial literacy resources (National Education Association, 2017).
Practical Money Skills	https://www.practicalmoneyskills.com/teach/lesson_plans	Resources for financial literacy and economics, including games and special needs activities (Practical Money Skills, 2017)
US Mint	https://www.usmint.gov/kids/teachers/financialLiteracy/	Resources, activities, and lesson plans from the US Mint (United States Mint, 2015).

SUMMARY

Economics and personal finance courses prepare students to navigate the world as financially independent adults. Both subjects are part of a life-long learning process. This chapter discussed the importance of economics and financial literacy along with the topics to be included in courses within the two disciplines. Additionally, data presented described the business educator's unique qualifications to teach these disciplines. Teaching strategies, such as group exercises, simulations, and project-based learning, allow business educators to bring interactivity and excitement into the classroom.

Resources and links to various organizations have been included to help the educator prepare courses; many of the resources are free to educators. By incorporating the various strategies and supports provided in this chapter, students will learn about economics and personal finance in a dynamic, challenging, and current classroom.

REFERENCES

- American Economic Association. (2017). *What is economics?* Retrieved from <http://www.aeaweb.org/resources/students/what-is-economics>
- Banzai. (2016). *Financial literacy software*. Retrieved from <https://teachbanzai.com/>

- Buck Institute for Education. (2017). *What is project-based learning?* Retrieved from https://www.bie.org/about/what_pbl
- Collins, J. M. (2016, February 5). State requirements matter. *Survey of the States*, p. 4. Retrieved from <http://councilforeconed.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/sos-16-final.pdf>
- Council for Economic Education. (2010). *Voluntary national content standards in economics*. New York, NY: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.councilforeconed.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/2012/03/voluntary-national-content-standards-2010.pdf>
- Council for Economic Education. (2016). *Survey of the states*. New York, NY: Author. Retrieved from <http://councilforeconed.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/sos-16-final.pdf>
- Council for Economics Education. (2017a). *CEE: Leading organization for economics and financial education*. Retrieved from <http://www.councilforeconed.org>
- Council for Economics Education. (2017b). *EconEdLink*. Retrieved from <http://www.econedlink.org/get-started/1>
- The Federal Reserve. (2017). *Federal Reserve education*. Retrieved from <https://www.federalreserveeducation.org/>
- Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta. (n.d.). *Making finance personal: Project-based learning for the personal finance classroom*. Retrieved from <https://www.frbatlanta.org/education/publications/extra-credit/2015/spring/lessons-and-activities/high-school/personal-finance/project-based-learning-for-personal-finance-classroom.aspx>
- Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. (2017). *Economics and personal finance education resources*. Retrieved from <https://www.stlouisfed.org/education>
- Foundation for Teaching Economics. (n.d.). *Economics for teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.fte.org/>
- G20. (2012). *G20 leaders declaration*. Retrieved from http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/131069.pdf
- Google, Inc. (2017). *Google finance: Track your portfolio*. Retrieved from https://www.google.com/finance/portfolio?action=view&pid=1&ei=vBflWMmgF9L_jAHL3bboAQ
- Hite, N. G. (2013). Economics and personal finance. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 182-197). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- IGB Global. (2018). *Student engagement and participation: Concepts, methodologies, tools, and applications*. Hershey, PA: Information Science Reference.
- Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy. (2015). *National standards in K-12 personal finance education* (4th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.jumpstart.org/assets/files/2014_NationalStandardsBook-Web.pdf
- Jump\$tart Coalition for Personal Financial Literacy. (2017). *Jump\$tart Coalition for personal financial literacy*. Retrieved from <http://www.jumpstart.org/>
- Junior Achievement USA. (2017). *Why Junior Achievement*. Retrieved from <https://www.juniorachievement.org/web/ja-usa/home>
- Maier, M. (2017). *Team-based learning and cooperative learning: Lessons for group work in economics principles courses*. Glendale, CA: Glendale Community College.

- Market Watch, Inc. (2017). *Virtual stock exchange*. Retrieved from <http://www.marketwatch.com/game/>
- MSG Experts. (2017). *Stages in consumer decision making process*. Retrieved from <http://www.managementstudyguide.com/consumer-decision-making-process.htm>
- Nash, R. (2009). *The active classroom: Practical strategies for involving students in the learning process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National business education standards* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- National Education Association. (2017). *Resources for teaching financial literacy*. Retrieved from https://www.practicalmoneyskills.com/teach/lesson_plans
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2017). *PISA 2015 results (Volume IV): Students' financial literacy*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264270282-en>
- Pinkasovitch, A. (2017). Introduction to supply and demand. *Investopedia*. Retrieved from <http://www.investopedia.com/articles/economics/11/intro-supply-demand.asp>
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2011). *This we believe about personal financial literacy* (Statement No. 88). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association. Retrieved from http://nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement88_2011.pdf
- Practical Money Skills. (2017). *Lesson plans*. Retrieved from https://www.practicalmoneyskills.com/teach/lesson_plans
- Proper Living, LLC. (n.d.). *He&R Block budget challenge*. Retrieved from <http://hrblock.budgetchallenge.com/>
- PwC. (2015). *Millennials & financial literacy—The struggle with personal finance*. Retrieved from <http://www.pwc.com/us/en/about-us/corporate-responsibility/assets/pwc-millennials-and-financial-literacy.pdf>
- Renwood Realty Trac, LLC. (2017). *RealtyTrac*. Retrieved from <http://realtytrac.com/statsandtrends>
- Student loan hero. (2017, March 10). *A look at the shocking student loan debt: Statistics for 2017*. Retrieved from <https://studentloanhero.com/student-loan-debt-statistics/>
- U. S. Courts. (2016, July 27). *June 2016 bankruptcy filings down 6.9 percent*. Retrieved from <http://www.uscourts.gov/news/2016/7/27/june-2016-bankruptcy-filings-down-69-percent>
- United States Mint. (2015). *Financial literacy*. Retrieved from <https://www.usmint.gov/kids/teachers/financialLiteracy/>
- U. S. Bureau of Economic Analysis. (2017). *Personal saving rate [PSAVERT]*. Retrieved from FRED, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis: <http://fred.stlouisfed.org/series/PSAVERT>
- Way, W. L., & Holden, K. C. (2010). *Teachers background and capacity to teach personal finance: Results of a national study*. Retrieved from http://www.nefe.org/Portals/0/WhatWeProvide/PrimaryResearch/PDF/TNTSalon_FinalReport.pdf
- Yee, K. (n.d.). *Interactive techniques*. Retrieved from <http://www.usf.edu/atle/documents/handout-interactive-techniques.pdf>

Business Law

Timothy R. Koski

Sandra S. Benson

Middle Tennessee State University

Murfreesboro, TN

The authors, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Paul Sukys, author of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

The study of business law will aid students in understanding the role of law in society and in effective business decision making. To do so, a business law course must include an examination of the relationships that exist between three elements: the law, business, and ethics. Though perhaps not as obvious as the first two, an understanding of ethics and the importance of making ethical decisions is a crucial component in any business law course. The chapter (a) explores the relationship between law and ethics and the role of ethics in the law; (b) discusses how to construct an effective course in business law, including reviewing the major topics that should be covered; (c) explores strategies for incorporating the study of law into other subjects; and (d) suggests several techniques for engaging students in the study of business law and ethics.

INTEGRATING THE LAW AND ETHICS

The Importance of Ethics to the Law

There is a discomfiting trend among the newer generation of learners, many of whom lack the knowledge necessary to appropriately manage ethical dilemmas. Accordingly, it is critical that business educators discuss the importance of ethics and its relationship to the law. As a starting point, it should be noted that legal systems are based on an ethical

foundation and ideals of justice. The ethical foundation incorporates the values of the society at a given time. Evidence suggests that all human beings, regardless of the culture in which they are raised, have an intuitive sense of right and wrong (Bloom, 2010). Murder is murder, for example, no matter what culture being considered (Holmes & Douglas, 2012). This remains true even as one develops new aggravating and mitigating circumstances to punish some and exonerate others. Moreover, cheating is cheating, even if some people can rationalize their own dishonest activities (Lawton, 2012).

However, there are different views as to whether a particular law is ethical and should be followed or whether it is permissible, or even mandatory, to ignore a law that is immoral. For instance, one school of thought, which dates back to the Greek philosopher Aristotle, proposes that there are universal “natural laws” that apply to all human beings (Cross & Miller, 2016, p. 12). According to this philosophy, these laws are discoverable through reason. The Declaration of Independence, adopted by the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia on July 4, 1776, is based on this view when it declares: “We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness” (Independence Hall Association, 2017).

In a similar vein, Martin Luther King, Jr., a U.S. civil rights leader, wrote a letter from the Birmingham Jail on April 16, 1963, describing two types of laws – just and unjust. Explaining the difference between the two, King proclaimed:

A just law is a man-made code that squares with the moral law or the law of God. An unjust law is a code that is out of harmony with the moral law. To put it in the terms of St. Thomas Aquinas: An unjust law is a human law that is not rooted in eternal law and natural law. (African Studies Center, para. 13)

Persons and societies ascribing to the natural view of law find it ethical, and perhaps even a moral imperative, to disobey an unjust law. Again, according to Martin Luther King, Jr., “One has not only a legal but a moral responsibility to obey just laws. Conversely, one has a moral responsibility to disobey unjust laws” (African Studies Center, para. 12).

If natural law is universal, it follows that universal rights should be applied to all people across the globe. Indeed, in 1948 the global community implemented a Universal Declaration of Human Rights, a document that inspired the creation of several mandatory agreements including the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic and Social Rights (Sands, 2005). Universal law can also be seen in the principle of comity, which provides that one nation will defer to the law of another country as long as it is consistent with the law and public policy of the accommodating nation (Cross & Miller, 2016).

This natural view of law can be challenged. People live, after all, in a multicultural world in which this view represents only one interpretation of ethics and law. The

positivist school of thought, for instance, suggests that there are no higher laws than the law of the nation at that time. The law, in and of itself, is neither “good” nor “bad” and should be obeyed in all circumstances. A third view, based on the historical school of thought, looks at laws through the lens of history to advance those laws that have stood the test of time. Yet another school of thought, based in legal realism, considers social and economic conditions when applying the law. Legal realists, in turn, influenced the sociological school of thought whose proponents see law as a way to advance justice. This was the case in the 1960s when the U.S. Supreme Court applied neglected laws to uphold equal rights for African Americans and other minorities (Cross & Miller, 2016). Finally, there is the view that religious beliefs inform ethical principles: the Judeo-Christian tradition upholds the Ten Commandments as the basis for moral duties, the Qur’an guides the Muslim faith, and the four Vedas inform the Hindu tradition (Cross & Miller, 2016).

Thus, when international or multicultural justices do not agree, the disagreement is often based not on different ethical ideals but on different interpretations of those ideals—ideals such as justice. This is what happened in 1989, when the World Trade Organization tried to determine whether the United States could ban imports from certain Asian countries because those countries violated U.S. environmental laws. The original World Trade Organization panel ruled against the U.S. ban, but the Appellate Division of the World Trade Organization reversed the panel’s decision. However, the Appellate Division also ruled that the United States could neither discriminate against the countries in the suit, nor move forward without first exhausting diplomatic remedies. The case turned upon the question of whether it was fair for nations to select those laws they will obey and those they will ignore. The court ruled that such unilateral actions are inherently unjust. The point is not who won but how the advocates on both sides focused on a common ethical ideal—the ideal of justice (Sands, 2005).

Ethics and the Business Law Course

The mission of the business law instructor is to integrate ethics and justice into the study of law so that students appreciate how the law and ethics impact business. Business professionals should not consider the law without considering the ethical implications of their decisions. Unethical conduct threatens the reputation of the company and can negatively affect the business, the community, and society (Cross & Miller, 2016). At a minimum, organizations should comply with the laws and regulations applicable to their industry. When this is not the case, reputation, financial, and even criminal penalties may occur.

One good example to use in class would be the recent Volkswagen (VW) case. VW faced reputational and financial damage after researchers at West Virginia University reported differences in the emissions of VW vehicles on the road as compared to the emissions testing results. For over a decade, the company made a calculated decision to cheat emissions systems by installing software in certain diesel vehicles that “tricked” the testing systems into registering the vehicles as compliant. VW installed this software on approximately 11 million vehicles across the globe, and according to the Environmental

Protection Agency (EPA), toxic emissions on close to 600,000 vehicles in the U.S. were up to 40 times the allowable limits. In March 2017 Volkswagen pleaded guilty to criminal charges for conspiracy to defraud the U.S., wire fraud, and violations of the Clean Air Act for installing defeat devices on its diesel vehicles in order to pass emissions tests. If approved by the federal judge, the \$4.3 billion criminal fine and civil penalty will be the largest fine against an automaker by the U.S. government. Including prior settlements with consumers, states' attorney generals, dealers and others, the total cost to VW is more than \$20 billion. The deal also includes an independent monitor to oversee compliance at VW for three years. Criminal charges have also been filed against seven VW employees (The Associated Press, 2017; Spector & Colias, 2017).

Another example would be the pivotal case of the Ford Pinto. Ford Motor Company (Ford) was accused of knowingly producing and selling a vehicle, the Pinto, that was prone to catching fire after rear-end collisions. One journalist, Mark Dowie, described the vehicle as a "firetrap" (Lee, 1998, p. 390). Crash tests showed that the vehicle's gas tank, located at the back of the vehicle, would rupture in relatively low-speed collisions and cause the Pinto to "burst into flames upon impact" (Lee, 1998, p. 391). Allegedly, Ford engaged in a cost/benefit analysis, from which it concluded that paying less than eleven dollars per car to replace the faulty gas tanks would be more expensive than settling the lawsuits brought by burn victims and their families. Ford eventually voluntarily recalled the defective vehicles, but according to the National Highway Traffic and Safety Administration (NHTSA), 53 persons had died in fire-related accidents involving the recalled models. By 1979, a year after the voluntary recall, Ford had expended \$50 million in costs related to the Pinto controversy (Stuart, 1979). This case raised serious questions about the ethical behaviors of companies and the unconscionable practice of putting a dollar amount on human life.

In order to avoid controversies like these, businesses may need to establish practices above the legal minimum. Such elevated practices may also serve to enhance (or prevent devaluation) of a businesses' reputation, to promote or preserve industry regulation, or to prevent future mandatory regulations. In the age of instant communication and exposure for business activities across the globe, business managers should understand that the exposure of inappropriate or ineffective policies can quickly result in repercussions from consumers, suppliers, advertisers, and others. For example, this result recently occurred when Dr. David Dao, a passenger on United Airlines, was forcibly removed from a plane after he refused to comply with demands to de-board and give up his seat so that additional United Airlines employees could be transported. Videos surfaced the next day showing Chicago Department of Aviation officers dragging 69-year-old Dao down the aisle in a bloody encounter while passengers protested. Dao's lawyer alleges Dao suffered a concussion, a broken nose, and two lost teeth (Aratani, 2017; Carey, 2017). By the following day, United Continental Holding's stock was down by \$250 million (Kottasova, 2017).

The incident sparked outrage against United, including members of Congress and millions in the China market (Carey & Cameron, 2017; He 2017). There was much criticism of the response of United's CEO who defended the actions of the employees, whom he claimed "followed established procedures" (He, 2017, para 4). While United and Dao have settled any legal claims, legal and ethical issues remain. Some members of Congress expressed outrage, and Congress as a whole has called for a hearing before its House Transportation and Infrastructure Committee (Aratani, 2017). United's Board has also responded by announcing that the CEO will no longer take on the chairman role as planned and that it will change its executive-compensation incentives to tie it directly to improving cultural and process changes in order to improve the customer experience (Carey, 2017). Commenting on lessons to be learned from United's public relations fiasco, corporate culture and management advisor, Fielkow (2017), observed that while United's stated values include "warm and welcoming is who we are" and "make decisions with facts and empathy," the CEO's response of blaming the passenger did not hold United accountable to its own core values (para. 3).

PLANNING A COURSE IN BUSINESS LAW

The increased focus on the ethical foundation of the law does not mean that the instructor may abandon the legal concepts that stand as the bedrock of the course. On the contrary, these elements become even more important because they provide the students with a familiar context into which the ethical elements can be added seamlessly. Integrating ethics into the wide range of topics covered in business law unites ethics with the law so that students see how these elements are intertwined with one another and with the business world.

National Standards and Performance Expectations

Business law spans such a large range of topics that it is imperative for a business law instructor to determine the mission, goals, and objectives of the particular program in which the course is offered. The instructor must also consider applicable accreditation standards, as well as the expectations of administrators, faculty, students, parents, and employers. In the National Standards for Business Education, the National Business Education Association (NBEA, 2013) established what young learners need to know in 11 areas of business education, including business law. The standards outline what students need to know in each business area at the completion of each level (NBEA, 2013) and should be considered in planning a business law course.

In higher education, Assurance of Learning (AOL) has achieved an important position in assessing whether a program is delivering the results the program is striving to provide. The AOL process includes establishing desired learning outcomes, metrics, collection and analysis of results according to the metrics and using the results for further improvement. Depending on the institution, business law courses may be a key part of the assessment process. In a survey in which 124 members of the Academy of Legal Studies in Business (ALSB) participated, respondents were asked how legal studies fit into the assessment scheme (Steslow, Lasher, & Kong, 2016). The most commonly assessed areas, according to the authors' analysis of the results, are knowledge of the

course, followed by ethics, critical thinking, written communications, and oral communications. Some responses indicated that more time was added as a result of the assessment program for areas including ethics, corporate social responsibility, intellectual property, international/ global issues, the civil justice system, critical thinking, writing, active learning, and case studies (Steslow et al., 2016). This survey indicated that the topics offered in a legal environment course may change based on program needs and that business law courses contribute not only knowledge, but also to development of skills such as critical thinking.

Based on the mission, goals and, objectives of the program, the following topics may be incorporated in an introductory business law course:

The United States Constitution and Other Sources of Law

A standard business law course should discuss the sources of the law in the United States, which includes the United States Constitution, state constitutions, federal and state statutory law, administrative law, and common law. The U.S. Constitution is the supreme law of the land in the United States. The U.S. Constitution establishes a tripartite system to prevent one branch of government from becoming too powerful. The three branches are the executive, legislative, and judicial branch. In addition, Congress has used its authority to create and delegate powers to administrative agencies, known collectively as the fourth branch of government, who become experts in their area and pass regulations creating legal rights and obligations.

The instructor should discuss the checks and balances that each branch has over the other branches. For example, the President appoints federal judges, but the Senate must confirm them. Any law, regulation, or ordinance passed by Congress or any legislative body, or any Executive Order signed by the President of the United States, will not be enforceable if it is deemed unconstitutional by the judiciary. This right of judicial review was pronounced in 1803 in the landmark case *Marbury v. Madison*, in which the United States Supreme Court said, “It is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is” under Article III of the Constitution. In response to a court decision holding a law or order unconstitutional, the law or order cannot be enforced but may be redrafted to eliminate the unconstitutional provisions while maintaining the portion(s) of the order deemed enforceable. For instance, if Congress enacts legislation that is declared unconstitutional, Congress can amend the legislation to take out the provisions that are unconstitutional.

Provisions in the U.S. Constitution that particularly affect business should be covered, including Congress’ power to tax and spend and the Commerce Clause. The latter has a greater impact on business than any other provision as Congress has the exclusive authority under Article I, Section 8 to “regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes” (Cross & Miller, 2016, p. 71). The U.S. Supreme Court has interpreted this provision to give broad power to Congress, and Congress has used this power to pass many laws on the basis of affecting interstate com-

merce, including Title VII (the law that prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin for certain employers).

A business law instructor should cover the common law tradition early in the course. Common law is judge-made, and the principles used by courts to make decisions have emerged over time as judges decide legal controversies. *Stare decisis*, a Latin phrase meaning “to stand on decided cases,” and precedent are important parts of the judicial system. A precedent is a decision that furnishes an example or authority for deciding subsequent cases involving identical or similar legal principles or facts (Cross & Miller, 2016, p. 7). *Stare decisis* and precedent make the law more stable and are important concepts for business law students to understand as they analyze the various concepts covered in the course. The common law system is to be distinguished from civil law systems, which are used in many other countries (and in some respects in Louisiana). Among the differences, judges in civil law systems rule based on their own interpretation of the law, and not necessarily previously decided cases.

Students will also benefit from a review of the court system and following a case through court. The U.S. system is complex because both a federal court system exists, and each state has its own court system. Students should be introduced to how cases get into federal court (federal question and diversity of citizenship), the concept of jurisdiction (the power to speak over a case), and concurrent versus exclusive jurisdiction in federal or state courts. In following a case through court, the instructor can introduce students to legal terminology and concepts such as hiring an attorney and types of fee arrangements, as well as basic civil procedure, including the following: preliminary motions, discovery, jury selection, direct and cross examination, opening and closing arguments, posttrial motions, appeals, and actions upon appeal. The instructor can also discuss alternatives to in-court litigation, such as settlement agreements, negotiation, mediation, and arbitration.

The difference between substantive law, which establishes rights and duties, can be contrasted with procedural law, which determines how to enforce those rights and live up to those duties. Procedural law is frequently involved in ethical disputes, many of which are related to justice. It is helpful for the instructor to demonstrate to business students that the U.S. Constitution is filled with safeguards that preserve the rights of people who are involved in legal disputes with one another or with the government. Chief among these safeguards are those found in the Bill of Rights, which mainly focus on criminal cases, such as the right to an attorney, the right to a trial by jury in both civil and criminal actions, the right to a speedy trial, the right to be confronted by witnesses, and so on. The Bill of Rights also includes protections against unreasonable searches and seizures, searches that are conducted without properly issued warrants, unreasonable fines, cruel and unusual punishment, and the seizure of private property by the government without just compensation.

Torts

An introductory level course in business law, whether at the secondary or postsecondary level, must include a unit on tort law. A tort is a public wrong that is committed by one person against another person, resulting in injury to the health, property, reputation, or business dealings of the injured person. A person who commits a tort is known as a tortfeasor, and the victim is known as the injured party. Perhaps more than any other area of the law, tort law reveals the legal system's dependency on ethics. This fact is made clear when considering that tort law is grounded within the concept of duty and the notion of duty is grounded within the concept of justice. Because each person has the right to be free from injury, to enjoy his or her property without unwarranted interference, to have a good reputation, and to be involved in business without undue intrusion, the rest have the duty not to violate those rights. These duties can be unjustly violated in one of three ways: intentionally, by accident (negligence), and under a doctrine known as strict liability. Students must be taught the various intentional torts starting with assault and battery and including at the very least false imprisonment, defamation, disparagement, invasion of privacy, and fraud; accidental torts committed through negligence; and torts that result from ultra-hazardous activities (strict liability) (Brown & Sukys, 2013).

Contracts

All business students benefit from a short introduction to the practical aspects of contract law because, for the rest of their adult lives, they will be involved in making contracts. For purposes of business courses, students should understand that a contract is not a social understanding or a trust-based arrangement, but a legally binding agreement between parties (Gifis, 2003; Morgan, Shedd, & Corley, 2010). Since the law related to contracts is complicated and multifaceted, it is an especially challenging area of study for business students. Some of the initial resistance to this area of study can be alleviated if the instructor reminds students that, when people enter contracts, they take on duties that fit their individual needs. In exchange, they receive goods, services, or land. Because of the voluntary nature of all contracts and because all contracts are unique, the ethical ideal of justice requires that the law be flexible enough to deal with these contingencies.

Agency and Employment

The unit on employment will be immersed within questions of ethics and justice. These ethical issues emerge because the dominant doctrine in employment law in the country today remains at-will employment. This doctrine means that an employee can be discharged by an employer without notice, at any time, for any reason (or no reason), as long as employment contracts, employment discrimination laws, labor laws, and public policy are not violated. At-will employment is based on the ideal of justice; because employees are free to work with and for whomever they please, it is only fair to allow employers to discharge employees whenever they please (Cross & Miller, 2016). The other prominent doctrine in employment law is contractual employment, or employment where the terms are controlled by a contract between the parties, which again highlights the importance of contract law.

Business Organizations

One of the first decisions an entrepreneur faces is choosing the form of business organization in which to conduct business. An entrepreneur should consider several factors in making this decision, including but not limited to ease of creation and operation, personal liability of the business owners for the debts of the business, and tax considerations. It is important that business students gain an understanding of the different legal forms that can be used to operate a business. A business law course can assist students in achieving this understanding by describing the major types of business organizations, including sole proprietorships, partnerships, corporations, and limited liability companies.

The role of the corporation in society is changing as customers, regulators, and employees look beyond shareholder wealth maximization to corporate goals of promoting people and the planet. A new form of business entity has emerged, the benefit corporation, which includes the company's mission to make a material positive impact and to consider the effects of actions on society and the environment as a whole. The concept of the benefit corporation was a response to the shareholder wealth maximization theory believed to be required by law for corporations. While this maximization theory is debatable as to whether it is legally required, some owners of for-profit corporations want to be clear and want directors to consider the effects of their decisions on society and the environment.

This growing movement is also reflected in other ways. Some businesses adopt social corporate goals, measures, and activities to promote corporate social responsibility and provide reports to their shareholders. Some investors and consumers make decisions based on the evidence of the corporation's commitment and results to corporate social responsibility. Other businesses obtain certifications, such as the B Corp certification, to indicate that they meet the standards set by the certifying organization.

Alternative Dispute Resolution

Despite the high-profile view of cases in the court process of trial, appeals, and perhaps a ruling from the U.S. Supreme Court, most cases settle. Companies and their counsel have a variety of reasons and methods to settle disputes. Business law classes are the opportune time to expose students to the various ways companies settle disputes today without resorting to litigation, including mediation, arbitration, and variants such as online ADR. A discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of each is important. For example, a business may want a court to establish a precedent in an unsettled area of law and may believe the company's case has a good chance for establishing a precedent in their favor by going to court and through the appeals process if necessary. On the other hand, the company may prefer that certain types of actions remain private and be resolved quicker, usually at lower cost, and will therefore include an arbitration provision in its contracts.

Property Law

Business law students should gain an understanding of the laws that apply to property, including personal property, real property, and intellectual property. The law establishes the manner in which property can be held and at times restricts the owner's use of property. This is usually done on the local level through zoning ordinances that restrict what activities can be undertaken on real property. Additionally, understanding intellectual property law will help managers increase the value of their firm by capitalizing on intellectual property (Bagley, 2008).

International Law

An increasing amount of business is being conducted globally, and a business law course can benefit students by helping them understand how the law applies to international transactions. International law can be defined as a body of law—formed as a result of international customs, treaties, and organizations - that govern relations among or between nations (Cross & Miller, 2016). A wide variety of treaties and organizations, such as the World Trade Organization (WTO), significantly impact business operations and the economy, and understanding international law is a valuable skill for business managers. These international laws are often impacted by the ethical beliefs and customs of nations' cultures, so examining prominent cultural norms may benefit students in conducting business across the global stage.

Technology and the Law

Technology and the Internet have become an important part of everyday life. The Internet has significantly changed people's lives and allows even the smallest business to reach customers around the world. The rapid development of technology has raised a variety of challenges for the law as it tries (and often fails) to keep pace. However, despite the tendency of laws to lag behind technological advances, the study of the interrelationship between the law and electronic technology has become a vital component in all introductory business law courses. Three areas in which the law and technology intersect are civil procedure, employment, and privacy. The part of civil procedure that has been affected the most by technology is the discovery process. Discovery is the search for evidence that can be used at trial. It is critical for the instructor to explain to students that the entire discovery process is driven by an ethical concern for the sharing of evidence so that cases are decided on their merits, not on the ability of one attorney to surprise or trick another. Recently, the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure were amended to include electronically stored information to prevent one attorney from taking an unfair advantage of a colleague simply because that colleague is unfamiliar with electronic discovery opportunities.

Social media has emerged as a double-edged sword for employers, presenting both challenges and opportunities, and is an important topic in business law courses. Business people communicate daily in their professional and personal lives using a variety of e-communication devices and techniques. For this reason, many business owners write, communicate, and enforce individualized social media policies. A social media policy is

a collection of principles developed by business owners informing their workers in a fair, open, and straightforward way what the employees can and cannot do in (and sometimes outside of) the workplace. Justice and ethics demand that when employers write social media policies, they make certain that those policies are clear, uncomplicated, and communicated to their employees in a timely way. While the courts usually uphold an employer's right to dismiss employees for violation of social media policy (Cross & Miller, 2016), the issues are complicated by First Amendment rights afforded to public employees when they speak as a private citizen on matters of public concern (Pickering v. Board of Education, 1968). Although those First Amendment Rights have been espoused by case law for nearly half a century, they remain an important consideration in shaping social media policies.

In addition, the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) provides that employees of most private employers (whether unionized or not) have the right **“to engage in other concerted activities for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection”** (NLRA, Section 7). In this emerging area of social media, the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) stated that this protection “extends to certain work-related conversations conducted on social media, such as Facebook and Twitter” (NLRB, n.d.).

Internet privacy has been developing over the last 20 years. Online businesses face issues regarding potential violation of users' privacy rights and the use of customer data. The Federal Trade Commission (FTC) investigates consumer complaints of privacy violations and has forced many companies, including Google, Facebook, Twitter, and MySpace, to enter a consent decree that gives the FTC broad power to review their privacy and data practices and sue companies that violate those policies (Cross & Miller, 2016). The duty is on the company to keep consumers' personal data private and safe. This is just one example of the many issues surrounding the internet and privacy. The relationship between online businesses and customers provides a good source of material that can be used to stimulate discussion in the business law classroom. Instructors may also contextualize the material by having students research leading attorneys in the field of internet and privacy law.

INCORPORATING BUSINESS LAW WITH OTHER SUBJECTS

Every level in the educational system, from the elementary to secondary to postsecondary levels, includes some of the elements of business law. Fortunately, the curriculum offers many opportunities to embed law and ethics within classroom studies beyond those courses dedicated only to the law. Although it is natural for business law instructors to prefer that students receive that instruction in a business law course, these topics can be added to courses in other areas, including management, entrepreneurship, and accounting.

Business Law and Management

Managers who are legally aware can identify legal issues that affect their business, be conversant with legal counsel, and craft policies and business practices to prevent

or minimize future legal issues. Managers who understand contract terms and how to negotiate enforceable contracts may be better able to secure value for their company. Contracts are private law between the parties and, as such, can facilitate long-term relationships with mutual understandings among business partners, suppliers, buyers, and other stakeholders. Contracts cover multiple aspects of a business at every stage of existence, from asset purchase agreements to franchise licenses to noncompete and confidentiality agreements, to name a few.

Proactive steps in contracting may also include adding provisions for choice of law (which state's law applies to the contract) and methods of resolving disputes without resorting to litigation. Parties who negotiate or mediate disputes are free to choose their rules and their remedy to preserve the business relationship. Many businesses include arbitration provisions in their employee, consumer, and international contracts. The business objectives of arbitration provisions include the increased likelihood of a more knowledgeable decision-maker, lower awards, less time to resolve the dispute, and lower legal costs (Benson, 2008).

Managers who are proactive in managing the legal aspects of their company may be able to increase total firm value (Bagley, 2008). This is particularly true of intellectual property rights. This area of law deals with inventions and artistic works and is an entirely different area of law for which a separate exam must be passed (United States Patent and Trademark Office, 2017). For instance, when Richard Thoman was IBM's chief financial officer, IBM undertook substantial efforts to capitalize on the value of its intellectual property resulting in a 3,300% increase in its annual patent-licensing royalties in ten years (from \$30 million in 1990 to nearly \$1 billion) (Rivette, Nothhaft, & Kline, 2000). When Thoman later joined Xerox Corporation as its CEO, he followed the same strategy of focusing on intellectual property, noting that companies which can manage their intellectual property will be the winners. Rivette, Nothhaft, and Kline (2000) said this of Thoman: "Where others see mere legal instruments, he sees business tools. And where others see obscure pieces of paper gathering dust in the corporate legal office, he sees 'Rembrandts in the attic' waiting to be exploited for profit and competitive advantage."

Business Law and Entrepreneurship

Many of the decisions that entrepreneurs face in the life-cycle of a business, from selecting the appropriate type of business organization, to dealing with customers and employees, to managing and protecting intellectual property, have significant legal consequences. Incorporating business law topics into an entrepreneurship course benefits students by helping them understand the legal consequences of turning an entrepreneurial idea into a business that they will grow and manage (Tanner, Keaty, & Major, 2004). Business law topics addressed in entrepreneurship textbooks include legal issues related to legal structure; contracts; agency; bankruptcy; intellectual property; and licenses, permits, and certificates (Mariotti & Glackin, 2015).

Business Law and Accounting

Accounting overlaps with the law, and the two of them together provide techniques for handling client problems, dealing with management issues, handling employee grievances, and compiling a client's accounting records. So, when budding accountants are taught to serve the client, they should also be taught the legal consequences of not doing the job or of doing the job poorly. This instruction requires acquainting students with the rules surrounding an accountant's duties to his or her clients and to third parties, including not only those that are actually and specifically foreseen but also those who are reasonably foreseeable. This might also include familiarizing budding accountants with the latest federal statutes, including both the Sarbanes-Oxley Act and the Dodd-Frank Act (Brown & Sukys, 2013). Instructors may also introduce students to the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP), which lists standards and practices commonly accepted in the field.

TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR BUSINESS LAW

Business law courses are ideal courses to aid in the development of complex skills necessary to prepare students for careers in the 21st century. Critical thinking and the ability to convey meaningful information effectively both in writing and verbally are important skills for business leaders. According to Burke, Johnson, and Kemp (2010), employees and entrepreneurs will need to work in cross-functional teams, to think from a holistic perspective, and to make sound judgments. In their assessment, business law courses are extremely useful for preparing students to make sound judgments because legal analysis is a "structured form of thinking that addresses the higher-ordered skills of Bloom's taxonomy – principally analysis, synthesis, and evaluation" (Burke et al., 2010, pp. 9-10). The authors cited a survey in which corporate executives indicated that law courses assist business persons to recognize and manage legal problems, while another survey indicated that law courses were helpful to graduates in making business decisions (Burke et al., 2010).

Helping students develop critical thinking and communication skills is difficult to achieve using the lecture technique alone. As an alternative, business law instructors can use a variety of additional teaching strategies to supplement the lecture technique. These strategies are based on the notion that the classroom should be a place of active learning. Active learning occurs when students are involved in activities such as writing about issues, talking with one another about situations, analyzing and evaluating evidence, and working together in small teams (Caron & Gely, 2004).

Knowledge and skills development can be facilitated by many teaching methods in a business law course. Law cases are fertile ground for research, analysis, reflection, and discussion. In addition to traditional lecture, active learning assignments, case studies, class discussions, flipped classrooms, and role playing are all suitable instructional techniques for business law courses (Willey & Burke, 2011). Law courses can be taught online, in the classroom, or in a combination of online and classroom activities. In fact, a variety of methods will reach students with diverse learning styles, such as audio, visual, and kinesthetic learners. Inevitably, some learners will learn best in class discus-

sions or team work, whereas others will prefer the written analysis and reflections. Current events are often of interest to students and make the material more relatable. Cases, news articles, and popular films feature real cases (or based on true events). A combination of teaching methods incorporating landmark and current cases and topics should stimulate interest and learning for the range of students who take business law courses.

Active Learning Assignments

Active learning assignments can be based upon any number of business law activities. Since transactions are a primary activity of business lawyers, transaction and drafting assignments are particularly pertinent to providing students with real world experience in developing business law knowledge and pertinent business skills. For example, a contract exercise requiring students to negotiate and memorialize a contract in writing not only develops knowledge about contracts, but also can increase the probability that students will be able to use what they have learned after they graduate (Marsnik & Thompson, 2013). Hypothetical variations on contract exercises are endless and can incorporate other skills and topics such as conflict resolution, the use and legal parameters surrounding technology, issue spotting, problem solving, identifying and analyzing ethical implications of decisions in various cultures, and honing research skills. For example, a contract negotiation in a cross-border setting can simulate deal-making in the digital and global age (Klaw, 2016).

Other business law topics are suitable as well for active learning. For example, students can be assigned the challenge of drafting sexual harassment policies in line with current law and describing how to investigate a sexual harassment claim (Halgas, 2006) or developing a Student Code of Professional Conduct (Willey & Burke, 2011). Students can enhance research skills with assignments requiring the use of technology and the library (May & Leighton, 2013).

Technology can be effectively used to promote active learning in the business law classroom. Technology can enhance communication in the classroom and between classroom sessions. For example, students can use chat rooms to discuss class assignments with one another or with the instructor to continue team sessions after the end of class and to respond to exercises established by the teacher. Chat-room discussions may even be extended to include students located in other cities, states, and countries, thus giving classroom discussions a national and international flavor. Other social media networking tools that can be used in the classroom to enhance the educational process include but are not limited to blogging, instant messaging, and texting (Haley, 2012).

Legal Debates

Legal debates can provide an energy-charged active learning environment and can revolve around a scenario that includes several legal issues. The scenario should be written to achieve two objectives, both of which give the students added insight into the adversarial system and the law as an argumentative process. The first objective is to show learners that legal issues are rarely clear-cut and, in fact, can frequently be interpreted

in several different ways. The second objective is to investigate the wisdom of retaining or removing the legal rule under examination. For instance, a scenario that explores the question of whether the National Football League should be considered a single entity or a conglomerate of competing teams could be used to examine the impact that a monopoly has on competition in a particular industry and to explore the legal measures that have been taken to protect or prevent such activities. Debates like this can make dry topics such as the Sherman Antitrust Act come alive for many students who might otherwise enter the business law classroom with a preconceived notion that the subject is not what they are best at (*American Needle v. NFL*, 2010; *In re National Football Leagues Sunday Ticket Antitrust Litigation*, 2017).

Live Experiences and Simulations

Live experiences and simulations can augment learning, such as the business court project designed by Nees, Willey, and Mansfield (2010), which requires students to attend the business court in Atlanta, or the Build-A-Business Project proposed by Grelecki and Willey (2017). The Constructivist Theory of Learning would suggest these experiences are helpful to learning. In fact, if people do indeed construct knowledge through the things they experience, then exposure to new experiences in business courses is important for students to reflect upon, reconcile to prior experience, compare to prior ideas, and build new understandings.

Case-Based Studies

Case-based studies in law can promote oral and written communication skills and higher order critical and integrative thinking across multiple subjects (Benson & Chumney, 2011; Charters, Gunz, & Schoner, 2009; Reid & Weber, 2008; Ponte, 2006). Selecting recent cases for study has the added advantage of incorporating current business problems about which students may be familiar, but may not comprehend the scope of the legal and ethical issues (Thompson, 2017; Burgunder, 2016; McGill, 2013).

Team-Based Assignments

Team-based learning aids in developing skills in working with people from various backgrounds and perspectives and can mimic real world business practices. If the class contains students from a variety of majors, teams can be organized to include students from other disciplines. Some research indicates higher student achievement via small group learning and increased use of higher level reasoning skills (Dana, 2007). Any of the previously mentioned teaching methods (transactions, simulations, and case-based studies) can be developed as team or individual assignments.

Mock Trials

One effective active learning strategy is the mock trial. The mock trial encourages learners to analyze a fact pattern, find the legal issues embedded within those facts, and then see how the law works to resolve the issues. Learners are taught how to use legal research, legal thinking, and legal writing techniques to solve the legal problems involved in the case. Consequently, learners become actively involved in the case as they learn how to analyze the facts, search for the law, and apply the law in ways that enable them

to learn about the law as an argumentative process within the adversarial system.

The development of a mock trial assignment starts with the creation (or discovery) of a scenario that highlights a legal concept that the instructor wants to emphasize. A scenario can be fabricated, fashioned from news stories, or taken from real cases. Business law textbooks and their electronic ancillaries often include cases that can be used for a mock trial or a mock hearing. Some textbooks or their electronic ancillaries contain entire mock trial exercises that are equipped with legal documents, such as complaints, answers, transcripts, interrogatories, affidavits, and so on. Students could be given the information necessary to participate in the mock trial through handouts, or instructors could construct a role-playing scenario where the “facts” of the case are revealed to the students in real time. The students would become the witnesses to the event or scenario, able to “testify” in the mock trial as other students take on the roles of attorneys, judges, jurists, and other necessary parties. In doing so, students would gain practical experience with legal proceedings.

If a mock trial is too time-consuming to organize and complete, another novel approach is to create a short version by incorporating specific segments of a trial. The instructor assigns students to various roles in selected cases during the semester, and the students rotate through each role as attorneys, judges, clients and witnesses, news reporters, and jurors so that they experience each role at least once. For each assigned simulation, all students (except the jurors) read the case before class and use their own creativity and analytical skills to prepare for their role with written statements to deliver in a one minute time limit. In the classroom signs indicate where the students are to sit (plaintiffs’ attorneys with their clients, etc). When the simulation is ready to begin, the instructor calls court to order and the student-judges enter into the classroom turned courtroom. Next, clients and witnesses each give their statements; attorneys then provide closing statements; judges deliver instructions to the jurors who then go out of the room to deliberate; reporters give news updates and ask questions to the parties and attorneys while the jury is deliberating; and the jurors return with their verdict. A debrief helps students to reflect on what occurred and to compare the student-jurors’ verdict to the actual case outcome. A simulation such as this helps students appreciate views and roles they did not appreciate before, understand the importance of legal strategy and pointing out key facts and issues; improve confidence in public speaking; strengthen critical thinking skills; and gain deeper understanding of the legal issues than they did from textbook, lectures, and homework alone (Benson, in press).

SUMMARY

A course in business law will aid students in understanding the role of law in society and in effective business decision-making. Ethics should be incorporated into the coverage of the wide range of topics covered in a business law course. The business law teacher can use several strategies to engage learners when teaching business law and ethics, including case studies, simulations, team building activities, mock trials, legal debates, and technological enhancements.

REFERENCES

- Aratani, L. (2017, April 20). Following United dragging incident, Congress to hold oversight hearing on airline consumer issues. *Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/dr-gridlock/wp/2017/04/20/following-united-dragging-incident-congress-to-hold-oversight-hearing-on-airline-consumer-issues/?utm_term=.36a912e89cb8
- African Studies Center, University of Pennsylvania. (n.d.). *Letter from a Birmingham Jail [King, Jr.]*. Retrieved from https://www.africa.upenn.edu/Articles_Gen/Letter_Birmingham.html
- American Needle, Inc. v. National Football League et al. 130 S Ct. 2201. (2010).
- The Associated Press. (2017, March 10). Volkswagen pleads guilty in U.S. diesel emissions scandal. *LA Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com/business/autos/la-fi-hy-volkswagen-guilty-20170310-story.html> & *MPR News*. Retrieved from <https://www.mprnews.org/story/2017/03/10/volkswagen-pleads-guilty-diesel-emissions-scandal>
- Bagley, C. E. (2008). Winning legally: The value of legal astuteness. *The Academy of Management Review*, 33(02), 378-390. doi:10.2307/20159403.
- Benson, S. S. (in press). Simulating a court experience to expand diverse perspectives and to practice civil discourse. *Journal of Business Law & Ethics Pedagogy*.
- Benson, S. S. (2008). Pre-injury agreements to arbitrate health care disputes: Legally shocking or legally sensible? *Journal of Legal, Ethical, and Regulatory Issues*, 11(2), 59-83.
- Benson, S., & Chumney, W. (2011). The rise and fall of a Ponzi Scheme: The ideal illustration of the law and ethics of federal bankruptcy. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 28(2), 273-330. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2011.01092.x>
- Bloom, P. (2010, May 9). The moral life of babies. *The New York Times Magazine*, pp. 44-49, 56, 62-63, 65.
- Brown, G., & Sukys, P. (2013). *Business law with UCC applications*. Chicago, IL: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Burgunder, L. B. (2016). The selfie-made man: A case study in law, ethics, and Instagram. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 33(2), 181-233. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12046>
- Burke, D., Johnson, R., & Kemp, D. (2010, Winter/Spring). The twenty-first century and legal studies in business: Preparing students to perform in a globally competitive environment. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 27(01), 1-33. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2010.01066.x>
- Carey, S. (2017, April 22-23) United moves on executives. *The Wall Street Journal Weekend*.
- Carey, S., & Cameron, D. (2017, April 11) United CEO apologizes to passenger pulled from plane. *The Wall Street Journal*.
- Caron, P., & Gely, R. (2004). Taking back the law school classroom: Using technology to foster active learning. *Journal of Legal Education*, 54, 1-38.

- Charters, D., Gunz, S., & Schoner, V. (2009, Winter/Spring). Using the case study approach to challenge students in an introductory business law course. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 26(1), 47–86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2009.00060.x>
- Cross, F., & Miller, R. (2016). *The legal environment of business: Text and cases* (10th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Dana, S. (2007). Implementing team-based learning in an introduction to law course. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 24(1), 59–108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2007.00034.x>
- Fielkow, B. (2017, April 18) 5 Leadership failures that contributed to the United fiasco. *Entrepreneur*. Retrieved from <https://www.entrepreneur.com/article/292820>
- Gifis, S. H. (2003). *Law dictionary*. New York, NY: Barron's Educational Services.
- Grelecki, R., & Willey, S. (2017). Applying legal concepts to business in a legal and ethical environment of business course: The build-a business project. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 34(1), 89. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12058>
- Haley, C. (2012). Social media and networking tools: Meeting our stakeholders in their world. In W. L. Stitt-Gohdes (Eds.), *Trends and issues in business education: NBEA 2012 yearbook* (No. 50, pp. 106–119). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Halgas, J. (2006). Don't try this at home: Using a multilayered approach to teach the Law of Sexual Harassment and Sexual Harassment Investigations. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 23(2), 217–241. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2006.00029.x>
- He, A. (2017, April 11) United Airlines dragging incident outrages members of Congress. *CBS News*. Retrieved from <http://www.cbsnews.com/news/united-airlines-dragging-incident-outrages-members-of-congress/>
- Holmes, B., & Douglas, K. (2012, April 21). Human nature: Being legislative. *New Scientist*, 214(2861), 38–43.
- Independence Hall Association. (2017). *The Declaration of Independence*. Retrieved from <http://www.ushistory.org/DECLARATION/document/>
- In re Nat'l Football Leagues Sunday Ticket Antitrust Litigation. No. ML1502668BROJEMX, 2017 WL 3084276. (C.D. Cal. 2017, June 30). Retrieved from Thompson Reuters Westlaw.
- Kottasova, I. (2017, April 11) United loses \$250 million of its market value. *CNN Money*. Retrieved from <http://money.cnn.com/2017/04/11/investing/united-airlines-stock-passenger-flight-video/index.html>
- Klaw, B. (2016). Deal-Making 2.0: A new experiential simulation in contract negotiation and drafting for business students in the global and digital age. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 33(1), 37–69. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12034>
- Lawton, G. (2012, June 16). How much cheating is alright? *New Scientist*, 214(2869), 30–31.
- Lee, M. (1998). The Ford Pinto case and the development of auto safety regulations, 1893–1978. *Business and Economic History*, 27(2), 390–401.
- Marbury v. Madison. 5 U.S. 137. (1803). Retrieved from <https://www.law.cornell.edu/supremecourt/text/5/137>.

- Mariotti, S., & Glackin, C. (2016). *Entrepreneurship: Starting and operating a small business*. New York, NY: Pearson.
- Marsnik, S., & Thompson, D. (2013, Summer). Using contract negotiation exercises to develop higher order thinking and strategic business skills. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 30 (2), 201-248. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12001>
- May, D., & Leighton, H. (2013). Using a library-based course page to improve research skills in an undergraduate international business law course. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 30(2), 295-319. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12003>
- McGill, S. (2013, March). *The social network and the legal environment of business: An opportunity for student-centered learning*. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 30(1), 45-97. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2013.01114.x>
- Morgan, J., Shedd, P., & Corley, R. (2010). *Business law*. Redding, CA: BVT Publishing.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- National Labor Relations Act, 29 U.S.C. §§ 151-169.
- National Labor Relations Board. (n.d.). *The NLRB and social media*. Retrieved from <https://www.nlr.gov/news-outreach/fact-sheets/nlr-and-social-media>
- Nees, A., Willey, S., & Mansfield, N. (2010). Enhancing the educational value of experiential learning: The business court project. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 27(2), 171-208. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2010.01075.x>
- Pickering v. Board of Education. (1968). 391 U.S. 563. Retrieved from <https://www.law.cornell.edu/supremecourt/text/391/563>.
- Ponte, L. (2006). The case of the unhappy sports fan: Embracing student-centered learning and promoting upper-level cognitive skills through an online dispute resolution simulation. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 23(2), 169-194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2006.00027.x>
- Reid, L., & Weber, C. (2008). Using technology-enabled active learning tools to introduce business ethics topics in business law courses: New practical examples. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 25(2), 283-305. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2008.00054.x>
- Rivette, K., Nothhaft, H., & Kline, D. (2000, January/February). Discovering new value in intellectual property. *Harvard Business Review*.
- Sands, P. (2005). *Lawless world: America and the making and breaking of global rules from FDR's Atlantic Charter to George W. Bush's illegal war*. New York, NY: Viking.
- Spector, M., & Colias, M. (2017, March 11). Volkswagen faces up to penalties. *WSJ, Morningstar*. Retrieved from <http://news.morningstar.com/all/dow-jones/durables/20170311134/volkswagen-faces-up-to-penalties-wsj.aspx>
- Steslow, D., Lasher, N., & Kong, S. (2016). Closing the loop or jumping through hoops: The impact of assessment on the legal studies curricula. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 33(1), 97-127. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12036>
- Stuart, R. (1979, June 10). Year-old recall of Ford's Pinto continues to stir deep controversy. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/1979/06/10/archives/yearold-recall-of-fords-pinto-continues-to-stir-deep-controversy-50.html>

- Tanner, J., Keaty, A., & Major, C. (2004). A survey of business alumni: Evidence of the continuing need for law courses in business curricula. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 21(2), 203-224. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2004.tb00317.x>
- Thompson, D. (2017). Teaching the business law and ethics of arbitration after conception. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 34(1), 63-88. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlse.12057>
- United States Patent and Trademark Office. (2017, March 27). *Becoming a patent practitioner*. Retrieved from <https://www.uspto.gov/learning-and-resources/patent-and-trademark-practitioners/becoming-patent-practitioner>
- Willey, L., & Burke, D. (2011). A Constructivist approach to business ethics: Developing a student code of professional conduct. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 28(1), 1-38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1722.2010.01083.x>

Entrepreneurship

Jane Brooker
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bloomsburg, PA

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Karen Drage and Kathy Mountjoy, authors of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Entrepreneurial education has exploded all over college campuses and secondary institutions in recent years. Entrepreneurship has a unique connection to the national economy and its growth. This chapter on entrepreneurship explains the demand for entrepreneurial education in society, expounds on the benefits of teaching entrepreneurship in secondary and collegiate education institutions, shares foundational ideas for entrepreneurship curriculum, and lists resources business educators may use to promote and teach entrepreneurship in their classrooms.

THE CASE FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL EDUCATION

Thomas Friedman, a renowned *New York Times* editor, began his 2011 address at the National Governors Association Annual Meeting by stating the idea that parents who want their children to live better than they do, may be in serious peril. He indicated it is no longer acceptable to be an average worker. The typical work day for the workforce will not suffice anymore. Average workers are being replaced by machines and foreign workers, who can do the job better. Today's millennials must find their own unique value to add to the world, finding better ways to do their work. Friedman affirmed that students must create their

own jobs or they risk becoming unemployment casualties (Friedman, 2017). Creativity and innovation in the education system is necessary to propel the educational system to the leading spot again. How can this task be accomplished?

Entrepreneurial education may be one of answers to this dilemma. Kuratko (2005) identified in his research that entrepreneurship has grown in the last 20 years to one of the strongest economic forces in the world. Hindle (2007) shared that entrepreneurship gives an enormous economic contribution to our world as it stimulates personal development and community revitalization.

The U.S. is on a consistent, downward spiral in the effectiveness of the K-12 education system globally. Part of the problem is the lack of critical-thinking skills, creativity, and innovation. Entrepreneurship concepts teach students to think outside of the box and critically to find a solution to problems. Students who receive an entrepreneurial education, enhancing their critical-thinking skills, are generally more confident. In turn, having students like this entering the workforce can stimulate economic opportunity. Entrepreneurial education has the potential to revitalize the U.S. educational system.

Entrepreneurs are risk takers and innovators. Sometimes the behaviors of these students are not respected or acknowledged in a traditional classroom or academia setting. Forward-thinking teachers are recognizing those students and taking action as they partner with venture capitalists to fund students' business ideas. Business competitions are popping up everywhere in education as "Shark Tank" events. Entrepreneurial education reaches students that might not be reached in a traditional classroom since entrepreneurs think differently and eclectically; creativeness beyond the normal scope. Students' ideas become alive, and they can see their dreams become a reality. Today's youth will have to compete for their jobs and create their own jobs. Entrepreneurial education gives students the skills to combat this challenge in a positive, productive, and confident way.

Goals and Benefits of Entrepreneurship Education

Vanevenhoven's and Liguori's (2013) study of the Entrepreneurship Education Project is a worldwide research enterprise where college students share insights on the importance of entrepreneurial education to business educators and researchers. Research that Sanchez (2013) completed, found that self-efficacy is one of the most positive benefits of entrepreneurial education especially when the curriculum is student driven. Individuals who have high self-efficacy show perseverance to achieve their high goals, can overcome multiple failures, and demand challenging performance. Self-efficacy leads to job retention since those individuals will consistently seek to improve themselves. A certain amount of self-efficacy is necessary for risk taking, an essential part of entrepreneurial practice. Students becoming proactive is a benefit of entrepreneurial education. Proactive individuals tend to gravitate towards self-employment, like entrepreneurship.

Bae, Qian, Miao, and Fiet, (2014) defined **entrepreneurial education** as having the entrepreneurship mindset and skillset and **entrepreneurial intentions** as a desire to own or begin their own business. Their study found that there was a small, positive correlation between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions.

Fayolle and Gailly's research study (2015) exhibited that entrepreneurial intentions presuppose individuals favorably to entrepreneurship and raise awareness of the capitalist personality and attitude in a small, but purposeful way. On the same note, Peterman and Kennedy's (2003) study showed that entrepreneurial education encourages positive bends towards entrepreneurship and the appeal towards being an entrepreneur.

Boocock, Frank and Warren's (2009) research found that technology-based entrepreneurial education was particularly unique and exceptional in increasing national wealth and competitiveness. The technology piece adds a unique dimension to the traditional entrepreneurial education. Innovation in technology is necessary to persist and be competitive in this technology-driven world. Therefore, the combination of technology and entrepreneurial education can be extremely powerful.

Entrepreneurial education concepts are severely lacking at the university level. University officials are considering and many have already implemented, required entrepreneurial classes, in business departments, as well as cross curricular. The purpose is to spark motivation and creativity towards the entrepreneurial mind.

Nature and Role of Entrepreneurship in the Economy

Miguel's and Margarida's (2009) study looked mainly at recent postgraduates and found that entrepreneurial education may be an effective way to promote local economies. Entrepreneurial concepts encourage economic innovation. As Thomas Friedman stated in his address to the governors of this nation, current employees need to bring innovation, value, and creative thinking to their jobs or they risk being terminated (Friedman, 2017).

Employers are retaining the employees who find better ways to do their work; employees who are innovators. Employers are seeking critical-reasoning individuals who adapt and reinvent. To keep the economy strong, the workforce will need to create their own jobs, not find or take good jobs.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION CURRICULUM

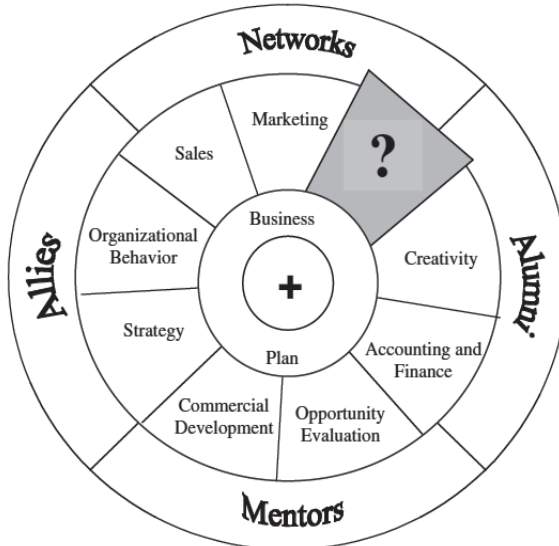
Quality sources of entrepreneurial education can be found in academic journals, textbooks, biographies about entrepreneurs, books about entrepreneurship, venture periodicals, compendiums about entrepreneurs, government publications, and proceedings of conferences. In addition to all those listed above, a significant source of information can be gleaned from the source itself, the entrepreneur, through interviews, personality profiles, and observation. A third source can be found through presentations and seminars from the entrepreneurs themselves.

Major themes that should be covered, but are not limited to, are venture financing, women and minorities as entrepreneurs, differences between entrepreneurial and managerial domains, corporate entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial strategies, risks and opportunity costs of entrepreneurship, the entrepreneurial spirit, ethics and entrepreneurship, negotiation, new product development, innovative technology, and economic and social contributions of entrepreneurship (Kuratko, 2005).

Hindle (2007) argued that entrepreneurship does not necessarily need to be taught in the business department at universities. He went on to explain that business curriculum has a tendency towards education for a career that would be working for someone else. Entrepreneurship can be applied to all disciplines and involves creativity and thinking innovatively. An apprenticeship program would be a strong part of this curriculum. The apprentice, in this instance, guides and would not directly teach.

An entrepreneurship curriculum cannot be put in the same place for all education institutions. It is important that each institution carefully tailor the curriculum to the needs of its organization and students. The program should also have room to change and foster creativity. The spirit of creative innovation is the key to a quality, entrepreneurial education curriculum. Figure 1 (Hindle, 2007, p. 119) shows a possible scenario or template for building an entrepreneurship curriculum.

Figure 1 The wheel template for building an entrepreneurship curriculum



Content and Outline

In regards to the content and outline of an entrepreneurial education program, Fayolle (2013) pointed out that a strong foundation built on solid concepts are critical. The foundations of theory and concepts should be extracted from the best of entrepreneurial and education precepts. In addition, careful consideration to the practices of educators and entrepreneurial practitioners is necessary in running a successful entrepreneurial education program. Professional communities of sharing will provide the environment which continuously improves entrepreneurial education and maintains its effectiveness.

It is particularly vital to note that there is a distinct discrepancy between teaching entrepreneurship concepts and teaching/guiding students to become successful entrepreneurs. Some students will not pursue becoming entrepreneurs, but the entrepreneurship concepts will benefit them in life. The concepts of creative thinking, self-efficacy, positive attitude, and team building will benefit them in whichever career path they choose.

Experiential learning is key in entrepreneurial education. Students must experience first-hand and be involved in choices in the entrepreneurial learning process. Entrepreneurial education must include physical connection with current and successful entrepreneurs.

Successful entrepreneurial education curriculum must have a solid, entrepreneurial research component. To keep an entrepreneurial program successful, change is critical. Stagnation will kill the program. The oil that will keep the program running smoothly is a combination of three things: being willing and open to change, innovation, and risk taking. Academia has been notorious for risk adversity. Once an institution acknowledges this, the better everyone will be (Kuratko, 2005).

Corporate entrepreneurship is defined by Heinonen (2007) as entrepreneurship that is inside a corporation, whether it is big or small. It can be seen in new product ventures as well as product development and innovation. Heinonen's (2007) study concluded that engaging student activities along with meaningful discussion in the university classroom were more productive and increased learning more than traditional education practices such as lectures. This type of learning which Heinonen (2007) called the entrepreneurial-directed approach included the arts as opposed to the science of entrepreneurial education.

As the students had ownership of their entrepreneurial education, the impact improved. Group discussions, role play activities, and case studies were a primary part of the increased education effectiveness. In addition to the learning effectiveness, creativity and innovation were encouraged, cultured, and strengthened. Reflections where students shared their thoughts and experiences proved to be a positive aspect of this education, where creative thoughts could be expressed (Heinonen, 2007). Possible ideas for new classes that incorporate entrepreneurial concepts are franchising, social entrepreneurship, venture capitalism (Solomon, 2014).

National Standards

The National Business Education Association (NBEA) publishes standards known as the *National Standards for Business Education* that provide framework for business educators in their business curriculum (NBEA, 2013). These standards prepare students to be literate in business and economy, competent in the ever-changing technology world, and leaders in their future careers. Business educators' lesson plans may include these standards in curriculum planning.

Methods of Instruction and Teaching Strategies

Balan and Metcalfe (2012) studied six specific teaching methods in a business undergraduate setting and showed that student engagement is a positive effect of entrepreneurship education. The six teaching methods were poster presentations, team-based learning, one business idea for each class, entrepreneurship survey, small business awards, and entrepreneur presentations. The findings showed that the poster presentations and team-based learning teaching methods were the most effective.

Poster presentations were composed of teams including four to six students comprising their business plan and report. When students presented, the other teams commented and developed questions for a special discussion session. All posters were examined by the other teams before the discussion session.

The team-based learning took part before the actual lecture session. Students studied the material before the lesson and individually took a pretest. Afterwards, they worked with team members to complete the same test with immediate feedback. The competitive nature of this activity resulted in high student engagement.

The single business idea for each class concentrated on one business idea instead of the traditional way of each team developing a different business. This method provides a common focus, yet provides creative interpretations from the teams to have quality classroom discussions.

The entrepreneurship survey was given to students in class. Their personalized report was analyzed in the rationale that learning entrepreneurial concepts would be learned better when related to themselves and their characteristics as opposed to others.

Small business awards involved student teams working with a manager to develop an award program. The students were able to understand the inner business operations and management of an entrepreneurial business therefore increasing their knowledge.

The entrepreneur presentations consisted of lunchtime appearances by entrepreneur practitioners in a storytelling atmosphere. As the entrepreneurs shared first-hand experience and stories, students were able to communicate, ask questions, and engage in dialog.

The National Survey of Entrepreneurial Education, which increases awareness of entrepreneurial education, listed several other teaching strategies including: unstructured classroom settings with problems to solve, live cases, simulations, live time with real entrepreneurs, and readings of entrepreneurship and academic journals. Other teaching strategies are elevator pitch competition, business plan competition, entrepreneurship clubs, distinguished speaker series, net impact club, incubators, case competencies, websites, hatcheries (student owned in one location), campus based business (university owned, student run), case competitions, and Young Entrepreneurs Organization, with the most popular being the first four listed (Solomon, 2014).

Recap of Methods of Instruction and Learning Strategies:

- Poster presentations – teams presenting a business idea
- Team-based learning – teams competing against each other on lesson material
- One business idea for each class
- Entrepreneurship survey – personal assessment on entrepreneur characteristics
- Small business awards
- Entrepreneur presentations
- Problem solving in and unstructured setting
- Live cases
- Simulations
- Live time with real entrepreneurs
- Readings of entrepreneurship and academic journals
- Elevator pitch competition
- Business plan competition
- Entrepreneurship clubs
- Distinguished speaker series
- Net impact club
- Incubators
- Case competencies
- Websites
- Hatcheries – student owned in one location
- Campus based business - university owned; student run
- Case competitions

LEARNING OUTCOMES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Entrepreneurial education has positive outcomes of increasing team building, innovative and critical thinking, and problem-solving skills. Management skills is another skill that stood out as an additional desired outcome of entrepreneurial education.

Teaching techniques that used teams in the classroom showed an increased motivation for entrepreneurial endeavors. A preference was shown where student choice was present, i.e. students choose their own business to form (Hytti, Stenholm, Heinonen, & Seikkula-Leino, 2010).

Macht and Ball (2016) described entrepreneurial education as student centered and project-based learning. The student is in charge of his/her own learning as opposed to a teacher lecturing in front of the classroom and is responsible for completing an assessment at the end of the lesson or unit. Education is shifting both at the secondary and university levels. Research is showing that when students choose and are a part of the learning process, more effective learning takes place. When the teacher is more of a guide or facilitator, student engagement and motivation increase in this type of environment.

Entrepreneurial education should complement a technical specialty, such as engineering or software developing. With this combination, the student has a wide breadth of knowledge to start a business.

Experiential learning or reflective learning is more effective than teacher-driven learning. Entrepreneurial education fits this description well. Authentic alignment transpired from Macht and Ball's (2016) research in an undergraduate course called, Graduate Enterprise. This course was open to all undergraduates and required for business majors. Entrepreneurship skills were taught even if the students were not planning on pursuing an entrepreneurial career. The course's mission was not to make everyone entrepreneurs but to educate in a broad sense of the word, the entrepreneurial spirit of creativity and innovativeness. Students were to work in teams to create and run a real-world business and then report and reflect on the process. Much of the work was done outside of class. Times were scheduled to meet and discuss their progress and thoughts for future improvement. Situated learning is at the forefront of this process. Students gained first-hand knowledge of the inner workings of a business. Skills learned were leadership, critical thinking, communication, problem-solving, time management, conflict resolution, decision making, and negotiation (Macht & Ball, 2016). Since students were expected to work outside of the classroom, independent thinking is an integral learning outcome of this program.

Role of the Business Teacher Educator

While there has been a marked increase in entrepreneurial education in the last 20 years, Alborno (2013) found in his recent study, that professors in higher education have widely different teaching goals and pedagogy in this field. One educator's goal

could be implementing entrepreneurial skills while another program or curriculum would focus on starting an actual business. This leads to the fact that not all entrepreneurial skills are about business creation. The study also found that teaching goals were manipulated based on student's needs and interests in the learning process. Based upon this, some students would need entrepreneurial skills to succeed in the corporate world and others would need them to become a successful entrepreneur.

Teachers or faculty that are educators, versus those that have been entrepreneurs, can approach the teaching of entrepreneurship altogether differently with respect to values and processes of entrepreneurship each unique to their own strengths. The key to this is an educator's acute awareness of his/her students' unique interests and skills and crafting the curriculum around them to better serve their students' quality of education.

Another key component and result of Sanchez' (2013) study was the huge role of the entrepreneurial educator. The instructor who is charismatic and emotionally invested transfers that enthusiasm in the classroom and to the students. As the nonverbal cues that come from the educator spill over to the student, the effectiveness and the transfer of entrepreneurial characteristics and knowledge occurs. The instructor leads by example with entrepreneurial passion and drive.

Performance Outcomes

New pedagogy proven effective involved a classroom community which enhanced the students' and teacher's relationship where positive learning outcomes increased (Huq & Gilbert, 2017). Duval-Couetil (2013) found these learning and performing outcomes of entrepreneurial education:

- Economic development
 - Increased number of new firms
 - Increased number of employees
 - Innovation
- Firm performance
 - Financial performance
 - Relation to other firms
 - Innovation
- Impacts to individual participants
 - Self-employment
 - Personal and career satisfaction
 - Knowledge acquisition
 - Skills acquisition
 - Identification of individual potential
 - Changed attitudes

- Skills and knowledge – how well the students understood concepts
- Student interest
- Student awareness
- Entrepreneurial intention
- Entrepreneurial behaviors, skills, and attitudes
- Empathy with the entrepreneurial life
- Entrepreneurial values such as independence and ownership
- Motivation toward an entrepreneurial career
- Understanding the venture creation process
- Developing generic entrepreneurship competencies
- Developing key business how-to's
- Networking and managing relationships with key stakeholders
- Impacts on the community
- Venture creation by students and young graduates
- Resulting innovations
- Inculcation of entrepreneurial values
- Preparation of a business plan for a new venture
- Ventures launched
- Growth and development of enterprises

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION RESOURCES FOR EDUCATORS

Below is a table listing and describing resources for educators who are teaching entrepreneurship education.

Table 1 Entrepreneurship Education Resources for Educators

Website	Description
Curriculum	
http://www.apexstriving.com/	Apex Striving. They aim to prepare and inspire youth by developing effective resources that teach financial literacy, a philosophy of achievement, and the entrepreneurial skills necessary for students to dream big and reach for their potential.
https://www.bizworld.org/About-Bizworld	BizWorld. Teaching elementary and middle school children across the U.S. and in 100 countries around the world how to run a business through our entrepreneurship programs. Their mission is to empower children to become 21st century thinkers by awakening their entrepreneurial spirit, inspiring them to become the architects of their futures, and giving them the confidence to transform their world.
https://everfi.com/	Business for profit. Students are required to sell their products or services in school. A school store may be incorporated in the business education curriculum as an entrepreneur class.
https://www.collegeboard.org/?navId=www-cb	Dual enrollment. A program where high school students enroll in local or online college courses. This allows high school students to start college with undergraduate credit, saving them hundreds to thousands of dollars. It also prepares them for the transition to the rigor of college classes.
http://www.trepeducation.com/	Entrepreneurship Education Project Global. A longitudinal research initiative through which university students offer entrepreneurship educators and researchers data-driven insights on the impact of entrepreneurial education.
https://www.kickstarter.com/about?ref=nav	Kickstarter. An enormous global community built around creativity and creative projects.
http://www.mbaresearch.org/	MBA Research and Curriculum Center. Nonprofit organization to support educators in preparing students for careers in business. MBA Research listens to community and business leaders to enhance business curriculum.
https://www.nfte.com/	NFTE. The Network for Teaching Entrepreneurship's mission is to provide programs that inspire young people from low-income communities to stay in school, to recognize business opportunities and to plan for successful futures.

Table 1 Entrepreneurship Education Resources for Educators *continued*

Website	Description
http://www.entre-ed.org/	National Consortium for Entrepreneurship Education. EntreEd is an organization recognized as the national leader in advocating entrepreneurship education as a lifelong learning process. Promote Enterprise Week (NEW), an annual entrepreneurship conference for students.
https://newtechnetwork.org/who-we-are/	New Tech Network. Organization working to revolutionize education at the K-12 level. Listening to community and business members that need employees who can problem solve, New Tech Network works with schools to develop project-based education throughout the school. This includes collaboration within content areas and elective areas.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228464632_A_Study_of_Teaching_Methods_in_Entrepreneurship_Education_for_Graduate_Students	Research Gate. A study of teaching methods in Entrepreneurship Education for graduate students.
http://www2.nbia.org/about_nbia/	Small Business Incubators. Programs sponsored by local businesses to create and grow young businesses. They are a support system providing financial and technological services to startup businesses. There are approximately 900 incubators nationwide. Support includes: coaching, marketing and business planning, sharing office and secretarial services, networking connections, and nurturing.
https://www.globalstudentnetwork.com/	STEM + Entrepreneurship. Their annual conference brings together experts from around the world to share innovations and how best to engage students in these crucial subject areas.
Organizations	
https://www.guidestar.org/profile/23-2063626	EconomicsPA. The mission is to ensure that every young person in Pennsylvania understands essential economic and financial literacy concepts, benefits by using economic ways of thinking and problem-solving skills, and has a continuous understanding of the nature and structure of the global economy and its relationship to individual liberty and freedom.
https://www.federalreserve.gov/	Federal Reserve Bank. Often referred to as “the Fed” is the central bank of the United States. Congress created the Fed in 1913 to help promote a safe and sound monetary and financial system for our nation.

Table 1 Entrepreneurship Education Resources for Educators *continued*

Website	Description
https://www.nbea.org/	NBEA. The National Business Education Association is the nation's leading professional organization devoted exclusively to serving individuals and groups engaged in instruction, administration, research, and dissemination of information for and about business. NBEA is the leading association devoted to the recognition that business education competencies are essential for all individuals in today's fast-changing society. The NBEA houses the national standards for K-12 business education.
Student Organizations	
https://www.deca.org/	DECA. DECA prepares emerging leaders and entrepreneurs for careers in marketing, finance, hospitality and management in high schools and colleges around the globe.
http://www.fbla-pbl.org/?cid=191	FBLA. Its mission is to bring business and education together in a positive working relationship through innovative leadership and career development programs.
https://www.juniorachievement.org/web/ja-usa/home	Junior Achievement. JA's volunteer-delivered, kindergarten-12th grade programs foster work-readiness, entrepreneurship and financial literacy skills, and use experiential learning to inspire students to dream big and reach their potential.
http://www.skillsusa.org/	SkillsUSA. A partnership of students, teachers and industry working together to ensure America has a skilled workforce. SkillsUSA helps each student excel.
Online Simulations	
http://goventure.net/products/entrepreneur.html	GoVenture. Online entrepreneur simulation game
https://virtonomics.com/	Virtonomics. Online entrepreneur simulation game
http://www.virtualteamchallenge.com/home.php	Virtual Team Challenge. Business simulation game promoting team building and decision making.

SUMMARY

The impact of entrepreneurship education programs is realized in its ability to create jobs and economic value in the nation, according to Duval-Couetil (2013). With the changes in the economy, future students need to possess more marketable skills than ever before. The current workforce can no longer expect to work in the same company for 30 years without bringing new, fresh ideas to the company. Entrepreneurial skills for all undergraduate majors enhances individuals' knowledge and creativity for long-term employability. With these skills, students will create their own place, their own distinct and personal touch in their work, and take pride in their career (Friedman, 2017).

Only positive results can occur when education and entrepreneurship intertwine. As the entrepreneurial mindset entrenches into sound, pedagogical curriculum, coupled with critical thinking skills, healthy, economic principles will be the outcome. Entrepreneurial education is the secret, key ingredient to putting America back on top in education.

REFERENCES

- Albornoz Pardo, C. (2013). Is business creation the mean or the end of entrepreneurship education?: A multiple case study exploring teaching goals in entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Technology Management & Innovation*, 8(1), 1-10.
- Balan, P., & Metcalfe, M. (2012). Identifying teaching methods that engage entrepreneurship students. *Education & Training*, 54(5), 368-384. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911211244678>
- Bae, T. J., Qian, S., Miao, C., & Fiet, J. O. (2014). The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions: A meta-analytic review. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 38(2), 217-254. <https://doi.org/10.1111/etap.12095>
- Boocock, G., Frank, R., & Warren, L. (2009). Technology-based entrepreneurship education: Meeting educational and business objectives. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 10(1), 43-53. doi:10.5367/000000009787414226}
- Duval-Couetil, N. (2013). Assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education programs: Challenges and approaches. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 51(3), 394-409. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12024>
- Fayolle, A. (2013). Personal views on the future of entrepreneurship education. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 25(7-8), 692-701. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08985626.2013.821318>
- Fayolle, A., & Gailly, B. (2015). The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention: Hysteresis and persistence. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53(1), 75-93. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12065>
- Friedman, T. (2017, July 17). *National Governor's Association annual meeting: Thomas Friedman remarks*. Retrieved from <https://www.c-span.org/video/?300480-1/national-governors-association-annual-meeting-thomas-friedman-remarks>
- Heinonen, J. (2007). An entrepreneurial-directed approach to teaching corporate entrepreneurship at university level. *Education & Training*, 49(4), 310-324. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910710754453>
- Hindle, K. (2007). Teaching entrepreneurship at university: From the wrong building to the right philosophy. *Handbook of Research in Entrepreneurship Education*, 1, 104-126.
- Huq, A., & Gilbert, D. (2017). All the world's stage: transforming entrepreneurship education through design thinking. *Education & Training*, 59(2), 155-170. doi:10.1108/ET-12-2015-0111

- Hytti, U., Stenholm, P., Heinonen, J., & Seikkula-Leino, J. (2010). Perceived learning outcomes in entrepreneurship education: The impact of student motivation and team behaviour. *Education & Training*, 52(8/9), 587-606. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911011088935>
- Kuratko, D. F. (2005). The emergence of entrepreneurship education: Development, trends, and challenges. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(5), 577-598. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00099.x>
- Macht, S. A., & Ball, S. (2016). "Authentic alignment" - a new framework of entrepreneurship education. *Education & Training*, 58(9), 926-944. doi:10.1108/ET-07-2015-0063
- Miguel, P., & Margarida, C. (2009). Promoting business creation through real world experience. *Education & Training*, 51(2), 150-169. doi:10.1108/00400910910941309
- National Business Education Association. (1995). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business (3rd ed.)*. Reston, VA: Author.
- Peterman, N. E., & Kennedy, J. (2003). Enterprise education: Influencing students' perceptions of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28(2), 129-144. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1540-6520.2003.00035.x>
- Sánchez, J. C. (2013). The impact of an entrepreneurship education program on entrepreneurial competencies and intention. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 51(3), 447-465. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12025>
- Solomon, G. T. (2014). *The National Survey of Entrepreneurship Education: An overview of 2012–2014 survey data*. Washington, DC: George Washington University Center for Entrepreneurial Excellence.
- Vanevenhoven, J., & Liguori, E. (2013). The impact of entrepreneurship education: Introducing the entrepreneurship education project. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 51(3), 315-328. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12026>

International Business

Les R. Dlabay
Lake Forest College
Lake Forest, IL

Throughout the global economy, people work and exchange goods in a wide diversity of market settings. International business ranges from multinational companies conducting billion-dollar transactions negotiated by smartphone to pushcart vendors selling homemade items in less-developed economies. Today nearly every company imports, exports, or competes against other companies that import or export.

With expanding economic interdependence, students need knowledge and competencies to work and live in global business settings. International business education is a vital component for students to participate effectively in diverse cultural interactions. This chapter discusses: (a) trends influencing the global business environment; (b) an overview for international business course content; (c) a review of curriculum patterns for international business programs; (d) discussion of student-centered instructional strategies; (e) recommended global business resources; and (f) suggested professional development activities for faculty.

THE GLOBAL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

Globalization involves the process of expanding business based on a worldwide perspective. Organizations in different countries connect for business activities extending across cultures and varied levels of economic development. Globalization occurs in a context of change related to political, technological, cultural, and economic forces.

The Politics of International Trade

Changing political environments continue to set the tone for global business relationships. As some ideologies evolve and economies move from controlled settings to market economies, enhanced investment and entrepreneurial opportunities are created. Although globalization is highly visible, regional economic integration is also evident. Trade agreements and organizations connect nations in close proximity. While the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the European Union, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and the Mercosur in South America have provided the foundation for this movement, these organizations continue to evolve. In addition, emerging markets in Central America, the Caribbean, and Africa have created trading blocs to compete in the world economy (Geringer, 2015). In contrast, economic nationalism has surfaced, with some nations moving away from free trade agreements, and placing a greater emphasis on domestic business development.

Technology and Innovation for Global Business Activities

Throughout history, innovation has enhanced the quantity and quality of international trade. Improved communications systems, freight containerization, and overnight delivery services have expanded global activities. Artificial intelligence, blockchain technology, fintech, and virtual reality have produced global opportunities previously restricted by geographic, financial, or political constraints. In addition, *frugal innovation*, the ability to reduce the complexity and cost of a product, is improving quality of life in developing economies.

Cross-Cultural Business Settings

While expanding global business occurs in every region, cultural homogeneity can result. Technologies, especially the Internet, makes products and brands as easily available in Egypt and Thailand as in Houston and Miami and create concerns about the loss of a nation's unique identity. Younger generations often prefer new ideas, products, and activities at the expense of their cultural traditions. As a result, nationalist groups may oppose the influence of multinational companies on a nation's customs and heritage.

Extensive cultural diversity also occurs within the borders of a country. With more than 200 ethnic groups and languages spoken in New York City as well as throughout the United States, students must be ready for global interactions in their own neighborhoods. With this extensive cultural presence, Hagen and Berg (2012) encouraged international business knowledge for all students, even those who expect to work only in a domestic setting.

Emerging Markets, Dual Economies, and Social Business

Over two billion customers, with trillions of dollars of spending power, create an extensive potential market. While the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China) previously received the most emphasis, vast opportunities exist elsewhere. Those living on \$2 or less a day, frequently referred to as the *base of the pyramid* (BoP), represent a market with many needs and strong business potential in Africa, Asia, and Latin America (London, 2016).

These emerging markets create opportunities to offer affordable products related to food, water, energy, health care, education, and financial services. However, BoP consumers and distributors live under very different conditions. Workers must be prepared to do business in open-air markets as well as in traditional retail stores. Transport might be by oxcart and bicycle as well as by truck and train. Business activities in BoP pyramid markets include Unilever, which has created an array of low-cost food, water, personal care, and home care products for consumers in Africa, Asia, and elsewhere.

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS COURSE CONTENT

Education in global issues is a necessity for a successful international presence. “Success in a global business environment requires knowledge and understanding of global components: economic systems, business practices, political and legal structures, and multicultural contexts” (Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, 2004). This vision creates the basis for the international business curriculum. The *National Standards for Business Education* outlines a comprehensive set of performance standards for teaching international business (National Business Education Association [NBEA], 2013).

Foundations of International Business

Two economic principles are the foundation for international business. First, *absolute advantage* exists when a country can produce a good or service at a lower cost than most other countries. This situation usually results from an abundance of natural resources or raw materials. Second, a *comparative advantage* happens when a country specializes in a certain good or service. The nation becomes relatively more efficient than other nations in this industry, which may result from technology or a highly trained labor force.

Balance of trade, the difference between the value of a country's exports and imports, is a common measure of international business. Since balance of trade measures only imports and exports, *balance of payments* measures the total monetary inflows of a country minus the total outflows. This economic measurement includes exports, imports, investments, tourist spending, and financial assistance.

Environmental Factors of International Business

Geographic, economic, cultural, and political factors create global business opportunities. Knowledge of location, climate, terrain, waterways, natural resources, and other geographic elements is vital for successful international trade. For example, products commonly transported by truck or train in one area may require oxen or other nonconventional transportation modes elsewhere.

Level of economic development reflects the ability to generate wealth and participate in international trade. An *industrialized country* has advanced production facilities and technology, a highly educated population, and a strong infrastructure. A *less-developed country (LDC)* has low economic wealth, depending mainly on agriculture or mining. Between these extremes are *developing countries*—nations characterized by improving educational systems, increasing technology, and expanding international trade activities.

An often overlooked business activity is the *informal economy*. Also known as unregistered businesses or the underground economy, these transactions can account for 40 to 60% of a nation's business, and commonly include pushcart vendors, street markets, and home-based businesses. Although these informal business activities are most prevalent in the developing economies of Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe, and Latin America, industrialized nations have enterprises operating "off the books," with hundreds of millions of dollars of unreported sales revenue and unpaid taxes.

Culture, including traditions, language, family relationships, education, and religion, is a significant factor affecting business globally. Behaviors such as an improper gesture, an inappropriate gift, or offensive negotiation tactics can damage economic relationships.

Legal and political concerns also present global business challenges. Companies may encounter trade barriers such as tariffs, import quotas, and packaging regulations. Enforcement of intellectual property rights creates difficulties when distributing products involving brand names, copyrights, patents, and trademarks. The World Bank reports the status of business regulations in more than 180 countries at www.doingbusiness.org.

International Business Communication

Greeting methods, formal titles, nonverbal interactions, and negotiation styles vary across cultures. These intercultural situations range from managing teams from various countries to business negotiations in unusual settings. To avoid potential global trade obstacles, cross-cultural communication training is vital. The work of Edward T. Hall and Geert Hofstede provide business educators with valuable guidance related to cross-cultural communications.

Global Business Ethics and Social Responsibility

Culture and political environments influence business practices. For example, aggressive foreign companies have been known to use payoffs to gain access to new markets. While some cultures may consider this payment an acceptable action, U.S. businesspeople are subject to the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act and may face fines or prison sentences when engaging in such practices.

Organizational Structures for International Business Activities

Forms of business ownership can differ in international markets. Global companies may use modified structures and branding. For example, breakfast cereals such as Cheerios, Lucky Charms, and Trix are sold under the "Nestle" brand, instead of "General Mills," in Latin America, Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. Cereal Partners Worldwide (CPW) is a partnership combining the products of General Mills with the brand name and distribution channels of Nestle. This arrangement allows the companies to leverage their strengths to better serve consumers and to advance their global business mission.

Common forms of organizational strategies for global business include the following organizational strategies:

- *Joint ventures*, also called *strategic partnerships* or *strategic alliances*, involve an agreement between two or more companies to share a business project related to manufacturing or distribution.
- *Turnkey projects* allow a company to enter a foreign market by creating a ready-to-use business facility, such as technology or a production plant.
- *Management contracting* involves selling administrative skills and technical services by businesses such as hotels, health care providers, financial service companies, and information technology organizations.
- *Contract manufacturing* occurs when a company in a foreign country produces an item for another company.
- *Licensing* involves selling the right to use an intangible property (production process, trademark, or brand name) for a fee or royalty.
- *Franchising* is the right to use a company name or business process in a specific way. (Dlabay & Scott, 2011).

International Trade

A strategic trade alliance, such as NAFTA, seeks to promote free trade among countries. However, tariffs, quotas, laws, and other *formal trade barriers* may restrict trade between countries (NBEA, 2013). In contrast, geography, culture, religion, and family relations create *informal trade barriers*, which also limit the free flow of goods, services, labor, and capital.

International Management

Managerial practices and leadership styles differ among cultures. Human resource management issues include child labor laws, compensation, benefits, labor-management practices, health and safety issues, environmental concerns, employee relocation, and career paths (NBEA, 2013).

International Marketing

When a company conducts business in another country, management must decide whether to use a “standardized” or “customized” strategy. While some products such as cameras, cell phones, or computers can be sold almost the same throughout the world, others must be adapted. For example, McDonald’s uses a revised menu in different countries based on tastes, customs, and religious beliefs.

Globalization involves *sourcing* from several regions of the world. Companies commonly have a supply chain involving raw materials, product designers, and assembly plants from several countries. When a company is directly involved in varied stages of production and distribution, *vertical integration* occurs. An example would be an auto manufacturer that owns its own glass company or tire manufacturer.

International Finance

Foreign exchange is the conversion of the currency of one country into the currency of another country. The *exchange rate* is the amount of currency of one country that can be traded for one unit of the currency of another country. Three main factors affect currency exchange rates among countries: a nation's balance of payments; economic conditions, such as inflation and interest rates; and political stability.

Countries, such as the members of the European Monetary Union (EMU), may unite under a single currency, which uses the *euro* as the official currency. The Central Bank of West Africa States issues a single monetary unit called the *franc* for the African Financial Community. This currency is used in eight countries—Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea Bissau, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Niger, Senegal, and Togo.

Microfinance, also called *microlending* and *microcredit*, involves small loans to finance self-employment projects. These business activities generate income to provide for life necessities and family needs. In recent years, microfinance services have expanded beyond loans to include savings and insurance to better serve low-income clients without access to the formal banking system.

CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION PATTERNS

At the high school and college level, an international business curriculum may consist of integrated instructional units in existing classes or specialized international courses. Many colleges and universities offer a comprehensive international business program, which often involve cross-discipline partnerships and online course delivery.

Integrated Instructional Units

Personal contacts can provide an international component to a business education program. Most people have either traveled to other countries or know someone who has traveled. Guest speakers, videos, sample global products, and social media exchanges can enhance the global context of accounting, business communication, marketing and other courses.

A starting point in an accounting class might be the study of recordkeeping practices in other countries, along with a discussion of currency exchange rates. Online research activities to obtain information on global stock exchanges or other accounting-related would be appropriate.

In a business communication course, students should develop awareness of cultural differences in dress, greetings, and business hours around the world. For example, while shaking hands is appropriate in many countries, other types of welcoming may include bowing or hugging. A business communication class could discuss cross-cultural negotiation styles.

In a keyboarding or computer applications course, students learn document formats used in other countries. When learning to use spreadsheets, students could download demographic and economic data from various nations to analyze business trends. Foreign trade data may be obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (see Table 1).

Table 1. Selected Websites for International Business Programs

Web-based global business learning - Ashoka U (http://ashokau.org) +Acumen (http://plusacumen.org) - Coursera (www.coursera.org) - edX (https://www.edx.org) - Udemy (https://www.udemy.com) - Alison (https://alison.com/courses)	Foreign study program information - American Institute for Foreign Study (www.aifs.org) - Institute for International Education (www.iie.org) - Council on International Educational Exchange (www.ciee.org), - StudyAbroad.com (www.studyabroad.com) - AFS Intercultural Programs (www.afs.org)
Global business, international culture films - Films Media Group (www.films.com) - Bullfrog Films (www.bullfrogfilms.com) - PBS (https://shop.pbs.org/)	
Culture information - World Culture Encyclopedia (www.everyculture.com) - Food in Every Country (www.foodbycountry.com) - Commisceo General (www.commisceo-global.com/country-guides) - International Business Etiquette (www.cyborlink.com/besite/)	Geography information - Geographic.org (www.geographic.org) - World Atlas (www.worldatlas.com) - University of Texas Libraries Map Collection (https://legacy.lib.utexas.edu/maps/) - BBC News Country Profiles (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/country_profiles/default.stm)
Company and Financial data - Yahoo! Finance (finance.yahoo.com) - AnnualReports.com (www.annualreports.com)	Country information - The World Factbook (https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/resources/the-world-factbook/index.html) - State Department (www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn) - World Bank (www.worldbank.org/countries) (www.doingbusiness.org) - NationMaster (www.nationmaster.com)
Sample banknotes - Collect Paper Money (www.collectpapermoney.com) - Banknote World (www.banknoteworld.com) - Banknotes.com (www.banknotes.com) - Foreign Exchange Rates - XE Current Converter (www.xe.net/ucc) - X-Rates (www.x-rates.com)	

Table 1. Selected Websites for International Business Programs *continued*

U.S. government agencies • International Trade Administration (www.trade.gov) • U.S. Trade Center (www.export.gov) • Small Business Administration (www.sba.gov/oit) • Foreign Agricultural Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (www.fas.usda.gov) • U.S. Census Bureau, Foreign Trade www.census.gov/foreign-trade	International trade organizations, agencies • The World Trade Organization (www.wto.org) • International Monetary Fund (www.imf.org) • World Bank (www.worldbank.org) • Embassies and consulates (www.embassy.org) • World Trade Centers Association (www.wtca.org) • Federation of International Trade Associations (www.fita.org)
International Business Education Organizations Academy for International Business (http://aib.msu.edu) International Society for Business Education (www.siec-isbe.org) National Association of Small Business International Trade Educators (www.nasbite.org) International Business Practice Firm (www.mccc.edu/ibpf/about.shtml) Global Edge (http://globaledge.msu.edu) Service learning National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (https://gsn.nylc.org/clearinghouse)	

An analysis of consumer behavior in other cultures would be a valuable addition to a marketing class. Students should be aware that collecting marketing research data in some countries might require observation and interviews rather than telephone or online surveys due to a poor communication infrastructure or a low level of literacy.

Specialized International Business Courses

An international business curriculum often involves specialized courses focusing on relevant internationalized content. These courses may include principles of international business, as well as economics, finance, marketing, management, and communication courses with an international emphasis. An online search for syllabi for these types of courses can be a valuable resource for teachers.

Cross-Discipline Partnerships and Online Course Delivery

Interaction among academic disciplines offers a cohesive instructional approach to cross-cultural partnerships and online course delivery. Collaborations and team-teaching activities among business, foreign language, social studies and other areas allow students to comprehend the complexity of global business relationships.

Enhancement of international business programs can occur through webinars and online courses. Sources for web-based global business learning include Ashoka U, +Acumen, Coursera, edX, Udemy, and Alison (see Table 1).

Comprehensive International Business Programs

Most colleges and universities offer an international business program involving courses and other academic experiences. These curricula usually include a business

core foundation, international electives, foreign language, and an experiential learning component.

The program foundation commonly consists of business core courses that include accounting, finance, human resources, information systems, marketing, and management. Other requirements may include international trade, global marketing, comparative management, global marketing, and cross-cultural communication.

Interdisciplinary collaborations will enhance student understanding of global business settings. International electives include courses such as Middle Eastern religions, South Africa politics, Latin American music, Chinese art, French literature, Russian history, and other courses focusing on global cultures and geography.

Most areas of the world consider English the “language of business.” However, studying a second or third language develops a deeper understanding of a society’s culture and business environment. Expertise in a second language gives job applicants a career advantage for both domestic and international positions. Expanded language skills are vital as most online users do not have English as their native language.

Experiential learning includes field research, internships, work-study projects, foreign study programs, and service learning. When possible, field research projects in a real-world setting afford students the opportunity to identify, research, and assess global organizations (Taras, 2015). Internships and work-study programs are viewed favorably by employers as students gain needed skills and insights when serving with international companies, embassies, trade associations, or government export agencies.

Foreign study programs present opportunities for international learning experiences. Information about study abroad and exchange programs may be obtained from the American Institute for Foreign Study, the Institute for International Education, the Council on International Educational Exchange, StudyAbroad.com, and AFS Intercultural Programs (see Table 1).

Cross-cultural service learning may consist of program planning to teach job skills for recent immigrants and others in need. Volunteer activities may include office tasks, equipment repairs, fundraising, or tutoring to support international service organizations. Information on service learning models may be obtained at the National Service-Learning Clearinghouse.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Most instructional methods are easily adapted to international business teaching. In addition to conventional pedagogy such as lectures and discussions, many innovative strategies are available to enhance active learning.

Case Studies

International case studies develop student decision making and critical thinking skills. Company situations and country scenarios require analysis of financial, economic, cultural, and political factors affecting global business operations. Case studies facilitate learning and engage students for competence related to business cultures, global marketing, and international organizational strategy.

Geography and Cultural Environment Analysis

Globes, atlases, and online maps are necessary for international business instruction. Teachers should encourage students to learn the location, major cities, waterways, climate, natural resources, and other geographic details for several countries. This information offers a better understanding of trade relations, economic development, and global distribution systems. Useful geography websites include Geographic.org, World Atlas, and the University of Texas Libraries Map Collection (see Table 1).

Company and Country Research Reports

Research papers traditionally allowed students to gain an in-depth knowledge of a topic while also enhancing their writing skills. Online research enhances that experience with the opportunity for students to gather vast resources for preparing the report. Topics for international business research reports might include a country culture study, small business export opportunities, levels of economic development, regional trade agreements, and international joint ventures.

Financial data and information about multinational enterprises can be the basis for a research project. Company data may be obtained at Yahoo! Finance and AnnualReports.com as well on individual company websites. These online sources offer needed information for studying global company activities.

Country or regional research can be the starting point for an ongoing class activity. This project requires students to obtain geographic, economic, cultural, and political information for a nation. The resulting information may be then used to: (a) prepare a profile of the foreign business environment, (b) identify potential business opportunities for companies considering this market, and (c) describe actions to implement a global business plan. Useful websites with country information include the *The World Factbook*, country background notes of the State Department, the Library of Congress country studies, the World Bank, and NationMaster.

Cross-Cultural Experiences and Team Projects

Most employers value workers with team experience. International business courses may include team projects to describe cultural characteristics of a foreign market, present group oral reports, and create videos or PowerPoint presentations for proposed global business activities. The team concept can extend beyond the school. Virtual teams involving email, websites, and social media interactions allow students in different geographic locations to collaborate on consulting projects and case problems.

Creating an export plan provides a comprehensive team experience. Elements for this assignment might include the following: (a) business opportunities in a foreign market, (b) a product concept adapted for a particular country market, (c) funding sources, (d) human resource needs, (e) a distribution and promotional strategy, and (f) an implementation timeline.

Role Playing and Simulations

Personal interactions can enhance international business understanding, while developing an appreciation for other cultures. Suggested role-playing scenarios may include cross-cultural business negotiations, debates about free trade, and demonstrations of different greetings, gestures, and other nonverbal communication.

Virtual learning environments can result in cross-cultural collaborations among students in different settings. The International Business Practice Firm (IBPF) program involves the creation of a simulated business in which students create and operate a company. Technology processes the simulated transactions with firms from other countries. Additional international business and cultural simulations may be identified with an online search (see Table 1).

Field Research and Experiential Learning

Field research provides direct knowledge of global business. Students can interview global workers, export specialists, language interpreters, culture experts, and tourists to obtain insight into course topics. Such interviews can generate real-world information about international business activities and foreign markets.

When arranging an interview, students should make an appointment to meet or talk by telephone. The teacher should guide students in developing four or five open-ended questions; avoid questions that can be answered in a few words. Instruct students to use follow-up questions based on the initial answers they receive.

Observational research in local ethnic communities and stores offers insight into cross-cultural buying, international products, and distribution methods. During foreign travel, students can observe shopping habits, interpersonal encounters, recreational activities, and business transactions.

Analyzing items such as food packages, advertisements, and magazines from other countries can enhance cultural and economic understanding. For example, clothing labels communicate information about the locations of global manufacturing facilities. Postage stamps, coins, and paper money can contribute to global business and cultural awareness. Banknotes reflecting the culture, geography, history, and business activities of nations may be viewed at Collect Paper Money, Banknote World, and Banknotes.com (see Table 1). These items can be used to create a visual journal, poster, display, website, or computer presentation to communicate international business terms and concepts.

Le (2017) advocated *design thinking* that includes the following five steps for creating an experience-based international business learning environment:

1. *Define and observe* to connect course topics to real-life situations and experiences of students.
2. *Empathy* provides an opportunity to better understand the perspective of students.
3. *Visualize* to brainstorm ideas for learning activities with students and faculty.
4. *Create prototype* by designing collaborative learning activities connected to in real-world situations.
5. *Test and refine* to allow students the freedom to demonstrate course competencies based on their personal learning style.

This approach combines analytic reasoning with an ability to function effectively in complex global business scenarios using creative thinking and problem-solving skills.

Online Research and Applications

Online interaction among students in varied locations allows for cross-cultural collaboration to gain cultural and economic insights. Emailing information requests to companies and international agencies can result in expanded international trade and exporting knowledge. Video conferencing provides an opportunity for foreign-based speakers, virtual field trips, and other learning collaborations.

Searches related to “exporting,” “foreign exchange rates,” “global stock exchanges,” and other international business topics can direct students to useful information sources. Students may use the Internet for answers to questions about course concepts, global companies, or countries. A variation of this activity might involve students locating unusual items online; for example, a country flag showing an animal, the map of a nation with no ocean seaports, or identifying a country in which Coca-Cola is not sold.

Online videos allow students to experience global business in diverse cultural situations. Google Maps can be used to determine market proximity and locations of international business organizations. Applications for mobile devices provide research information and connections to tools for business planning.

Current values for various monetary units may be found at XE Current Converter and X-Rates (see Table 1). Students may use their findings to calculate the cost of selected items in different currencies or explain possible reasons for the changing value of a nation's currency.

Portfolio and Assessment Techniques

Electronic portfolios presented on a website, social media, applications, or other digital media may be used to provide evidence of learning. Portfolio components commonly

include a resume, class projects, collected data, PowerPoint presentations, spreadsheet data, student-created videos, proposed package designs, advertising messages, and web-site and application designs. Additional assessment strategies can range from traditional exams and papers to participatory, such as poster sessions and campus-wide forums.

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS RESOURCES

The *National Standards for Business Education* (NBEA, 2013) lists performance expectations for international business courses. Several states have international business curriculum guides. An online search for “international business syllabus,” “international business teaching ideas,” and related topics can help identify relevant and innovative curriculum materials.

Journals and Periodicals

Articles related to teaching international business appear in the *Business Education Forum* published by NBEA. The *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, *Journal for Global Business Education*, the *International Journal for Business Education*, and the *Journal of International Education in Business* present research-based studies. Periodicals such as *The Economist*, *Latin Trade*, *African Business*, *Asian Entrepreneur*, and *Euromoney* report economic, political, and cultural news.

Reference Books and Websites

International business textbooks serve as resources for both teachers and students. Recent books about global business culture include *The Culture Map: Breaking through the Invisible Boundaries of Global Business* (Meyer, 2014), *The Global Business Culture Guide: Hints and Caveats for Doing Business in 50 Countries around the World* (Katz, 2014) and *Expand Your Borders: Discover Ten Cultural Clusters* (Livermore, 2013).

Travel websites offer information about the history, geography, culture, and business activities of a country. Resources for international business teachers are available at the Global Edge, a service of Michigan State University (see Table 1).

Multimedia Resources and Community Contacts

Global business may be addressed with videos available from various distributors and through online searches. Speakers with global business and cross-cultural experience can enhance learning with in-person class visits or through online connections. Company representatives may be willing to share their international business and travel experiences.

Government and International Agencies

Several U.S. government agencies provide international business information, including the International Trade Administration, the U.S. Trade Center, the Small Business Administration, and the Foreign Agricultural Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. In addition, state departments of economic development or state departments of commerce can offer localized exporting and international trade information. The World Trade Organization, the International Monetary Fund, and the World Bank encourage

expanded international trade and global economic development. Embassies and consulates serve as a vital economic link between the United States and other nations.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

Foreign travel and international study programs enhance global business knowledge and cultural awareness. Faculty internships with global companies, government agencies, and trade associations can provide valuable international learning experiences. International business organizations offer conferences, seminars, and professional development activities. The Academy for International Business, the International Society for Business Education, and the National Association of Small Business International Trade Educators are sources for curriculum and instructional strategies. The International Faculty Development Seminars of the Council on International Educational Exchange has travel programs to enhance faculty knowledge.

Local and regional trade associations provide programs on exporting and global business activities. Information may be obtained from the World Trade Centers Association, which has over 300 affiliates in over 80 countries. Information about other international trade organizations may be obtained from the Federation of International Trade Associations. Videos, webinars, and free or low-cost online courses available through websites and apps can enhance faculty development.

SUMMARY

A constantly changing political, economic, and technological environment creates the need to update international business course material and instructional strategies. The fundamental knowledge of every business student should include international trade concepts, the global business environment, methods for conducting international business, global marketing activities, international finance, and global risks. A dynamic, experiential-based international business program can help ensure that every student is a productive participant in the global economy.

REFERENCES

- Dlabay, L. R., & Scott, J. C. (2011). *International business* (4th. ed.). Mason, OH: Cengage South-Western.
- Hagen, J. M., & Berg, D. M. (2012, June). International business for domestic students. *Journal for Global Business Education*, 12, 47-59.
- Geringer, M. (2015). *International business*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Katz, L. (2014) *The global business culture guide: Hints and caveats for doing business in 50 countries around the world*. CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.
- Le, L.S. (2017). Design thinking for teaching international business. *The Global Citizen in International Business Education*. Retrieved from <https://globalcitizenbiz.org>.
- Livermore, D. A. (2013). *Expand your borders: Discover ten cultural clusters*. Holt, MI: Cultural Intelligence Center.
- London, T. (2016). *The base of the pyramid promise*. Redwood City, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Meyer, E. (2014) *The culture map: Breaking through the invisible boundaries of global business*. New York, NY: PublicAffairs.
- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2004). *This we believe about business education in a global environment* (Statement No.74). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Taras, V. (Ed.). (2015). *The Palgrave handbook of experiential learning in international business*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Marketing

Elisha C. Wohleb
Auburn University
Auburn, AL

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by William J. Wilhelm and Judy Commers, authors of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Marketing education programs offer opportunities for students to develop leadership skills and career competencies by working in authentic learning environments and participating in a variety of activities. These activities include student organizations, school-based enterprises, work-based learning such as internships and apprenticeships, project-based learning, and in-class teamwork exercises. This chapter addresses (a) the marketing education and curriculum structure, (b) teacher responsibilities, (c) methods of instruction, and (d) technology tools in the marketing education classroom. In addition, this chapter presents information regarding curriculum structure, goals, instructional strategies, and suggests numerous resources for instruction.

MARKETING EDUCATION COURSES AND CURRICULUM STRUCTURE

The American Marketing Association (AMA) defined marketing as “the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large” (American Marketing Association, 2013, para. 1). This definition should guide marketing education courses and the curriculum structure at both the secondary and postsecondary levels.

Beginning and Intermediate Courses

The beginning course in the marketing curriculum in secondary education typically starts with a year-long foundation course, such as Principles of Marketing. Within this introductory course, students are exposed to new concepts referencing the foundations and functions of marketing. Standards taught could include the marketing concept, target audience, marketing mix, laws and business enterprises, ethics, market research, selling techniques, cost analysis, pricing, and college and career ready skills.

The curriculum in intermediate courses reinforces prerequisite knowledge learned in the foundation course and delves deeper into the core skills, developing students' marketing decisions. An intermediate course could apply skills through authentic experiences such as having students partner with local community businesses to develop marketing plans, analyze current practices through research, and make marketing recommendations.

At the postsecondary level, in both community colleges and universities, the foundation course is very similar to the secondary course described above. Many of the same concepts and standards are integrated. However, at this level, the curriculum can become more specialized. For example, after the foundations course, students may choose to specialize and take retail, advertising, or professional selling courses. University programs also allow students to specialize in marketing at the graduate level. A web search would provide a plethora of graduate programs by specialization.

Specialized Courses

Specialized marketing courses at the secondary level offer sports and entertainment marketing, social media marketing, and hospitality and tourism programs. Kaser and Oelkers (n.d.) stated that in a sports and entertainment marketing course, students delve into "demographics and spending habits of [sport and entertainment] fans in order to maximize profits on the items fans purchase in association with events" (p. 14). According to Rouse (n.d.), "social media marketing is a form of Internet marketing that utilizes social networking websites as marketing [tools and includes] social media optimization [which] is a strategy for drawing new and unique visitors to a website" (para. 1). Hospitality and tourism programs "look at how hotels, restaurants, resorts, and amusement parks, utilize marketing techniques to promote their products or services" ("What is," 2016, para. 1). Furthermore, some state departments of education are becoming open minded to course development and offerings according to business and industry within the geographical location.

Curriculum Structure

The curriculum structure of marketing courses varies from state to state. Educators at the secondary level should follow their state's marketing education course pathways, descriptions, content standards, and performance expectations before developing their lesson plans. In addition, school districts may have different pathways available to students. For example, one school may have a core marketing class that leads to a sports

and entertainment marketing program and another district may have a core marketing class that leads to an entrepreneurial program.

In addition to state standards, national standards help guide the educator. The National Business Education Association (2007) developed the *National Standards for Business Education* to guide business educators. The marketing section contains six core concepts with achievement standards for each. The six concepts include Foundations of Marketing, Consumers and Their Behavior, External Factors, The Marketing Mix, Marketing Research, and The Marketing Plan. The MBA Research and Curriculum Center (2015) also offers national standards to guide curriculum and course development. There are six pathways, including Marketing Core, Marketing Communications, Marketing Management, Marketing Research, Merchandising, and Professional Selling. Each pathway includes instructional areas, standards, performance elements, and performance indicators. When developing curricula and lessons, both state and national standards should be included to ensure students are meeting expectations at the highest level.

Goals

Gleason (2017) identified these ways to keep a marketing program thriving in the 21st century. First, keep the business community connections strong; second, implement community business leaders into the classroom and lessons; third, use business and industry for field trips, guest speakers, and work-based learning opportunities; fourth, integrate business personnel into advisory committees; ask for input and ideas from these business leaders; and develop curricula based on industry-validated content. Furthermore, business educators teaching marketing should read articles, investigate best practices, and understand the curricula and why it is important for students to learn. They should stay in touch with the alumni and have former students come back as guest speakers. Bloomsburg University created an institute for professional development in 2013 that brings alumni back annually for a fall conference for students (see www.bloomu.edu/aipd-conference).

Other recommended goals for business educators include: Provide proof of student learning by offering industry-based certifications; develop relationships with both community college and university-level marketing instructors; lead a successful student organization, including participating in competitive events and leadership development; utilize problems-based pedagogy to include projects and inquiry-based strategies. All of these goals can be challenging and time consuming, but the impact each achieves is worth the time investment.

TEACHER RESPONSIBILITIES

As with many career and technical education areas, the marketing teacher has responsibilities that extend far beyond teaching in the classroom. Student organizations, such as Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA) and Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA), are a critical part of the curriculum. In addition, marketing teachers have the unique opportunity to develop school-based enterprises to provide hands-

on learning outside of the classroom. Furthermore, work-based learning opportunities play a pivotal role in mentoring and developing the marketing skills and career development of students.

Student Organizations

FBLA, “the largest career student business organization in the world,” aims to combine business and education together through “innovative leadership and career development programs” (FBLA-PBL, 2017, para 1). Four divisions within FBLA include Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA) “. . . for high school students, FBLA-Middle Level (FBLA-ML) for junior high and middle school students, Phi Beta Lambda (PBL) for college students, [and] Professional Division (PD) for FBLA-PBL alumni, business professionals, educators, and parents who support the goals of the association. . .” (FBLA-PBL, 2017, “FBLA-PBL Divisions,” paras. 1-4). Leadership Development, Academic Competitions, Educational Programs, Membership Benefits, Community Service, and Awards and Recognition are among many of FBLA’s focuses. For more information regarding FBLA, visit their website at <http://www.fbla-pbl.org/>.

DECA, a marketing student organization, can be an important addition to the curriculum. Marketing educators have the opportunity to develop school enterprises that provide hands-on learning outside of the classroom, and work-based learning opportunities play a pivotal role in mentoring and developing the marketing skills and career development of students. “DECA enriches teaching and learning by offering performance improvement tools and resources” (DECA Inc., 2017a, para. 1). Its Comprehensive Learning Program empowers the teacher to bring the classroom to life with projects that are exciting, yet challenging. These projects integrate classroom instruction, apply learning, connect to business, and promote competition. DECA advisors have access to a plethora of different classroom resources such as online challenges, competitive events, publications and business partnerships, and professional development to enhance their skills (DECA Inc., 2017a). More information regarding DECA and these resources are available at www.deca.org.

School-Based Enterprises

School-based enterprises (SBEs) are defined as “an entrepreneurial operation in a school setting that provides goods/services to meet the needs of the market. SBEs are managed and operated by students as hands-on learning laboratories that integrate National Curriculum Standards in marketing, finance, hospitality or management” (Berns, 1996, para. 1). SBEs offer students the unique possibility to work in an authentic business environment within the schools. Most SBEs function as a school store and offer school supplies (pens, pencils, notebooks, etc.), spirit wear, snacks, and even technology (headphones, flash drives, phone accessories, etc.).

Haltinner, Mooney, and Stanislawski (2012) identified three discernable SBE structures— Perpetual Duration, Limited Term, and Blended. Perpetual Duration is intended to last over time. The design remains consistent from year to year and profit is the

desired result. The teacher assumes an oversight/advisor role and the students serve in realistic positions (cashier, inventory, sales, etc.). Limited Term is structured as part of a class through activities and projects. Blended SBEs are often aligned with work-based learning programs. Perpetual Duration is most often seen within the marketing curriculum.

Orner and Wagner (2014) recognized the DECA SBE certification program as an influence in making their store successful and highly respected. The process of becoming certified was identified as “an educational tool that forces students to reflect continually on the effectiveness of their business enterprise” (p. 55). The DECA certification program is renowned for integrating national curriculum standards and implementing 21st century employability skills. The DECA SBE certification process is offered on two levels: chapter level involving a written project and individual level requiring a comprehensive exam (DECA, Inc., 2017b). Standards for both certification processes include retail, marketing and entrepreneurship concepts, and business operation standards.

Work-Based Learning

Voytek and Zimmermann (2015) defined work-based learning (WBL) as “an instructional strategy to connect students, and sometimes educators, with industry or community professionals to foster deeper knowledge and understanding of a given career field or particular occupation” (p. 20). Students are generally required to have prerequisite courses in beginning marketing to provide the foundation needed to participate in WBL. Typically, WBL would be in an advanced-level marketing structure seen in the junior and/or senior year of high school and the job placements could be paid or volunteer. These job placements are known as internships and/or apprenticeships. Students benefit from these job placements by gaining on-the-job training and knowledge and by gaining personal experience in the work field. The integration of WBL into the curriculum allows students to link classroom learning with authentic business environments. WBL also allows students to gain first-hand knowledge in their prospective career choice.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The marketing classroom can have a variety of appearances. Many are traditional classrooms with face-to-face interaction. Some are in distance education with video instructions and online class assignments. School systems may work on a period schedule, which includes shorter class times, or a block schedule, which incorporates longer class times. The inclusion of student organizations, school-based enterprises, and work-based learning may also play a part in the classroom environment. Students in the marketing classrooms are becoming increasingly diverse in regard to ethnic and racial backgrounds, linguistic backgrounds, and learning needs. Fletcher and Djajalaksana (2014) stated “it is important to understand what pedagogical approaches CTE teachers are implementing in their classrooms to accommodate their ever diverse student body and to make the content comprehensible and meaningful to an array of student learning needs” (p. 33). Utilizing a variety of instructional strategies, such as lecture and discus-

sion, collaboration, guest speakers, demonstration, and problem-based learning ensures that the diverse needs of the student population are being met.

Lecture and Discussion

In the core marketing course, lecture and discussion are important instructional strategies. Both methods provide an excellent way to teach new foundational information but could also provide more in-class time for application and extension. In addition, the two should be combined to assess student learning. When educators introduce new information in the format of a lecture, they should followup with discussion questions to determine learning and modify and/or reinforce information where needed. A variety of questioning techniques may be used. Fries-Gaither (2008) outlined those techniques as lower cognitive (require recall of information) and higher cognitive (require mental manipulation of information to produce or support an answer). Both lower cognitive and higher cognitive questioning should be used to positively impact student learning. Furthermore, in-class activities should also be included to determine if the intended learning outcomes have been met.

Collaboration

Collaboration should happen in multiple facets in the marketing classroom. Students should work together to develop ideas, solve problems, and implement solutions. In the current technology era, students lack verbal communication skills. Implementing year-long collaborative projects will help develop these skills.

A culminating project that could be implemented is having students work together, in groups of two or three, to develop a business or product. Students should work on the name, slogan, and logo. Once developed, students should identify their target audience and intently work on the marketing plan to ensure a successful launch of their enterprise/product. Throughout the year, students could also work collaboratively on case studies to enhance their marketing problem-solving skills.

Think-pair-share utilizing Google Drive (i.e., “Google docs”) is another strategy that allows students to first think individually, then pair with a partner to discuss and “add ideas to an electronic document,” and lastly “projecting their findings on the screen to the larger group” to discuss as a whole group (Slone & Mitchell, 2014, p. 102). Slone and Mitchell (2014) explained that Google Drive is one of many free technologies that groups of students can use simultaneously to record their findings from any technology device (i.e., cell phone, laptop, tablet). Google Drive includes Google Docs, Sheets, and Slides, which allow collaborative editing of documents, spreadsheets, presentations, drawings, forms, and more. Each file created and edited is then saved in Google Drive.

Guest Speakers

Educators are always challenged to keep up with ever-changing job markets. Businesses take part now, more than ever, in helping develop the curricula to meet the demands of the workforce. Employers in the classroom are key to an authentic learning environment. Topics for guest speakers could include current job demands, job descrip-

tions, new and innovative ideas, a problem the class could solve, and overall business practices as it relates to marketing. As business owners begin to give more of their time to the classroom, they are able to see themselves as collaborators and have a newfound interest in the students they are preparing to enter the workforce. Likewise, when educators and business owners prepare students to enter the workforce, they need to remember that students need to be involved in hands-on activities rather than just listening to presentation after presentation. Educators, therefore, need to develop a relationship with business owners to help provide those authentic opportunities to students.

Demonstration

Demonstration of concepts can be key to learning. With demonstration, the marketing educator will first model specific behavior and/or steps in an activity. Wilhelm and Commers (2013) defined demonstration as “a technique of teaching by using materials and displays; the teacher or individual conducting the demonstration generally is the only person directly involved with the materials” (p. 244). In addition, if it is found to be effective, the marketing educator must involve one or more students to either replicate or participate in the demonstration. In this type of learning environment, the “I do, we do, you do” instructional strategy can be effective. The teacher can present a role-play activity and model behavior for the students representing the “I do.” Then the class as a group can actively engage in the activity representing the “we do.” Lastly, students participate individually on their own representing the “you do.” Although the teacher may demonstrate first in some situations, the teacher should occasionally allow students to demonstrate first as well.

Problem-based Learning

Tawfik and Trueman (2015) described problem-based learning as “an instructional strategy that claims to support higher order learning as students attempt to resolve ill-structured problems” (p. 5). Implementing this strategy can promote critical thinking as it puts the students in the role of a practitioner and requires problem solving with authentic marketing situations. Marketing educators could work with local business enterprises on an issue they have within the company in relation to marketing. After this issue is discussed in detail with the students, they can be required to work individually or in a group to investigate, analyze, problem solve, develop solutions, compare and contrast, and justify – all requiring critical-thinking skills.

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY TOOLS

Students in today’s marketing classrooms want to be challenged and actively engaged in the lesson. Today’s students have been raised with technology at their fingertips. Shirley (2013) stated that youth want to be in a classroom with relevant lessons and learning activities in which content is brought to life with video, social media, and web development. In addition, Klopfer and Yoon (2005) asserted that constructively promoting the educational advancement of today’s young technology-confident students requires implementing new technology tools creatively. As a marketing educator, it is essential to understand the technology resources available and how to constructively use those tools in the classroom.

Table 1. Resources

Source	Location	Description
Facebook	www.facebook.com/groups/businesseducators2018/	Join this group of educators on Facebook to get ideas, ask questions, and share information relating to your marketing education classroom.
Twitter	#busedu	Follow this hashtag on twitter to explore and share great information regarding the business education classroom. You can find information regarding instructional material, DECA, school-based enterprises, and more.
The Aspen Institute	http://caseplace.org/	Utilize this website for information regarding articles, cases, and other teaching material related to marketing.
MBA Research and Curriculum Center	http://www.mbaresearch.org/	This website offers free resources for marketing education, including curriculum guides, assessments, and professional development.
American Marketing Association	https://www.ama.org/academics/Pages/ARC-Home.aspx	The American Marketing Association website offers free resources and web discussions pertaining to marketing.
Marketing Teacher	http://www.marketingteacher.com/	This free website has access to videos, lessons, exercises and training.
Marketing Land	http://marketingland.com/top-60-content-marketing-education-resources-56176	This website offers free resources for content marketing, including blogs, training videos, case studies, and guides.
Great Ideas for Teaching	http://www.greatideasforteachingmarketing.com/	Just as the title says, there are a plethora of marketing resources available on this website, including games, videos, student challenges, infographics, etc.
Lesson Planet	https://www.lessonplanet.com/lesson-plans/marketing/all	A 10-day free trial will give access to over 6,000 resources, including lesson plans, worksheets, assessments, apps, and more.

Social Media and Business

The dynamics of how to market have changed in the past decade, and social media have played a major role in that evolution. Companies now rely on social media to promote products and services. Consumers purchase from social media sites rather than from a storefront. In addition, consumers communicate via social media to ask questions, gain information, or research products and services.

Marketers rely on several facets of social media to advertise and reach their target market. LinkedIn is a professional networking site where individuals market themselves and businesses recruit employees within a professional network. Facebook allows businesses to advertise to target audiences, allows customers to leave feedback and reviews, and offers selling opportunities. In addition, Facebook allows users to create polls and gain insight into customer's wants. Instagram is similar to Facebook other than not having the capability to leave "starred" reviews or poll customers. However, Instagram is a favorite of young adults and should not be disregarded in terms of marketing. Twitter allows marketers to advertise by sending short (less than 140 characters) messages in regard to advertising, sales, and promotions. Businesses can also hold a twitter chat to launch a new product or gain consumer insight. Video sharing, such as YouTube, has become increasingly popular among the youth. Demonstrations, events, and training are just a few of the reasons to implement video sharing. Pinterest is also a marketing tool for promoting products. The more the product is "pinned," the more followers will likely see and develop interest in the goods at hand. Overall, social media have been driving forces in the revolution of how to market in the 21st century.

Social Media in the Classroom

Utilizing social media in the marketing classroom is essential in developing students' skills and preparing them to enter the workforce. When technology is used in any classroom, parents and students should sign a technology agreement. Educators should also inform parents of "how and why" this technology is going to be used in the classroom. Students should practice using social media tools to create awareness and build marketing programs. Using social media tools encourages learning as students enjoy collaborating with the tools outside of the classroom. Three websites that provide guidelines on technology agreements include: <http://www.education.vic.gov.au/about/programs/bullystoppers/Pages/lofconsent.aspx>, <https://mediatechparenting.net/contracts-and-agreements/>, and <https://www.hhs.gov/web/social-media/policies/index.html>.

MARKETING AREAS THAT TRANSCEND THE MAJOR

One area that marketing educators may want to consider introducing is supply chain management, an area not found in many programs, including marketing and management programs globally.

Supply Chain Management

With more and more supply chain management (SCM) programs developing nationwide at the college undergraduate level, educators should consider teaching these fundamental concepts in high school. Supply chain management is a marketing process

from the beginning (raw materials) to the end (customer relations). The breakdown of areas in an organization can be a very interesting learning experience for students. By overlaying the technology on to the marketing process, students can begin to connect how products and services work together to make profit for companies.

Supply chain technologies allow businesses to streamline shipping, receiving, tracking, and compiling order data. Many businesses utilize transport management software. This technology allows businesses to organize inventory, manage shipping, monitor distribution, and create an electronic bill of landing. Myerson (2016) identified four main areas where technology can improve supply chain management, including transaction processing, supply chain planning and collaboration, order tracking and delivery coordination, and supply chain analytics. Each of these areas reduces manual labor, increases data accuracy, and improves customer satisfaction. Resources to help educators teach simple SCM topics at the high school level include: <https://www.smartsheet.com/top-global-supply-chain-management-training>, <http://emeraldinsight.com/doi/abs/10.1108/09574091011071960>, and <https://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/datasim/examples/48514.html>.

A key area of the supply chain is Customer Relationship Management (CRM). Educators can access Salesforce.com for simple projects that develop the competencies for a good customer-relationship management program. Using traditional tools such as a company's website, educators can develop learning goals around a customer's wants and needs. By using frequently asked questions and discussion boards, students can gain insights and piece together the company's marketing strategy. Resources that help with this include: <http://www.marketingteacher.com/customer-relationship-management-crm/> and <https://motivislearning.com/insights/relationship-management-key-to-healthy-student-growth/>.

Small Business

The Small Business Administration (2017) offers five areas of technology to keep small businesses competitive. First is accounting software, which is recommended even if an accountant or bookkeeper is employed. This technology keeps the business owner informed of profits and losses and aids with budget management. Second is planning tools, such as a computerized calendar to allow users to input important meetings and events. Third is time tracking software, which allows the business owner to determine which tasks are profitable and which tasks are not. Fourth is email management. Many businesses have several email addresses, but it is wise to link those addresses to one account to ensure the company stays organized and current with customer relations. Fifth is mobile internet access. This technology allows the business owner to access the internet at any time to respond to urgent emails, utilize search engines for information, and access online information needed to run an efficient organization. Small businesses must also be aware of the leverage that social media provide in marketing. Business should use a variety of social media tools to promote, provide offers and deals, build channels, engage customers (contests, polls, etc.), allow buying directly from platform,

and gather customer feedback (Scheck, 2016). In addition, small business owners should always stay abreast of new technologies and trends to determine the right tech-implementation techniques to optimize growth.

SUMMARY

Marketing education continues to be an important component for all business education programs. Developing a curriculum structure that has marketing foundations is critical for further development of marketing education in various pathways. Varying instructional strategies and utilizing creative resources in the classroom ensures student engagement and attention. Utilizing business and industry partners enables students to receive current “real world” information as they enter the marketing spectrum. Participating in FBLA, DECA, school-based enterprises, and work-based learning permits students to build leadership skills, career development, and community service attributes. Adding supply chain management concepts updates curricula to reflect current corporate practices. Many resources exist for marketing educators to support their efforts in program areas of interest. Maintaining a presence in discipline-specific professional organizations also helps marketing education stay current with rapidly changing resources and information.

REFERENCES

- American Marketing Association. (2013). *AMA definition of marketing*. Retrieved from www.ama.org/AboutAMA/Pages/Definition-of-Marketing.aspx
- Berns, R. G. (1996). *DECA: A continuing tradition of excellence*. Reston, VA: DECA, Inc.
- DECA. (2017a). *Classroom*. Retrieved from www.deca.org/classroom/
- DECA. (2017b). *High school*. Retrieved from <http://www.deca.org/high-school-programs/school-based-enterprises/>
- Future Business Leaders of America—Phi Beta Lambda—FBLA-PBL. (2017) *About FBLA-PBL*. Retrieved from <http://www.fbla-pbl.org/about/>
- Fletcher, E. C., Jr., & Djajalaksana, Y. (2014). Instructional strategy preferences in the career and technical education classroom. *Journal for Research in Business Education*, 56(1), 32-56.
- Fries-Gaither, J. (2008). *Questioning techniques: Research-based strategies for teachers*. Retrieved from <http://beyondpenguins.ehe.osu.edu/issue/energy-and-the-polar-environment/questioning-techniques-research-based-strategies-for-teachers>
- Gleason, J. R. (2017). *Repositioning business and marketing education*. Retrieved from <http://www.mbaresearch.org/index.php/professional-development/resources>
- Haltinner, U., Mooney, C., & Stanislawski, D. (2012). A profile of school-based enterprises within CTE disciplines. *Techniques: Connecting Education & Careers*, 87(3), 50-53.
- Kaser, K., & Oelkers, D. (2008). What is sports and entertainment marketing? *Sports and entertainment marketing* (3rd ed.), Boston, MA: Cengage.
- Klopfer, E., & Yoon, S. (2005, May/June). Developing games and simulations for today and tomorrow's tech savvy youth. *TechTrends: Linking Research & Practice to Improve Learning*, 49(3), 33-41.

- MBA Research and Curriculum Center. (2015). *Marketing cluster*. Retrieved from http://mbaresearch.org/images/PDFs/MarketingCluster_2.pdf
- Myerson, P. (2016). Supply chain technology brings the world closer together. *IndustryWeek*. Retrieved from <http://www.industryweek.com/supply-chain/supply-chain-technology-brings-world-closer-together>
- National Business Education Association, (2007). *National standards for business education* (3rd ed.). Reston, VA. Retrieved from <https://www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/standards/marketing.html>
- Orner, M., & Wagner, J. (2014). Thundering toward excellence in entrepreneurship. *Techniques: Connecting Education & Careers*, 89(1), 54-55.
- Rouse, M. (n.d.). *Social media marketing (SMM)*. Retrieved from <http://whatis.techtarget.com/definition/social-media-marketing-SMM>
- Scheck, S. (2016). How to utilize technology to grow your small business. *Small Business Trends*. Retrieved from <https://smallbiztrends.com/2016/04/technology-for-small-business-growth.html>
- Shirley, L. (2013). Technology + teaching = engaged students who learn. *Techniques: Connecting Education & Careers*, 88(6), 8-9.
- Slone, N. C., & Mitchell, N. G. (2014). Technology-based adaptation of think-pair-share utilizing google drive. *Journal of Teaching and Learning with Technology*, 3(1), 102-104. doi:10.14434/jotlt.v3n1.4901
- Small Business Administration. (2017). *Starting & managing*. Retrieved from <https://www.sba.gov/managing-business/growing-your-business/using-technology-stay-competitive>
- Tawfik, A., & Trueman, R. (2015). Effects of case libraries in supporting a problem-based learning STEM course. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 44(1), 5-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047239515596724>
- Voytek, S., & Zimmermann, A. (2015). Work-based learning in policy and practice. *Techniques: Connecting Education & Careers*, 90(1), 20-23.
- What is hospitality marketing? (2016). *Learn.org*. Retrieved from https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Hospitality_Marketing.html
- Wilhelm, W. J., & Commers, J. (2013). Marketing. In B. McEwen (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 Yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 236-249). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.

Work-Based Learning Programs

Allen Truell
Ball State University
Muncie, IN

Quality business and marketing education programs include a work-based-learning (WBL) experience component, related class instruction, and a career and technical education student organization. This chapter provides an overview of the WBL components of business and marketing education programs. Specifically, the chapter presents the history and benefits of WBL programs, introduces several WBL options, outlines the roles of WBL teacher-coordinators, discusses legal issues related to work-based learning, explains the role of advisory committees, and describes related class content and student assessment methods.

HISTORY OF WORK-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMS

The first WBL program in the United States was established at the University of Cincinnati in 1906 (Sovilla, 1998). In that year Herman Schneider, a professor of engineering, proposed a new method of instruction in which his college students studied in both classes and in paid work settings. Schneider believed that many concepts and skills could not be mastered without real work experience. In the first year, 27 students participated in this program. In the next year, more than 400 students applied to the program. Schneider's program was so successful that other institutions followed by developing their own versions of what became known as the "The Cincinnati Plan." Nearly 30 years after Schneider started his program, it was cited as the single most important development in engineering education (Sovilla, 1998).

By the 50th anniversary of Schneider's founding of this program at the University of Cincinnati, more than 60 colleges and universities had established similar opportunities for their students. The success of these programs have continued, and organizations such as the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation and The Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education have promoted and researched its value. The number of WBL opportunities continued to grow through the 1980s, when an estimated one-third of all U.S. colleges and universities reported offering similar programs (Sovilla, 1998).

Today, secondary schools also offer a variety of WBL programs. For many of the same reasons that the first program was established at the college/university level, secondary opportunities also combine related class instruction with that of practical WBL experience. The *National Standards for Business Education* (NBEA, 2013) notes the importance of career development at the secondary level. The five broad standards addressed by the career-development component include career exploration and research, career readiness expectations, lifelong learning, school-to-career transition, and strategic career planning. All of these concepts are addressed through WBL programs at the secondary level. Because WBL programs serve as a connection between related class instruction and practical work experience, these programs are an ideal setting for teaching career-development standards. At the federal level, support for various WBL options are included in the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act (2006).

DESCRIPTION OF WORK-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMS

A variety of strategies can be used to integrate WBL into education. Several approaches for integrating WBL into business and marketing education programs include cooperative education, internships, job shadowing, and service learning.

Cooperative Education Programs

Cooperative education programs combine related classroom instruction and paid opportunities at WBL training sites in businesses and government organizations where students gain experience related to occupational areas of interest. These programs include student-learning plans that align with a career pathway and develop employability skills. Teacher-coordinators are individuals who facilitate the program components, place students at WBL training sites that best develop the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed in students' respective occupations and provide related class instruction. Signed training agreements and training plans are documents that formalize and guide the cooperative education process for each student. These documents require that students be provided with specific related learning experiences at the WBL training site and include WBL teacher-coordinator visits to solicit and provide feedback about their performance (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Kentucky Department of Education, 2015; Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Students earn academic credit and are evaluated based on the completion of required work hours and on their work performance (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a;

Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014; Virginia Department of Education, 2014). Because policies for granting credit vary from state to state, WBL teacher-coordinators should contact appropriate state department of education personnel for specific requirements. Many states have their respective cooperative education/WBL manuals posted on educational department website to make them easily accessible to WBL teacher-coordinators. Some business and marketing teachers in schools that are unable to support separate business or marketing education cooperative education programs may coordinate interdisciplinary cooperative education programs (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a), sometimes referred to as *diversified occupations* programs (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2014) or *diversified cooperative education* (Husted, Mason, & Adams, 2003). *Interdisciplinary cooperative education* programs offer a wide variety of cooperative education experiences in business and nonbusiness occupations to enrich WBL opportunities for students (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a).

Internships

Students typically participate in internships at their selected WBL sites after or near the end of their academic programs. Internships can be either paid or nonpaid but nonpaid internship opportunities are highly regulated to comply with U.S. Department of Labor regulations. Unlike cooperative education programs, internships usually have no parallel related class because learners have already mastered their entre-level occupation's competencies. Formal training agreements and training plans establish the goals, policies, procedures of internship experiences, and responsibilities of all parties. Internships are most meaningful when learners explore several related occupational areas (Indiana Department of Education, 2008b; Kentucky Department of Education, 2015; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016).

Job-Shadowing Experiences

Job-shadowing experiences are short career exploration activities. Students typically shadow an employee for a few days to learn about a defined job by observing and interacting with selected events. Because job-shadowing experiences are short-term, typically a day or two, students may explore a number of occupational areas. Students normally job shadow during their late middle school and/or early junior high school years after formal classroom instruction about careers. Prior to job shadowing experiences, students are taught about expectations for appropriate dress and workplace behavior. This introduction to work options allows students to make informed decisions when choosing occupational courses to study in high school and to foster workplace readiness (South Carolina Department of Education, 2016; Tennessee Department of Education, 2016).

Service-Learning Options

In *service learning*, students participate in meaningful volunteer work with nonprofit or public organizations. Students are placed in organizations that focus on fostering civic duty, community improvement, and skill development. Careful planning and management of service-learning experiences are essential so that students learn from the experience. While participating in service learning students develop both a sense

of community and the skills needed for work. Assessment of learning can be achieved through student oral report, or written reflection of the service-learning experience (Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Kentucky Department of Education, 2015).

BENEFITS OF WORK-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMS

Many benefits to stakeholders, including businesses, communities, schools, and students are achieved through WBL. By understanding the benefit of these programs, WBL teacher-coordinators can better position their respective programs to serve all stakeholders.

Business Benefits

Businesses and business personnel assist WBL programs by serving on advisory committees, providing student WBL training sites, assisting with work-based standards, and working with student organizations. For this service, businesses receive many benefits via WBL programs. Frequently noted benefits include reduced employee recruitment and training costs, improved employee retention, increase employee productivity, significant input in the employee training process meeting industry standards, meaningful connections with related class content, and increased, positive employer involvement in the local school system (Alabama Department of Education, 2014; Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Virginia Department of Education, 2014; Work-Based Learning Manual, n.d.).

Community Benefits

Numerous benefits to the local community are provided by WBL programs. Advantages to the community include a closer, collaborative school-community working relationship, a stronger link between school and work, a smoother transition from classroom to the workplace for all concerned, a supply of well-prepared employees, and a stream of civic minded citizens, and increased economic activity (Alabama Department of Education, 2014; Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

School Benefits

Schools benefit from the positive relationships that are established by program successes in the community and the observation by students in work settings of the relevance of what they are learning in the related class to meet unique workplace goals. In addition, by placing students in the community WBL sites, resources such as curriculum enrichments expertise, modern equipment and training techniques, and teacher-coordinator professional development opportunities (Alabama Department of Education, 2014; Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2012; Tennessee Department of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014; Work-Based Learning Manual, n.d.).

Student Benefits

The benefits of WBL programs to students include fostering of positive safety and work attitudes by observing adult role models. Applying what was learned in the related class at work, improving academic performance, promoting of portfolio development, and providing opportunities to receive training in a selected occupation in the community are additional student enhancements. Smoothing the transition from school to career, developing safe work habits, enhancing self-confidence, and applying academic skills at the WBL site, earning potential higher starting wages, and developing work-place contacts are other students advantages (Alabama Department of Education, 2014; Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Tennessee Department of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014; Work-Based Learning Manual, n.d.).

WORK-BASED-LEARNING TEACHER-COORDINATOR ROLES

Teacher-coordinators serve in many roles when completing their daily tasks. Among the roles described in this section are those of WBL teacher-coordinator documenter, program promoter, instructor, and WBL training-site developer.

Work-based-learning teacher-coordinator

Teacher-coordinators are actively involved in the WBL method of instruction. Teacher-coordinator responsibilities include aligning approved related class curriculum with WBL experiences of students, using training plans when assessing work performance of students, placing students at WBL training sites, and selecting and developing WBL training site supervisors (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Vermont Agency of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Instructor

Teacher-coordinators direct student learning in the related class. They foster learning environments in which students develop the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed at work. Thus, WBL teacher-coordinators perform a variety of instructional tasks, such as aligning related class instruction with state and national standards, state-approved curriculum, and career and technical education student-organization activities; assisting students in developing their individual occupational competencies; and providing guidance as it relates to career, school, and work issues. Including general and specific safety competencies as part of related class instruction is critical in the role of instructor (Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education, 2014; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a).

Work-Based-Learning Training-Site Development

The development of WBL training sites includes finding appropriate job placements in the community for students and working closely with employers to achieve program goals. Students participate in WBL programs to develop occupation-specific competencies in a supervised environment. For WBL programs to function effectively, the WBL teacher-coordinator must familiarize all employers with program goals and strategies for achieving these goals. Teacher-coordinators are the conduit between the WBL training

site and school. Teacher-coordinators match WBL training site activities with classroom instruction, ensure supervision of students at the WBL training site, evaluate WBL training-site experiences, and prepare any necessary reports (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016)

Training sponsors have a variety of responsibilities, including orienting the student to the job site; providing supervision and training for the student aligned with career objectives; providing the student with a variety of workplace experiences that foster maximum learning; evaluating and providing feedback regarding progress to the student. In addition, the training sponsor counsels the student on job-related matters such as maintaining a good attitude and exhibiting a strong desirable and appropriate work ethic; systematically communicating with the WBL teacher-coordinator about job-related concerns; and following all state and federal laws related to the employment of WBL students (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016).

Documenter

An essential responsibility of WBL teacher-coordinator is to maintain appropriate program and student documentation. Documentation is necessary to meet various federal, state, and local accountability, follow-up, and reporting requirements. Among the documents that WBL teacher-coordinators need to maintain are training agreements and training plans.

Training agreements establish the formal relationships among students, parents/guardians, WBL training sponsors, and teacher-coordinators (Idaho Division of Professional-Technical Education, 2010; Vermont Agency of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014; Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2012). Training agreements outline the responsibilities of all parties, including students, parents/guardians, WBL training sponsors and teacher-coordinators. In addition, to protect a student's civil rights, the training agreement should include a nondiscrimination statement (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2012). Figure 1 presents a sample training agreement.

Teacher-coordinators develop training plans cooperatively with students, parents/guardians, and WBL training sponsors. These plans provide summaries of the competencies students are to develop in their occupational areas and guide learner growth throughout the WBL experience. Training plans should include specific safety-instruction objectives with instructional responsibility clearly defined and should be reviewed frequently to retain the focus of the students and WBL training sites. A safety checklist should be required for all WBL students. Topics on the safety checklist should be related to the specific job assignment (Idaho Division of Professional-Technical Education, 2010; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Vermont Agency of Education, 2016). A sample training plan is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 1. Sample Training Agreement

WORK-BASED LEARNING TRAINING AGREEMENT	
Student name:	
Home Address:	
Home Phone:	Training Site:
Address: 	
Training Supervisor:	Phone Number:
Student's Career Interests: 	
<i>Student Agrees to:</i> • Be regular in attendance, both in school and at work, and unless permission is granted, not to report for work on a day when absent from school. • Perform the training station and classroom responsibilities to the best of his/her ability. • Furnish the work-based-learning teacher-coordinator with necessary information about his/her training station and to complete all required reports promptly. • Abide by the rules and regulations of the training station. • Consult with the work-based-learning teacher-coordinator about any difficulties arising at the training station or related to the training program. • Provide his/her own means of transportation to the training station. • Refrain from terminating employment with the training agency without approval of the work-based-learning teacher-coordinator. • Relinquish the job if he/she withdraws from school or from the cooperative education program. <i>Work-based-learning training sponsor agrees to:</i> • Provide a variety of work experiences for the student-learner that will give the student the opportunity to progress in competency achievement. • Endeavor to schedule the student-learner for at least an average of 15 hours per week. • Abide by all federal and state regulations regarding employment. • Assist in the evaluation of the student-learner. • Consult with the work-based-learning teacher-coordinator about any difficulties arising at the training station or related to the training station that involve the student-learner. • Reinforce safety instructions and practices related to the job. • Cancel this training agreement at any time provided due notice is given to all parties concerned. • Refrain from discriminating in employment practices on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, religion, age, disability, marital stats, or veteran status. (FOR HAZARDOUS OCCUPATIONS ONLY) • The work of the student-learner in occupations declared hazardous shall be incidental to his/her training, shall be intermittent and for short periods, and shall be under the direct and close supervision of a qualified and experienced person. • Safety instructions shall be given by the school and correlated by the employer with work-site training. <i>Parent/Guardian agrees to:</i> • Encourage the student-learner to carry out effectively his/her duties and responsibilities both in the classroom and at work. • Be responsible for the actions of the student-learner where appropriate.	

Figure 1. Sample Training Agreement *continued*

Work-based-learning teacher-coordinator agrees to:

- Provide related classroom instruction, including safety instructions for all occupations.
- Periodically observe the student-learner at work and to visit with the training supervisor in order to aid in the student-learner's development
- Consult with the training supervisor in the evaluation of the student-learner.

Student: _____ Date: _____

Parent/Guardian: _____ Date: _____

Training Supervisor: _____ Date: _____

Teacher-Coordinator: _____ Date: _____

Figure 2. Sample Training Plan

WORK-BASED LEARNING TRAINING AGREEMENT				
Student: _____		Date of hire: _____		
Training Sponsor: _____		Supervisor: _____		
Degree of responsibility (place next to progress ration)				
*Demonstrates in a timely fashion.		**Demonstrates with a positive attitude.		
Progress rating:				
1. Demonstrates without assistance.				
2. Demonstrates with minimal assistance.				
3. Demonstrates with assistance.				
4. Needs additional training to demonstrate.				
5. Not applicable at this time.				
Competencies to be developed	Grading Period			
Specific occupational competencies to be developed at the training site:	1	2	3	4
Specific safety competencies to be developed at the training site:				
Comments/feedback: _____				
Student signature: _____		Date: _____		
Teacher/coordinator signature: _____		Date: _____		
Training sponsor signature: _____		Date: _____		
Parent/guardian: _____		Date: _____		

In addition to documenting and maintain training agreements and training plans, WBL teacher-coordinators manage other documentation including but not limited to pay stubs, permission and consent forms, proof of age, safety test results, student and parent/guardian conference records, student work evaluations, student program applications, WBL training-site visit records, wage and hour forms, and work permits (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Virginia Department of Education, 2014). Because states vary on documentation policies, WBL teacher-coordinators should obtain their state handbook or policy guidelines for specific WBL programs requirements.

Program Promotion

Promoting WBL programs is an essential task of WBL teacher-coordinators. A well-designed promotional program targets students, businesses, parents, and school personnel (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014). Each group is important to program success and must be included in any well-organized WBL teacher-coordinator's promotional effort. Without support of businesses, WBL programs could not exist. Business representatives provide service on advisory committees, support career and technical education student organizations, speak in the related class, assist with standards and curriculum, and offer WBL training sites. Promotional activities targeted to this group are very important, as the teacher-coordinator must outline the value of and secure support for the WBL program.

Teacher-coordinators frequently place displays in local businesses that highlight student achievements, make presentations to civic and professional groups, provide certificates of appreciation to contributors to the program, and work with local media to foster public relations by writing feature stories about students in the program and their WBL training sites. In addition, at least one employer appreciation event is held each year such as a breakfast, luncheon, or banquet where both students and employers receive recognition (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Parents play an important role in making WBL programs successful, and promotional activities directed at keeping them informed are essential. One way to promote to this group is through direct mail, in which letters outlining the benefits of WBL programs are sent to parents of students taking one of more courses in an occupational area served by the program. Placing articles in school newsletters and local newspapers explaining the benefits of the program and supplying support statistics about program completers and their successes can inform parents of middle school and junior high school students about the program. Holding an open house for parents of prospective students is another option available to WBL teacher-coordinators (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Positive relationships with school personnel at all levels, including administrators, counselors, faculty, and staff, are important to the success of WBL programs. Administrators, counselors, and faculty are frequently invited to attend social functions such as

coffee breaks or WBL training-site employer-appreciation events. Brochures explaining program goals and benefits can be distributed to all administrators, counselors, faculty, and staff. These promotional efforts are essential because many administrators, counselors, faculty, and staff are typically unfamiliar with the many benefits of WBL programs. Annual reports for administrators, counselors, faculty, and staff highlighting program accomplishments are another useful promotional device (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Various promotional activities can be targeted towards students. English classes are often used as a setting for presentations, as all students take English. Student interest surveys are another effective promotional strategy. Students who identify a tentative career interest in occupational areas are served by the program can be contacted directly. Displays can be prepared in various locations in the school and at feeder schools. These promotional materials serve to raise awareness of the program and provide contact information for interested students. Other promotional activities include inviting junior high/middle school students to visit the program, providing interest stories about student successes at work, holding an open house during appropriate times of the year, and submitting articles to the school newspaper (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; South Carolina Department of Education, 2016; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

LEGAL ISSUES RELATED TO WORK-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMS

Teacher-coordinators are responsible for assuring that employers do not exploit students and that their programs comply with related federal, state, and local laws and regulations. Selected federal laws and regulations include the Americans with Disabilities Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, Immigration Reform and Control Act, and Occupational Safety and Health Act.

Americans with Disabilities Act

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) provides workers with protection from discriminatory hiring practices against individuals with disabilities. More specifically, the ADA provides civil rights protection to individuals with disabilities by guaranteeing equal opportunity in public accommodations, employment, transportation, government services, and telecommunications (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2002). The ADA was amended in 2008 to make it easier to establish disabilities for those seeking protection under this act (EEOC, n.d.). Responsibility for carrying out ADA regulations rests with the United States Attorney General. Final Rule updates to the 2008 ADA amendments can be found at this website (https://www.dol.gov/whd/contacts/state_of.htm). More general information about the ADA can be found at the ADA website (<https://www.ada.gov/index.html>).

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act protects individuals from discriminatory workplace hiring practices (EEOC, n.d.). A statement indicating that the WBL training site does not discriminate based on race, religion, ethnicity, national origin, age, disability, marital status, or veteran status should be included on all program forms for WBL programs. Information on the provisions of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 appears on the EEOC website (<https://www.eeoc.gov>).

Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (FLSA) is enforced by the Wage and Hour Division of the U.S. Department of Labor (USDOL). The FLSA protects the educational opportunities and health and safety of youth workers by establishing working-hour standards and prohibiting employment in hazardous occupations. In addition to being well informed about working-hour regulations, WBL teacher-coordinators must be aware of hazardous occupations in which their students cannot be employed. For example, occupations that are generally prohibited for 16- and 17-year-olds including driving a motor vehicle (with certain exceptions for 17-year-olds) and operating power-driven hoisting equipment (USDOL, 2013). Teacher-coordinators must be knowledgeable of what their students can and cannot do at WBL training sites. Exceptions to some FLSA standards have been made for youth employed in agricultural occupations (USDOL, 2007).

Immigration Reform and Control Act

The Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) of 1986 requires that only U.S. citizens or aliens lawfully authorized to work be employed in the United States. The documentations requirements necessary to work in the United States are the same for both adult and youth employees. A social security number and two forms of approved identification are needed to complete the required I-9 form, certifying that a person is eligible to work in the United States. The U.S. Department of Justice Immigration and Naturalization Service is responsible for enforcing the IRCA (U.S. Department of Justice, n.d.).

Occupational Safety and Health Act

The Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA), signed into law in 1970, was designed to prevent worker injuries and deaths by maintaining safe working environments. As such, WBL teacher-coordinators need to be knowledgeable on OSHA regulations when placing students at WBL training sites. Employers must comply with OSHA safety standards, correct, safety standards, and offer workers protective equipment. Workers have a number of rights, including the rights to (a) experience conditions that pose little risk of serious injury, (b) receive information and training about hazards in the workplace and how to prevent injury, and (c) file complaints with OSHA when the workplace is unsafe (Occupational Safety and Health Administration, n.d.). More information about OSHA can be found on its website (<https://www.osha.gov/about.html>).

State Laws and Regulations

In addition to being knowledgeable of the various federal laws and regulations governing student workers, WBL teacher-coordinators must also be well informed about student work issues in their respective states. A list of state-level contacts and websites containing state youth employment information is available on the USDOL website (https://www.dol.gov/whd/contacts/state_of.htm).

ADVISORY COMMITTEES

Advisory committees are essential to the success of WBL programs. Advisory committees provide occupational standards updates, support for career and technical student organization, WBL training-site recommendations, assistance or recommendations for marketing the program, and updates on workplace practices and expectations. Members of advisory committees usually represent businesses, current students, parents, program alumni, school professionals such as guidance counselors, and WBL training-site representatives. Advisory committees vary in size, depending on the tasks that need to be completed, but membership is normally 7 to 12 people serving staggered terms. Staggered terms provide the advisory committee with continuity from one school year to the next. Formal meetings are often held about three times a year, with WBL teacher-coordinators meeting informally with advisory committee members on an individual basis throughout the school year (Husted, Mason, & Adams, 2003; Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Kentucky Department of Education, 2015).

RELATED CLASSES

Related classes are those in which instruction is tied to the attitudes, knowledge, and skills developed while at a WBL training site. Related class instruction seeks to develop the attitudes, knowledge, and necessary skills for all students, regardless of occupational area. Topics in the related class might include career planning, communication, computation, economics, employment, human relations, and life skills, as well as safety/wellness topics aligned with state and national content standards and performance expectations.

To make the related class most effective, the WBL teacher-coordinators must be well supplied with resources to make learning realistic. WBL teacher-coordinators have the advantage of working closely with WBL training sponsors and other community-based organizations that are rich sources of instructional information, materials, and assistance (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Kentucky Department of Education, 2015; Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

To make the connection between work-based learning and related class instruction the most meaningful one, rigorous assessment of student learning must occur. Assessment of related class and WBL experiences are tied to content standards and performance expectations. Examples of formal and informal assessment strategies including using in-class discussion, demonstrations, interviews, presentations, projects, and WBL teacher-coordinator observations. The use of formal and informal assessment strate-

gies assists the WBL teacher-coordinator in providing meaningful feedback to students (Indiana Department of Education, 2008a; Vermont Agency of Education, 2016).

SUMMARY

Valuable work experiences can be provided to business and marketing students through WBL opportunities. These programs provide numerous benefits to students, businesses, schools, and communities. Teacher-coordinators serve many roles including documenter, program promoter, instructor, and WBL training-site developer. Essential documents include training agreements and training plans. Employers and schools must comply with various federal and state laws affecting WBL programs. Advisory committees provide assistance with WBL components. The related class provides instruction in essential academic concepts and skills that parallel the WBL component. The class also offers the opportunity to assess the WBL experience effectively.

REFERENCES

- Alabama State Department of Education. (2014). *Alabama work-based learning manual: A guide for work-based learning experiences in secondary education*. Montgomery, AL: Author.
- Arizona Department of Education: Career and Technical Education. (2014). *Work-based learning handbook*. Phoenix, AZ: Author.
- Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act. (2006). Retrieved from <https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/BILLS-109s250enr/pdf/BILLS-109s250enr.pdf>
- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (2002). *The Americans with Disabilities Act: Questions and answers*. U.S. Department of Justice, Civil Rights Division. Retrieved from <https://permanent.access.gpo.gov/websites/usdojgov/www.usdoj.gov/crt/ada/qandaeng.htm>
- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (n.d.). *The Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments of 2008*. Retrieved from https://www.eeoc.gov/laws/statutes/adaaa_info.cfm
- Husted, S. W., Mason, R. E., & Adams, E. (2003). *Cooperative occupational education including internships, apprenticeships, and tech prep*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Idaho Division of Professional-Technical Education. (2010). *Work-based learning: A manual*. Boise, ID: Author.
- Indiana Department of Education. (2008a, June). *Cooperative education: Guidelines and procedures manual*. Office of Career and Technical Education, Center for School Improvement and Performance. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- Indiana Department of Education. (2008b, November). *Internship manual: Guidelines and procedures for Indiana internship programs*. Office of Career and Technical Education, Center for School Improvement and Performance. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- Kentucky Department of Education. (2015). *Work-based learning manual*. Frankfort, KY: Author.

- National Business Education Association. (2013). *National standards for business education: What America's students should know and be able to do in business*. (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: Author.
- Occupational Safety and Health Administration.. (n.d.). *At-a-glance: OSHA*. Retrieved from <https://www.osha.gov/Publications/3439at-a-glance.pdf>
- Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Washington. (2012). *Worksite learning manual*. Olympia, WA: Author.
- Pennsylvania Department of Education. (2014). *Cooperative education guidelines for administration: How to comply with federal and state laws and regulations*. Harrisburg, PA: Author.
- South Carolina Department of Education. (2016). *Work-based learning manual*. Columbia, SC: Author.
- Sovilla, E. S. (1998). Co-op's 90-year odyssey. *ASEE Prism*, 7(5), 18-23.
- Tennessee Department of Education. (2016). *Work-based learning: Policy guide*. Nashville, TN: Author.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (n.d.). *The Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) prohibits employment discrimination: What you should know*. Retrieved from https://www.justice.gov/sites/default/files/crt/legacy/2011/05/20/IRCA_What_You_Should_Know_English.pdf
- U.S. Department of Labor. (2007). Child labor requirements in agricultural occupations under the Fair Labor Standards Act. *Child Labor Bulletin 102*. Retrieved from <https://www.dol.gov/whd/regs/compliance/childlabor102.pdf>
- U.S. Department of Labor. (2013). Child labor provisions for nonagricultural occupations under the Fair Labor Standards Act. *Child Labor Bulletin 101*. Retrieved from <https://www.dol.gov/whd/regs/compliance/childlabor101.pdf>
- Vermont Agency of Education. (2016). *Work-based learning manual: A guide for developing and implementing quality experiences for students*. Barre, VT: Author.
- Virginia Department of Education. (2014). *Career and technical education work-based learning guide*. Richmond, VA: Author.
- Work-based learning manual. (n.d.). *North Dakota's how-to guide for work-based learning*. Retrieved from wbl.ndsucceed2020.org/

Managing Student Organizations

Jessica DeVaal

North Dakota Department of Career and Technical Education
Bismarck, ND

Sandra Braathen

University of North Dakota
Grand Forks, ND

Jan Repnow

Minot State University
Minot, ND

The author, editor, and publisher acknowledge and express appreciation for the work done by Kelly Scholl, an author of this chapter in the previous edition. Thank you for your contribution to this yearbook and to business education.

Student organizations provide educators with a means to enhance the traditional classroom curriculum. A well-managed student organization can help to develop leadership, professionalism, and civic engagement, and can serve as a great public relations tool for business and marketing programs. This chapter includes a brief history of student organizations, the benefits of student organizations, the responsibilities of the adviser, utilization and management of social media, and an overview of business student organizations.

HISTORY OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Student organizations have had a long-standing relationship with business education as a means of providing additional learning experiences for students. Examples of business and marketing related student organizations include Business Professionals of America (BPA), Future Business Leaders of America-Phi Beta Lambda (FBLA-PBL), DECA, Junior Achievement, and National Business Honor Society (NBHS). Many of the widely recognized business student organizations are also career and technical student organizations (CTSOs). The main distinction between CTSOs and other student organizations is whether the organization is supported through legislated Career and Technical Education (CTE) funding.

In 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act provided legislation for formal recognition of Career and Technical Education (known then as Vocational Education) including student organizations; however, it wasn't until 1946 with the George-Barden Act that career and technical student organizations (CTSOs) also were included in legislation. Over time, several other legislative acts have provided funding for and addressed the improvement of CTE programs. The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education and Applied Technology Act was passed in 1984 and has been reauthorized with further provisions for CTE improvement (Kosloski & Ritz, 2014; Scholl, Braathen & Repnow, 2013; Threeton & Pellock, 2016). President Trump signed the Strengthening Career and Technical Education for the 21st Century Act on July 31, 2018, which created a new Perkins law. The new law is referred to as "Perkins V" (Nagurka, 2018, n.p.). Currently, the U. S. Department of Education recognizes 11 student organizations as CTSOs with support for those organizations considered an allowable use of Perkins funding (U. S. Department of Education, n.d.).

Today, business and marketing student organizations are found at all levels, from middle school to graduate school, and are utilized as both cocurricular and extracurricular enhancements to the classroom. Extracurricular student organizations are those where activities are separate from the classroom curriculum and meeting times are generally outside of school hours. Conversely, cocurricular student organization activities are intentionally designed to partner with the classroom activities. Kosloski (2014) further clarified the distinction between the two:

CTSOs are cocurricular, and they provide learning opportunities through a variety of strategies based on course competencies. Learners take part in educational activities outside the classroom that may include community service, leadership, competitive events and career awareness—all of which reinforce the learner's curriculum. Students learn to integrate academics within CTSO activities. (p. 36)

The decision as to whether a student organization will be cocurricular or extracurricular is typically made at the local district level. Regardless of whether the organization is cocurricular or extracurricular, student organizations play a pivotal role in business and marketing programs.

BUSINESS STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

The U.S. Department of Education lists numerous career and technical student organizations and specifically three that focus on business education. Those organizations are Business Professionals of America (BPA), DECA, and Future Business Leaders of America—Phi Beta Lambda (FBLA-PBL). Other organizations include Junior Achievement and National Business Honor Society. All organizations strive to accentuate leadership and professional development in varying career paths for marketing and business students (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.).

Business Professionals of America

The vision statement of BPA is “To be an innovator in Career and Technical Education, providing our members with opportunities for growth through education, competition, community service, and personal development” (Business Professionals of America, n.d., n.p.). BPA, a cocurricular organization, has 45,000 members in over 1,800 chapters in the U.S. and Puerto Rico. Those states include Alaska, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Texas, and Wisconsin. Each state has a State Adviser who directs the programs and conferences.

The national organization produces the Workplace Skills Assessment Program (WSAP). This program assesses the real-world business skills and problem-solving abilities of business students in the areas of finance, business administration, management, and information technology. Membership classifications are College/PostSecondary; High School/Secondary; Middle Level; Alumni; and Professional. State and regional conferences may vary slightly as to timing and content. The local adviser or the State Adviser should be contacted for specific information. All contact information is located on the BPA website (<http://www.bpa.org>).

Originally, BPA was named Office Education Association when the organization began in 1966. In 1988, the name was changed to its current name to continue the history of preparing students for global challenges by instilling citizenship, academic, leadership and technological skills.

DECA

DECA prepares emerging leaders and entrepreneurs for careers in four career clusters: marketing, finance, hospitality, and management. The organization is divided into two divisions. The high school division includes 200,000 members in 3,500 schools. The collegiate division includes 15,000 members in 275 colleges and universities. Membership is also open to advisers, alumni, and professional members. DECA Inc. is a 501(c)(3) not-for-profit student organization in all 50 United States, the District of Columbia, and five countries. DECA's comprehensive learning program includes competitive events and leadership challenges that are tied directly to national curriculum standards and that reinforce 21st Century Skills such as social responsibility, self-direction, problem solving, creativity, and technology fluency (DECA, n.d.-a).

The DECA diamond is a significant symbol of the organization. The four points inside the diamond represent the comprehensive learning program of integrated classroom instruction, applied learning, connection to business, and academic competition. The four outer points of the diamond prepare the next generation to be academically prepared, community oriented, professionally responsible, and experienced leaders (DECA, n.d.-b).

DECA began in 1946 as Distributive Education Clubs. In 1948, the name was changed to The Distributive Education Clubs of America. In 1991, the acronym DECA became the official name of the organization.

Future Business Leaders of America—Phi Beta Lambda

Future Business Leaders of America-Phi Beta Lambda, Inc. (FBLA-PBL) has over 230,000 members in four divisions of membership. FBLA for high school students has more than 5,250 chapters with 214,000 students. The Middle Level (FBLA-ML) has over 21,500 members in more than 700 chapters. Phi Beta Lambda (PBL) for college students has over 500 chapters and 10,000 members. The Professional Division (PD) for alumni, business professionals, educators, and parents has over 3,350 members.

The mission of FBLA-PBL states that “FBLA-PBL inspires and prepares students to become community-minded business leaders in a global society through relevant career preparation and leadership experiences” (FBLA-PBL, n.d., n.p.). The programs in the organization focus on leadership development, academic competitions, educational programs, membership benefits, community service, and awards and recognition. The National Awards Program, commonly called competitive events, recognizes excellence in a broad range of business and career-related areas. State competitions are held every spring with the top winners advancing to the National Leadership Conference in the summer (FBLA-PBL, n.d.). Comprehensive chapter management handbooks for advisers at each level—PBL, FBLA, and FBLA-Middle Level—are available on the organization’s website.

Various publications are available: *Tomorrow’s Business Leader* is published four times a year for the FBLA and FBLA-Middle Level students and advisers. Advisers also receive the *Advisers’ Hotline* which contains information for successful chapter leadership at all levels. At the collegiate level, the *PBL Business Leader* is available, and at the Professional Division level, “*The Professional Edge*.”

Junior Achievement

Since the organization was founded in 1919, Junior Achievement has inspired and prepared students to succeed in the world economy. The organization is guided by its core values:

- Belief in the boundless potential of young people
- Commitment to the principles of market-based economics and entrepreneurship

- Passion for what we do and honesty, integrity, and excellence in how we do it
- Respect for the talents, creativity, perspectives, and backgrounds of all individuals
- Belief in the power of partnership and collaboration
- Conviction in the educational and motivational impact of relevant, hands-on learning (Junior Achievement, n.d., n.p.)

According to their website (Junior Achievement, n.d.) “Junior Achievement’s programs—in the core content areas of work readiness, entrepreneurship and financial literacy—ignite the spark in young people to experience and realize the opportunities and realities of work and life in the 21st century” (n.p.). Nearly 240,000 volunteers are essential to the success of the organization—coming from business and industry, parents, college students, and retirees. Programs can be found in elementary, middle, and high school classrooms and after school programs in all 50 states.

National Business Honor Society

The National Business Honor Society (NBHS) is a division of the National Business Education Association (NBEA). This honor society is a positive addition to the student’s credentials, as well as an opportunity for the local chapter to highlight the positive impact of the business program in the school. The objectives of the NBHS include:

- Promote and recognize academic achievement in business education at the secondary level
- Foster and recognize leadership skills and character development
- Help members grow ethically and socially by promoting and encouraging an interest in business
- Encourage member involvement in service learning initiatives (National Business Education Association, n.d., n.p.)

Members must be junior or senior status, be enrolled in or completed three business courses, maintain a minimum GPA of 3.5 in business classes and 3.0 overall (on a 4.0 scale), and be selected by a local membership committee. In addition, all business education teachers in the school must be current NBEA members. There are charter fees and annual renewal fees for the chapter that are applicable. A chapter start-up kit is available at www.nbea.org to assist in the planning and organization of new chapters (NBEA, n.d.).

Other business clubs are available that also give students practice in applying what they learn in business classes. The clubs are organized by business discipline and offer specific targeted environments in which students can explore business skills that lead to future success in their chosen career (Whitacre, 2017). Examples of these clubs include:

- ENACTUS, is a play on the words Entrepreneurial, Action, Us. This club assists students to develop entrepreneurial empowerment projects.

- Hack Club provides students an opportunity to build websites, apps, and games.
- Institute of Management Accountants (IMA) provides a forum for research and advocacy of ethical and best business practices in management, accounting, and finance.
- Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) seeks to develop the next generation of leaders in human resource management.
- Student Event Planners Association (SEPA) provides an outlet for networking and experience in event-planning.
- Young Investors Society (YIS) provides practical service projects centered on the theme of personal finance and stock research and investing.

BENEFITS OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Teamwork, decision making, competitive proficiency, community and career awareness, and social development are listed among the positive traits students can develop from student organizations (Kosloski & Ritz, 2014). Student organizations provide an authentic form of instruction and have been credited with helping students learn new skills, prepare for change, develop positive attitudes, and prepare for employment in their chosen career areas. Student organizations also provide students with the experiences necessary for a constructivist learning environment, whereby students are able to construct their own knowledge based on experiences rather than simply having information transferred from teacher to student. Finally, student organizations can help students to enjoy learning, which leads to increased motivation, engagement, and retention (Kosloski & Ritz, 2014).

Alfeld, Hansen, Aragon and Stone (2006) found students in CTE classes with CTSOs had higher initial motivation levels than those in CTE classes only. They also found that increased student involvement in CTSOs led to higher academic motivation, academic engagement, grades, career self-efficacy, college aspirations, and employability skills. Interestingly, while they found that holding leadership positions did not have a significant impact, participating in competitive events had positive effects on academic engagement and career self-efficacy. Positive effects were also found between participation in community service activities and career self-efficacy. Participation in professional development activities had a positive impact on employability skills. Additional mixed results led to the authors' suggestion that adding CTSO components to CTE courses could result in more civic engagement in general.

Aragon, Alfeld and Hansen (2013) studied similar constructs when controlled for gender and race. They measured differences for students in CTE classes (both with and without a CTSO component) as well as general education classes (nonCTE courses). They found that students participating in a CTSO had higher levels of academic motivation and academic engagement than students in general education classrooms. The students in the CTSOs had higher levels of academic motivation, career self-efficacy, and civic responsibility than students in the CTE only classroom.

Kosloski and Ritz (2014) found that grade point averages increased each year of students' membership in DECA. The authors did acknowledge that student grade point averages were already above average at the start of the study, which supports the assertion that the students who participate may be "good students" to start with. However, they did conclude "DECA members who are deeply immersed in DECA's annual activities for an extended period of time reap greater academic gains than those members who participate more passively" (p. 163). The authors credit the nature of the student organization's activities (leadership opportunities and competitive events) for the positive effects.

The four main areas where student organizations provide benefits are (a) leadership development, (b) professional development, (c) competitive events, and (d) community service (Alfeld, Hansen, Aragon and Stone, 2006; Scholl et al., 2013). Each of these areas is discussed in this section.

Leadership Development

Students at the middle school and high school levels are growing and maturing, and student organizations give them the opportunity to develop as leaders as well. "Leadership is such an important component of CTSOs that they all include it as part of their mission statements" (Reese, 2008, p. 18).

Members of student organizations are able to serve in a variety of leadership roles, depending on the organization's structure. Students campaign for offices and are elected by their peers at the local, state, regional, and national levels. Strong student organizations will operate with a participative leadership style and will strive to provide opportunities for all members to be involved. "Extracurricular participation can teach the concrete skills needed to make groups work, including how to respond when some members shirk their duties, how to keep records and chair meetings, how to handle a budget, and how to persuade" (Kosloski & Ritz, 2014, p. 151).

Student members are offered leadership development workshops or officer training programs for many student organizations. Some of the leadership programs are specifically for elected leaders while others are open to students either interested in or preparing to assume leadership roles.

Professional Development

Alfeld and her colleagues (2006) described professional development as "the acquisition of knowledge and competencies that will be useful for future work in the profession" (p. 124). Student members can participate in a variety of professional development activities including learning from guest speakers, professional development workshops, and conferences. Students in business and marketing student organizations have opportunities to network with other students as well as a variety of business professionals. These interactions afford students the opportunity to learn the importance of networking as well as how to network professionally. Students also learn first-hand techniques for effective recruitment and the role networking plays in recruitment. The interactions

help to reinforce soft skills emphasized in the classroom and provide students with varied opportunities to learn about, observe, and practice professional behavior. Students are afforded experiences to develop time management skills and handle multiple activities, navigate and manage teamwork, set and achieve goals, enhance oral and written communication skills, build confidence, understand and appreciate business etiquette and protocols, and develop a deeper understanding of careers in business and marketing.

Competitive Events

Each of the CTSOs have established competitions at the regional, state, and national levels. Students are able to compete against other students in their state to earn the chance to compete at the national level. Students can compete with others via subject testing, project reports, and performance events (such as job interview, parliamentary procedure, or entrepreneurship). Many events combine testing and performance, or reporting and performance. Additionally, some competitive events are individual events while others are team events. The variety of events and event formats provides the opportunity to compete in the type of event that best suits each student competitor.

Competitions give students the opportunity to demonstrate acquired knowledge and skills in the content areas along with other valuable learning experiences. Students competing in performance events will receive judges' feedback to help improve their performance skills or to help prepare for the world of work. Often individuals who serve as judges are professionals from the business sector and serve as role models and short-term mentors for students. During the competitions, students are typically expected to adhere to a professional dress code and maintain professional behavior. Students gain "development, experience and confidence building affirmation not attainable through academics alone," which also prepares students to be competitive in the job market (Reese, 2008, p. 19).

Community Service

Student organizations provide students the venue to engage in community service projects in a number of roles, from serving as a chairperson or leader of the project to providing volunteer work hours. Many student organizations have a particular nonprofit organization or charity that they support, either through raising funds and/or providing services. Additionally, many student organizations incorporate team projects or other competitions that support and encourage student organizations to perform community service. When competitive events are not the impetus for providing community service, most student organizations will engage in some aspect of community service as part of their civic responsibility. Incorporating a focus on civic responsibility and volunteerism helps students to develop a life-long appreciation for volunteering and social responsibility.

While research studies have not focused on the benefits of community service as part of the CTSO experience, much has recently been written on the value of volunteerism,

service learning and other volunteer-based activities (Geller, Zuckerman, and Seidel, 2016; Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2007; Moorer, 2009; Voss, Mathews, Fossen, Scott, & Schaefer, 2015).

Although Levine (2016) found a correlation between sports and preparing students for civic life, he cautioned that correlation does not mean causation and other factors could be accountable. He also noted that nearly all extracurricular participation in high school increases civic engagement later in the student's life regardless of whether the group is civic oriented. He suggested that belonging to groups is what makes people actively engaged future citizens.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE ADVISER

The adviser serves as a model for students. By providing leadership, the adviser is an educator, helping students to learn by doing. The adviser provides a sense of direction for the student organization and promotes student and faculty/staff interaction in, and out of, the classroom. An adviser also provides the support necessary for the student leader to build, and maintain, a successful organization (University of Alabama at Birmingham, 2006).

Any discussion of CTSOs would not be complete without an acknowledgement of the teachers who devote so much of their time to enriching the knowledge and skills of their students by serving as CTSO advisers. Although they are already spending many hours in classrooms and labs at school, and many more at home with planning and grading, these teachers still manage to find the time and energy required to be a CTSO adviser. (Reese, 2008, p. 22)

General Responsibilities

Many of the responsibilities of an adviser support the work they already do as a classroom teacher, such as aligning curriculum with national standards, integrating activities that reinforce specific career and academic standards, engaging students in small learning communities, providing opportunities for leadership, and facilitating career preparation and goal setting. They often already involve community business leaders into advisory and classroom activities and communicate curriculum and the value of involvement in business student organizations to counselors and administrators.

Advisers wear many hats during a school year. Advisers are leaders as they develop specific roles and responsibilities for chapter leaders and project chairs, including leadership training and developing a chapter program of work. They maintain various member records: participation, emergency contacts, fundraising, etc. Advisers need to promote their program to students, counselors, administrators, and the community. The adviser and chapter leaders need to develop and execute a promotional plan for the chapter. Advisers are fundraisers and use learning activities with members to raise funds to support student organization activities. Advisers and members will develop and monitor an annual budget, plan and organize fundraisers to support individual and chapter activities, and might coordinate the use of a school-based enterprise. Advisers

develop partnerships and relationships with local businesses to provide members with insight into industry. This includes involving business leaders in advisory roles, developing business-based opportunities for members, and creating business partnerships. Advisers are travel agents who think through the aspects of student travel and are prepared for possible surprises. Advisers demonstrate how the conference or event aligns with curriculum and utilize travel opportunities as learning activities. Advisers develop an understanding for school policies for student travel and obtain appropriate permissions, as well as organize all aspects of travel. Advisers serve as role models to members and keep up-to-date on the latest professional news and industry trends while participating in professional development opportunities. Advisers develop an understanding and stay current with student organization programs. Advisers participate in professional associations and in specialized professional development. (DECA, n.d.- b)

Obtaining Administrative Support

A local administrator—such as a principal or superintendent—can be a key ally, and someone who should be invited to chapter activities so that they are informed on what is happening within the organization. Having an administrator attend activities also helps to provide credibility for the organization. Additionally, when they are kept informed, administrators can help promote the program's benefits to parents, students, and the community (Koger, 2014).

Legal Responsibilities

Advisers are responsible for completing or compiling legal and required documentation as instructed by the school district and the state and national organization. Each school district and organization has different requirements regarding release forms, student dress code, travel and medical releases, insurance information, parent/guardian releases, and emergency contact information. Advisers are responsible for ensuring that all documentation is properly completed and signed, duplicated, and distributed. Advisers should bring medical information and emergency contact information along to all functions.

Out-of-School Travel Responsibilities

Participation in business student organizations often involves out-of-school travel to attend state/regional/national organization conferences, competitions, fundraising events, and community service projects. The adviser should always accompany students on out-of-school travel. Before each out-of-school travel event, the adviser should discuss appropriate behavior, appropriate dress, and all expectations with the students.

The adviser is responsible for being aware of all rules of the school district concerning out-of-school travel. The adviser will need to communicate certain information to the school: number and names of students attending, dates, transportation needs, and number of chaperones. When the travel includes overnight stays, the adviser must fol-

low school guidelines for the ratio of male/female students to male/female chaperones, curfews, chaperone duties, and room assignments. Before traveling, advisers should talk with students about common courtesies and protocols involved when traveling such as tipping procedures, elevator etiquette, table manners, and staying in groups. Students and parents/guardians must be informed of the consequences that will result if a student fails to comply with stated rules. Many advisers plan a meeting with students, parents/guardians, chaperones, and school administration to discuss the rules and consequences before the travel and have students and parents/guardians sign a code of conduct for the event. Figure 1 on the next page is a code of conduct with dress code form used by North Dakota FBLA. Both the student and the parent/guardian are required to sign the form for each state sponsored conference.

Parent/Guardian Communication

Parents and guardians must be included in communication on all aspects of the student organization. This could be done through newsletters or emails, meetings/socials, websites, text messaging or social media. Parents/guardians should be informed in advance of activities and trips with dates, travel times, location, costs and emergency contact information. (see Figure 1.)

Supervision of Fundraising Activities

Fundraising should be about more than just raising funds for the business student organization. Fundraising projects should be tied to curriculum standards, including project management, setting financial goals, marketing strategies, analyzing income and expenses, and analyzing project strengths and weaknesses.

School Policies and Procedures. Schools and school districts have specific guidelines for fundraising activities. The adviser must have access to the most current guidelines and forms. School policy generally requires approval for a fundraising project concept and has guidelines for student involvement and the collection and distribution of funds.

Fundraising projects are more successful if members are allowed to be included in picking the fundraising project. Some chapters have a project that becomes a tradition at their school and the fundraiser “sells itself” such as selling concessions or producing a community calendar. Some chapters have a school-based enterprise that sells school apparel and spirit items throughout the school year.

Community Regulations. The adviser should be aware of community regulations that may exist when pursuing fundraisers. Some fundraisers, like raffles or 50-50 drawings may require permits from the city government. Food handler permits may be required for off-campus food sales. Local government entities, including fire and police departments, health inspectors, etc. should be contacted during the planning of the fundraiser to assure compliance with all regulations. There are also federal nutrition guidelines that impact what food items can be sold as part of fundraisers during the school day.

Figure 1: North Dakota FBLA Code of Conduct

North Dakota FBLA Code of Conduct	
Student Name (print/type) ☐ Fall Leadership Conference ☐ State Leadership Conference	School (print/type) ☐ National Leadership Conference
Advisers: Have each delegate sign a copy. Signed copies must be turned in at registration.	
FBLA-PBL Code of Conduct FBLA-PBL members have an excellent reputation. Your conduct at every FBLA-PBL function should make a positive contribution to extending that reputation. Listed here are rules of conduct for the FBLA Leadership Conferences. All delegates will be expected to:	
1. Behave in a courteous and respectful manner, refraining from language and actions that might bring discredit upon themselves, their school, other delegates, advisers, or upon FBLA-PBL. 2. Obey all local, state, and federal laws. 3. Avoid conduct not conducive to an educational conference. Such conduct includes, but is not limited to, actions disrupting the businesslike atmosphere, association with non-conference individuals, or activities that endanger self or others (running in the General Sessions, standing on chairs, using laser points during workshops, bodysurfing at dances, etc.) 4. Keep their advisers informed of their activities and whereabouts at all times. Accidents, injuries, and illnesses must be reported to the local or state advisers immediately. 5. Observe the curfews as listed in the conference program. Local and state advisers as well as security personnel will enforce curfews. Curfew is defined as being in your own assigned room by the designated hour. 6. Avoid alcoholic beverages and controlled or illegal substances of any form. These items must not be used or possessed at any time, or under any circumstances. Use or possession of such substances may subject the delegate to criminal prosecution. 7. Act as guests of the hotel and conference center. Delegates must obey the rules of these facilities. The facilities have the right to ask a delegate or delegates to leave. Do not throw anything out of windows or over balconies. Do not run down hallways. Noise should be kept at a reasonable volume, especially in the hotels. Remember there are other guests in the hotels who have rights as well. Trash (this includes pizza boxes, bottles, cans, etc.) must be placed in the proper receptacles and not left on guest room or meeting room floors. Individuals or chapters responsible for damages to any property or furnishings will be responsible for its repair or replacement.	FBLA-PBL Dress Code Appropriate attire is required for all attendees—advisers, members, and guests—at all general sessions, competitive events, regional meetings, workshops, and other activities unless otherwise stated in the conference program. Conference name badges are part of this dress code and must be worn for all conference functions. Professional attire acceptable for official FBLA-PBL activities include: Males • Business suit with collared shirt, and necktie (or bow tie)** • Sport coat, dress slacks, collared shirt and necktie (or bow tie) • Dress slacks, collared shirt, and necktie (or bow tie) • Business suit or sport coat with dress slacks and banded collar shirt • Sweater or sweater vest, collared shirt with necktie (or bow tie), and dress slacks • Dress socks and dress shoes (not sandals, work boots, or other shoes with heavy soles—dress cowboy boots are ok) Females • Business suit with blouse or sweater, sleeveless suit is appropriate** • Business pantsuit with blouse or sweater** • Skirt or dress slacks with buttoned-up blouse or sweater (knee length*) • Business dress (knee length*) • Maxi length skirt with coordinating jacket/cardigan • Jumpsuit with coordinating jacket/cardigan • Capris/gauchos with coordinating jacket/cardigan, worn below the knee • Dress shoes (closed or open toe) Inappropriate attire includes: • Jewelry in visible body piercing, other than ears • Hair dyed an unnatural color • Tunics and leggings • Cargo pocket or zip-off pants • Jean-style khaki pants, capris, or skirt, or other pants or skirts with pockets sewn on the outside • Denim, canvas, flannel, or chambray fabric • Backless, see-through, tight-fitting, spaghetti strapped, strapless, or low-cut blouses/tops/dresses • Dress t-shirts (Sweaters and blouses are only appropriate) • Clothing that shows any midriff skin • T-shirts, spandex, tank tops, bathing suits • Blouses that are not buttoned appropriately • ***Casual shoes – no sandals, athletic shoes, colored (or black) canvas sneakers, Toms-style shoes, work shoes, hiking boots, over-the-knee boots, cowboy boots for females, flip-flop/thong sandals of any kind, or bare feet • Athletic wear—including sneakers • Hats • Bolo ties • Visible foundation garments
Local advisers are responsible for the supervision of delegate conduct.	
Disregarding or Violating the Code of Conduct Delegates who disregard or violate this code will be subject to disciplinary action, including, but not limited to, forfeiture of privileges to attend further events, confinement to your hotel room, dismissal from the conference, and being sent home at your own expense. Parents and/or guardians will be notified and FBLA-PBL reserves the right to notify law enforcement.	
I agree to abide by the Code of Conduct and the Dress Code. Signed: _____ Parent Signature _____ Date _____	
CLARIFICATION: Many women's two-piece suits are currently designed so that they do not require a blouse. Therefore, this will be accepted. In addition, sling-back shoes and sleeveless dresses/suits are accepted. *Knee length would be any skirt or dress that hits at some point of the knee—either just above, in the middle of the knee, or just below. **Business suits must be appropriate to the decade. ***Any shoe made of fabric or canvas is considered a casual shoe and does not meet FBLA dress code guidelines.	

Source: Reprinted from North Dakota FBLA-PBL (2016)

Social and Political Standards. The adviser should be aware of community norms and expectations on social and political standards, religious beliefs, and local customs before taking on a fundraiser. This could include finding out about annual fundraisers already organized by other groups in the community. All activities should be researched before investing time, energy and money into a project to ensure that it will fit the social and political standards of that community.

UTILIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL MEDIA

One of the keys to smoothly running a student organization chapter is to have consistent and timely communication with students. This communication could happen in a variety of ways – it could be the traditional bulletin boards, flyers, newsletters, and school public address systems—but it should also include electronic communication – school email systems, texting (Remind or Group Me), and social media (Koger, 2014).

Development of a Social Media Plan

Social media is one platform that chapters should integrate into their marketing/promotional plan for the year. Social media should be a news broadcast system on a local level for local events or on a national level for alumni connections. Social media is a living document that is readily available on the networks future and past members, sponsors and strategic partners are familiar with. Strategic partners are groups such as school administration, news outlets, etc. (Sandstrom, 2017).

Social media posts should be well planned. Advisers should begin by picking three channels to focus on – LinkedIn, Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Blog, Snapchat, etc. Chapter content should be broken into categories such as current events, business organization promotion, news, sharing content, etc. Content should be reused and recycled and planned over a multi-week posting schedule. Figure 2 is an example of a posting schedule (Sandstrom, 2017).

Figure 2: Sample Social Media Multi-Week Posting Schedule

	Week One	Week Two	Week Three	Week Four
Blog				
Email				
Facebook/Twitter				
LinkedIn				

(Sandstrom, 2017)

It is also important to consider how content can be created for multiple platforms at one time: Facebook posts allow users to post longer copy with images/videos/GIFs; Twitter requires short copy and specific image sizes; Instagram uses image/video as the primary content with a short supporting caption; and Snapchat is full-screen, vertical photo or video along with filters. Content managers should consider how these can work in collaboration with permanent posts (Paul, 2017). Some platforms allow

for posts from one platform to be automatically shared and posted to other platforms simultaneously.

The power of email is often a forgotten part of the marketing plan for smaller organizations. When creating a chapter's marketing plan, advisers and members can consider using a mailing list tool, like MailChimp, to easily send out email updates and many of these tools will allow users to track key performance indicators such as open rate, bounce rate, etc. (Paul, 2017).

Management of Social Media

The idea of managing social media accounts for personal use can seem daunting, so how does an adviser set up accounts for their business student organization? Advisers should start by creating an email address that will be used for the chapter or organization at the local level and should tie ALL the social media accounts to that email address and to a single Wi-Fi device. This email address could be issued through the school or a free email provider such as Yahoo or Gmail. Chapters should have a folder with "approved" images (logos, student photos, etc.) that can be used for the social media accounts. The adviser can set guidelines for content and indicate what is or is not allowable, or the adviser can elect to work with the officers to set guidelines each year. Officers or media team/committee can go through a training and strategy session and have them sign a "memo of understanding." Lastly, advice for advisers is – don't wait – get started and use social media regularly (Sandstrom, 2017)!

Advisers can limit and monitor content and not have to be the person doing the work. Work can be assigned to officers or a media team whose job it is to write and create content and give to the adviser at regular intervals (such as every two weeks) for approval. The adviser can monitor activity by connecting their personal/adviser device to the social media channels and receive notifications of all posts (Sandstrom, 2017).

Social media accounts and apps have settings available to help users schedule their posts. In Facebook, users can create posts in advance and schedule a time for them to post. Apps like HootSuite and MeetEdgar help users schedule and manage their social media content.

Advisers should be aware of any policies and procedures regarding social media within the school or school district. Policies may involve informing administrators of what channels are being used and providing account usernames. Advisers should check on district policies regarding publishing names and photos of students – there may be an opt-out list where parents request that pictures not be used of their child. Some schools provide training for student organizations about what may or may not be posted on student organization accounts. Advisers can have the accounts connected to a single device and set guidelines and expectations that students cannot access the accounts from any other device.

Student Recruitment/Promotion of the Organization

Social media can provide information about joining the organization and can even be used for membership signup. Social media for student recruitment should be a living document that creates interest for potential members. Social media should engage people, and provide them a reason to connect. In order for potential members to stay interested, the student organization needs to provide good content – videos, pictures, posts, and live footage. The promotions should always include a unique, but consistent, handle/hashtag on promotion materials (Sandstrom, 2017).

Advertising

Chapter success should always be shared with the community. Community contacts can be found for the local newspaper, radio, and/or television stations. Those contacts should be invited to chapter activities within the community. School district communication tools such as newsletters, website, or district social media pages can be used to share a chapter's success (Koger, 2014). As mentioned previously, social media accounts can also be used to advertise the chapter's success. Careful consideration should go into which social media options will best reach the intended audience.

Social Media in the Classroom

As social media continues to grow, teachers will need to teach students about using it as a professional tool and not just for their personal use. Teachers can create a “digital agency” within the classroom. Students can be assigned positions on teams on a rotating basis.

- CEO: Teacher/Adviser – gives direction and sets goals
- Copy: writes and edits
- Designer: Art Director & Creator
- Manager: plans and implements, co-directs art (Sandstrom, 2017)

Involving multiple students in the management and use of social media helps to provide ownership for the organization's activities while keeping the workload manageable.

SUMMARY

Business and marketing student organizations exist as both cocurricular and extra-curricular enhancements for business and marketing education programs at various levels. These organizations provide students the opportunity to develop as professionals with critical 21st century skills. Student organizations give students the opportunities to participate in a variety of activities to build their leadership skills, develop their professionalism, enhance their civic engagement, and have fun while learning with their peers. Management of student organizations requires dedicated leadership from the organization's adviser, who also coordinates with parents, administrators, and community and professional partners.

REFERENCES

- Alfeld, C., Hansen, D., Aragon, S., & Stone, J., III. (2006). Inside the black box: Exploring the value added by career and technical student organizations to students' high school experience. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 31(3), 121-156.
- Aragon, S. R., Alfeld, C. & Hansen, D. M. (2013). Benefits of career and technical student organizations' on female and racial minority students psychosocial and achievement outcomes, *Career and Technical Education Research*, 38(2). doi:10.5328/cter38.2.105
- Business Professionals of America. (n.d.). *About*. Retrieved from <http://www.bpa.org/about>
- DECA. (n.d.-a). *About*. Retrieved from <http://www.deca.org>
- DECA. (n.d.-b). *DECA. Be a hero in the eyes of your students: The ultimate advisor guidebook* (pp. 12-13). Retrieved from <https://www.deca.org/classroom/serve-advisor/>
- Future Business Leaders of America-Phi Beta Lambda. (n.d.) *About FBLA-PBL*. Retrieved from <http://www.fbla-pbl.org/about/>
- Geller, J. D., Zuckerman, N., & Seidel, A. (2016). Service-Learning as a catalyst for community development: How do community partners benefit from service-learning? *Education and Urban Society*, 48(2), 151-175. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124513514773>
- Junior Achievement. (n.d.). *About Junior Achievement*. Retrieved from <https://www.juniorachievement.org/web/ja-usa/about>
- Kenworthy-U'Ren, A. L. (2007). A decade of service-learning: A review of the field ten years after JOBE's seminal special issue. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81, 811-822.
- Koger, S. (2014). Recruiting and retaining students in career and technical student organizations. *Business Education Forum*, 69(2), 46-48.
- Kosloski, M. (2014, February). Making CTE work through CTSOs, *Techniques: Connecting Education and Careers*, 89(2), 35-37.
- Kosloski, M. F., Jr., & Ritz, J. M. (2014). DECA membership and its effect on grade point average as an indicator of academic success. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 39(2), 151-169.
- Levine, P. (2016, May). Join a club! Or a team—Both can make good citizens. *Kappan*, 97(8), 24-27. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0031721716647014>
- Moorer, Jr., C. (2009). Service learning and business education: Distinctions between undergraduate and graduate business students. *American Journal of Business Education (AJBE)*, 2(3), 63-72.
- Nagurka, J. (2018, August 1). *President signs new Perkins law [Blog post]*. Retrieved from <http://ctepolicywatch.acteonline.org/2018/08/president-signs-new-perkins-law.html>
- National Business Education Association. (n.d.). *About National Business Honor Society*. Retrieved from <https://www.nbea.org/newsite/about/NBHS.html>
- North Dakota Future Business Leaders of America. (2016). *North Dakota FBLA chapter handbook*. Bismarck, ND: Author.

- Paul, R. (2017, March 14). *Social media for student organizations*. [Electronic interview].
- Reese, S. (2008). Today's students tomorrow's leaders. *Techniques: Connecting Education and Careers*, 83(1), 18-22.
- Sandstrom, S. (2017, March 13). *Social media for student organizations* [Electronic interview].
- Scholl, K., Braathen, S., & Repnow, J. (2013). Sponsoring student organizations. In McEwen, B. (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education: NBEA 2013 yearbook* (No. 51, pp. 263-277). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Threeton, M. D., & Pellock, C. (2016). An examination of the relationship between SkillsUSA student contest preparation and academics. *Journal of Career and Technical Education*, 25(2), 94-108.
- U. S. Department of Education. (n.d.). *Career and technical student organizations*. Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ovae/pi/cte/vso.html>
- University of Alabama at Birmingham. (2006, August 8). The role of a student organization adviser – Student affairs (Policy VII-006). *Policies and procedures library*. Retrieved from <http://www.uab.edu/policies/content/Pages/UAB-AA-POL-0000592.aspx>
- Voss, H. C., Mathews, L. R., Fossen, T., Scott, G., & Schaefer, M. (2015). Community-academic partnerships: Developing a service-learning framework. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 31(5), 395-401.
- Whitacre, P. T., (2017). Joining in, moving forward: Extracurricular clubs for every business interest. *Business Education Forum*, 72(1), 18-24.

Lifelong Professional Development

Connie M. Forde
Mississippi State University
Starkville, MS

Kellie A. Schumack
Auburn University at Montgomery
Montgomery, AL

It has been said that “effectiveness in teaching is a journey, rather than a destination” (Killion & Hirsh, 2011, p. 12). Teachers never find themselves at the end of learning. Throughout the school year teachers focus on students—on their academic achievement and building them up and preparing them as individuals. There is a time, however, for a teacher to focus on professional growth. Without this investment, teachers are in danger of lessening their impact on what their students learn; missing out on innovative teaching methods that inspire, motivate, and empower students to achieve; and becoming outdated in their knowledge of ever-changing technology. This chapter includes a discussion of the inherent benefits of professional development on student and teacher learning, as well as the opportunities that should be considered for a possible framework to use as teachers intentionally plan for continued learning.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT—WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS?

Research suggests that teachers who engage in concentrated, content-rich, and shared learning opportunities improve their teaching and the learning of students in their classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 2009). The teacher who invests in professional growth will impact student learning and enhance teacher learning through innovative teaching methods and up-to-date technology.

Impact Student Learning

Research has shown there is a direct link from teacher skill and content knowledge to student achievement (Berry, Johnson, & Montgomery, 2005; Buczynski & Hansen, 2010; Hirsh, 2011). Essentially, professional development opportunities shape, support, and provide the tools necessary for continual improvement of teaching practices (Hirsh, 2011).

A teacher's self-assessment of his or her own ability to support student learning, known as teacher efficacy, is an important factor in professional development that impacts student learning. Teachers with high efficacy levels are more likely to persist when the inevitable teaching challenges emerge (Bruce, Esmonde, Ross, Dookie, & Beatty, 2010). More experience through additional training gives teachers greater confidence and a larger store of ideas and strategies from which to plan impactful learning.

Enhance Teacher Learning

Teaching should not be a static process—changes and adjustments are made to meet the needs of those who are learning. When teachers learn with intentionality and purpose, everyone benefits. Students learn more because they participate and are excited and stimulated. Teachers benefit because they are reinvigorated by new ideas and the excitement that is seen in learners. Teachers with new strategies and a new understanding of the complex cultures and generations that they teach are better prepared to educate students for a changing workplace full of fluctuating technologies—a workplace where students will need to be problem solvers and critical thinkers and have an ability to troubleshoot and transfer knowledge as they explore new technologies.

Understand the generations you teach. Generation Y, also known as Millennials (born between 1980 and 2000) and Generation Z (born from 2000 to 2010) obviously comprise the current student population at the secondary (Gen Z) and postsecondary levels (Gen Y and Z). What is known about these generations is an important factor for teachers when considering the audience. Gen Z (current secondary students) are digital communicators, need frequent feedback, and respond better to positive reinforcement than to criticism, even if it is constructive. Millennials (Gen Y) place a high value and priority on good parenting, which has ramifications for teaching nontraditional postsecondary students. Millennials are also typically open to integrating technology, enjoy working in groups, and prefer to be active when learning (Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, 2013b). Currently, 91% of teenagers (Gen Z) go online using smart devices. They are not necessarily savvy in business technologies, but their most popular social media platforms are Facebook, Instagram, and Snapchat in that order (Lenhart, 2015). This information is prime when designing activities and assessments for engaged learners. Regardless of the generation, teachers who are flexible and knowledgeable can engage students where they are and will not attempt to mold them into a different generational paradigm.

The newest generational label, what some are calling “Generation Alpha,” encompasses individuals born after 2010. These students will be in classrooms soon, so teachers can prepare for them now. Generation Alpha will have spent “the bulk of their formative years completely immersed in [technology]” (Sterbenz, 2015, para 10) and will have begun interacting with technology at much younger ages than other generations did.

Teachers shift strategies, change, and grow along with the changing generations of student audiences. For more information on generational issues, teachers are encouraged to read the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education Statement 93 found at https://www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement93_2013.pdf.

Empower student learning through current technology. Between 2005 and 2009, the number of American 10- to 11-year-olds with cell phones grew almost 81% (Frommer & Angelova, 2010). Smart devices bring the power of the laptop to the classroom with the added advantage of increased mobility.

Growing professionally means teachers meet the challenges of a tech-savvy generation who also must be prepared to adjust to technological changes in the workplace. The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) Standards for Educators (2017) promotes teaching that facilitates student learning and creativity by modeling digital age work and learning as well as evaluating student learning through digital age assessments. Are business educators of today collaborating “with colleagues and students to improve practice, discover, and share resources and ideas, and solve problems?” (International Society for Technology in Education, p. 2). Are teachers demonstrating a “media fluency” (International Society for Technology in Education, p. 1) in technology systems? Are educators continually “improving their practice by learning from and with others and exploring proven and promising practices that leverage technology to improve student learning?” (International Society for Technology in Education, p. 1). This type of modeling provides a pathway for students to do the same throughout a lifetime of changing technologies to which they must adjust. Designing assessments and learning activities which include digital tools allows students to pursue personal curiosities and promotes learning in context to the business environment. It is a significant part of teaching as well as teacher education in this age and is not a skill or aptitude that can be overlooked or neglected.

An example of promoting learning in context of the business environment is that of using blogs to model and teach marketing strategies. Corporations boost online presence through blogging, social media, and other web technologies. Blogging brings meaning to course information and incorporates active and reflective learning as supported by Kolb’s experiential learning model (Kolb, 2015). Blogging not only enriches student’s marketing skills but also further develops students’ ability to communicate with others by having them identify material and then communicate its relevance to other people in a way that persuades them to a particular viewpoint. Blogging also has

students “experience writing in a professional context” (Fowler & Thomas, 2015, p. 187). Blogging in the context of any business classroom can have a continuous effect if used over the course of a school year or semester. When used continuously, students are encouraged to think about concepts throughout instead of for only a chapter or unit. Professional development can help business teachers use or leverage these technologies to make classrooms engaging and authentic.

Learn innovative strategies. Lifelong professional development means investing in new ideas with the intention of helping students understand course content through progressive teaching methods that engage and motivate learners. Knowing one’s audience and understanding what motivates and engages individual students is fundamental to good teaching. A few of the innovative methods and practices that may engage individuals of all generations and serve as a way to differentiate instruction to accommodate all learners include project-based learning, authentic activities, simulations, hands-on activities, open discussion, role playing, team activities, inclusive practices, and game-based learning (Moore, 2011).

It is probably no surprise, but data supported that the quantity and quality of notes taken in class impacts a students’ ability to retain and use that information. One study reported that students who use their cell phones while a teacher is lecturing are less likely to write things down, recall less of what was said, and then do worse on multiple-choice tests than do students who are not distracted while the teacher is delivering content. Students who do **not** use their cell phone frequently during a lecture recalled 87% more than students who were distracted by cell phone use (texting, etc.) during a lecture (Kuznekoff & Titsworth, 2013). In terms of student grades, this difference translated to 13 percentage points or 1.5 letter grades lower for those students who use their cell phones while a teacher is delivering content in class each day. This knowledge should empower lifelong-learning teachers to strategize the regulated and structured use of cell phones as a teaching strategy.

Quest-based learning, often referred to as gamification (entire classes built using game mechanics), is a teaching strategy worth pursuing in professional development. Research showed that games make learning faster, easier, more entertaining, and fun. Gamification also encourages collaboration among students and is motivating by the competition and collaboration among students. Students challenge themselves and are more active in the process of learning (Berns, Gonzalez, Camacho, 2013). For the teacher who wishes to know more, the activity of delineating between “game-based learning” and “gamification” is an effective way to explore new teaching strategies involving games and game mechanics.

The flipped classroom (that is, lecture is done at home and homework is done in class) is a well-known strategy. Research showed that students perceive this strategy as “more dynamic than face-to-face” teaching sessions (Fidalgo, Martinez, Borrás, & Sanchez, 2016, p. 6). With this method, students review course content more than they do for other classes, and their teachers ask them more questions. This tool is a good

example of how studying and then implementing a proven strategy can result in both students and teachers being more engaged.

Reach diverse cultures and populations. Just as understanding differing generations is part of understanding one's audience, so is understanding the racial or ethnic cultures of the students being taught. Students who live in poverty, for example, are at risk of not being successful in school; however, good teachers can overcome some of the obstacles that inhibit learning (Johnson, 2014). In poor urban settings, there is a social gap between the background of most teachers and the students they teach; and this gap can influence how teachers teach and how they view their students. Successful teachers in poor urban schools have the following three characteristics: "knowing themselves, knowing the environment in which they teach, and maintaining high expectations" (Gehrke, 2005, p. 15). It is possible to be successful in tough classroom environments, and the starting point is to be self-aware and to self-reflect. Contemplating and learning about the impact of a teacher's own misconceptions, particularly about the capability of his or her students, is an important step in the professional development of teachers who have a diverse student audience.

It pays educational dividends to know the complexities of the audience as part of a comprehensive professional development plan. This knowledge can lead to strategies that leverage the strengths of students (and their parents) in different cultures and populations. For example, while use of social media is mostly consistent across all racial and ethnic groups, 77% of teens from households earning less than \$50,000 annually use Facebook compared to 68% of teens who come from families earning more (Lenhart, 2015). Thirty-four percent of African-American teens report being online almost constantly compared to 32% of Hispanic teens and 19% of white teens. White teens are also less likely to use messaging apps (24% report using messaging apps such as WhatsApp or Kik) than African-American (47%) or Hispanic (46%) teens. Teens from middle and upper income families of any race are somewhat more likely to use Instagram and Snapchat. Girls are more likely to use social media than boys; however, boys are more likely to play video games than girls (Lenhart, 2015).

Obsolescence is not an option for the teacher who wishes to engage and excite each generation of students and prepare them for a future in an evolving society. Diverse and exciting opportunities for continued professional development are available to teachers.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Establishing a professional development plan is essential for business teachers and their students. This section of the chapter explores a number of informal and formal professional development opportunities for professional development.

Personalize Professional Development

Teachers personalize professional development by setting particular learning goals and then setting specific targets for what will be learned and when and how the learning will take place. Several examples are discussed here.

Micro-credentialing. Micro-credentialing is a chance for teachers “to engage in rigorous, self-paced, job-embedded professional learning that is connected to the daily skills teachers need in their classrooms” (Acree, 2016, p. 1) and most often includes a concentrated focus on a particular skill or topic and requires teachers to validate mastery of the skill or topic in order to earn a badge. Instead of one-size-fits-all in-service workshops, the micro-credentialing system usually includes the pursuit of self-paced and job-embedded credentials that are earned by the demonstrated competency of the participant.

School systems are using in-house created and approved micro-credentialing systems as well as using other platforms such as Digital Promise. Some school systems are using a quest-based arrangement that has self-guided modules for teachers to complete and earn a micro-credential. Other systems are pairing new teachers with expert teachers to work through modules related to key skills in a state’s teacher evaluation system (Sawchuk, 2016).

Personal learning networks and web-based opportunities. Since a teacher’s “knowledge and experience must be at the heart of professional development” (Laurillard, 2016, p. 3), it is advantageous to have teachers collaborating and contributing to communities of learners. Personal learning networks (PLNs) are one way that teachers create unique opportunities to learn in order to grow professionally and contribute to the community of fellow teachers. PLNs provide a support structure for informal learning through interpersonal connections and resources. These connections may be face-to-face connections at meetings and conferences, while others may be formed in online communities.

The nature of PLNs is “personal” so that each educator’s network is individualized and takes effort to establish and maintain. To begin a PLN, teachers connect with other educators via Facebook, Twitter, Blogger, and Digg (or other social bookmarking sites such as Reddit.com and Delicious.com). Teachers start their own blog (to easily self-reflect) and begin to read those of other educators.

Edcamps. Edcamps are also known as “unconferences” since they are in an unconventional format. These professional development opportunities are participant-driven and are usually free and not part of any official system. They operate on the premise that “fellow educators can be some of the most valuable resources” (“History,” para. 5) for professional development. A typical edcamp organization has participants brainstorming to discuss and to select topics and then organizers place topics into time slots for breakout sessions. Participants are encouraged to go and come at will during sessions so that their professional development needs are met.

A business teacher can personalize experiences to take advantage of opportunities available from professional organizations, conferences, publications, life experiences, graduate credit courses and advanced degrees, and formal in-service professional development programs offered by school districts.

Professional organizations. The Policies Commission on Business and Economic Education (2013a) acknowledged the value and impact of business educators' active involvement in professional associations, as well as the impact of the business education profession, students, and employers of educators, business, and community partners. For the individual member, the benefits are numerous and varied among professional associations; however, the primary goals of membership benefits are assisting members in staying up to date in the field, forming strong networks, and developing leadership and professional skills, all benefits related to professional development (Shumack & Forde, 2012). Six organizations that contribute extensively to lifelong professional development are briefly highlighted below.

National Business Education Association. The National Business Education Association (NBEA) is the largest U.S. organization devoted to those interested in education for and about business. The benefits of NBEA membership include the quarterly journal *Business Education Forum*, the quarterly newsletter *Keying In*, and the NBEA yearbook, which addresses a different educational theme each year, a professional awards program, professional liability insurance, and a national honor society for high school students. NBEA benefits that promote professional development are annual national conferences, webinars on professional development topics, and networking within the organization. For additional information, teachers are encouraged to visit NBEA's Web site (<http://www.nbea.org>) (National Business Education Association, 2017).

In addition to the National Business Education Association, teachers may join their regional business education association and state business education association. Regional and state associations offer professional development through conferences in local areas, publications, networking, and the opportunity to serve business education at the local and regional level.

National Association for Business Teacher Education. The National Association for Business Teacher Education (NABTE) is an institutional division of NBEA, providing nationwide leadership and service to business teacher education institutions and business teacher educators in an effort to improve undergraduate and graduate business teacher education. NABTE members are colleges and universities that have state-approved business teacher education programs, as well as individuals interested in business teacher education (National Association for Business Teacher Education, 2017).

Membership benefits that support professional development include its regular and special publications, the *Business Teacher Education Journal* and the *Business Teacher Education: Curriculum Guide and Program Standards*, a curriculum guide and program standards revised systematically to maintain high standards for business teacher certification. Additional benefits include an annual research conference, a model for alternative licensure/certification, and an award of merit program for business teacher education graduates. Additional information is available on the NABTE Web site (<http://www.nabte.org>) (National Association for Business Teacher Education, 2017).

International Society for Business Education. The United States Chapter of the International Society for Business Education (ISBE or Société Internationale pour l'Enseignement Commercial known overseas as SIEC-ISBE) is the international arm and linkage for NBEA to international aspects of business education. In the United States, ISBE members are NBEA members who are particularly interested in promoting and strengthening business education around the world.

SIEC-ISBE membership benefits specific to professional development include the refereed *International Journal for Business Education* and other special publications throughout the year. SIEC-ISBE offers an annual international conference, annual U.S. chapter meeting, and networking possibilities with business educators and trainers domestically and internationally. ISBE's Web site (<http://www.siecisbe.org>) provides additional information (International Society for Business Education, 2017).

The Association for Research in Business Education. The Association for Research in Business Education (ARBE), formerly Delta Pi Epsilon (DPE), is the national research society in business education and is the research division of NBEA. Members include business educators, administrators, researchers, and businesspeople, all of whom share a common interest in business education research (Association for Research in Business Education, 2017).

Membership benefits include ARBE's regular and special publications, including *Journal of Research in Business Education* and *Journal of Applied Research for Business Instruction*. ARBE also co-sponsors with NABTE the Business Education Research Conference (BERC), an annual national research conference held in conjunction with the NBEA Convention. The Delta Pi Epsilon Research Foundation, Inc., also provides grant opportunities for those wishing to advance research in business education. Additional information is available on ARBE's Web site (<http://www.dpe.org>) (Association for Research in Business Education, 2017).

Pi Omega Pi. Pi Omega Pi is a business teacher education honor society whose purpose is to promote scholarship and service in business education. Membership benefits related to professional development include the newsletter *Here and There* (published quarterly), a biennial national convention held in conjunction with the annual NBEA Convention, and a social network via Facebook. Pi Omega Pi's Web site (<http://pio-omegapii.org>) has additional information (Pi Omega Pi, 2017).

Association for Career and Technical Education. The Association for Career and Technical Education (ACTE), known as the American Vocational Association between 1926 and 1998, is a U.S. association that focuses on education and prepares people for careers within a competitive workforce (Hosler, 2003). Membership benefits include its regular and special publications, *Techniques* and *Career Tech Update*, an annual convention and related trade show, a national policy seminar, regional workshops, webinars, online forums and social networks, professional resources, and a legislative action

center,. Additional information is on ACTE's Web site (<http://www.acteonline.org>) (Association for Career and Technical Education, 2017).

Professional conferences. Professional conferences are events where business educators form strong bonds with colleagues for a lifetime of collaboration. These relationships, both face-to-face and digital, strengthen morale, encourage the new teacher, and make meaningful collaboration a tool for new ideas and improved instruction in the classroom.

Professional literature and other readings. Professional literature forms the foundation of the profession by providing content information, policy statements, trends and issues, support for changes in the discipline, and current methodology and pedagogy in the field. It is important to note that professional associations play a vital role in ensuring the most up-to-date topics, issues, and research are investigated in their timely publications. Having immediate access to this information is a major reason to join key professional associations and maintain continuous memberships.

A business teacher who regularly reads business, business education, and general education literature acquires needed knowledge for staying current in the profession and fulfilling his or her own duties and responsibilities as an astute business educator. Using an online tool such as Newsvine.com is an effective way to stay up-to-date with current events and industry news. Such information could be used to create interesting and authentic activities or assessments in the classroom and can also encourage students to be more aware of their role in the global economy.

In addition to reading the professional business education literature, a business teacher is also a valuable contributor to it. Valuable teaching strategies and methodologies can and should be shared with other business educators (Scott, 2008). Many publication avenues are available to business educators, beginning with school department newsletters and state and regional business education association newsletters, blogs, or forums in professional learning communities.

Professional associations publish their calls for papers and manuscript requirements on their Web sites and in their professional publications. Scott (2008) wrote, "In the process of authoring a publication, a business educator refines thinking, research, writing, and teaching skills, contributing to professional development" (p. 281).

Advanced degrees and college coursework. Enrolling in graduate courses and pursuing graduate degrees provide opportunities for academic and professional advancement, including professional development, better job opportunities, added certifications or endorsements, and sometimes increased compensation. Graduate study may focus on increased understanding of business subject matter and improved business and general teaching methodology. Totally online courses and online graduate degrees are available

through many colleges and universities, making them very attractive to teachers desiring college courses and advanced degrees.

In-service and individual professional development. Schools or school districts provide teachers some professional growth opportunities. Each teacher may also individually seek out other professional development learning opportunities and should know what state requirements are necessary to maintain teacher certification.

In-service development provided by schools. Schools across the nation provide professional growth opportunities for teachers, often called in-service training. States and districts build in-service days into the school calendar and then set an agenda for training. Generally, school and/or school districts are required to submit local education agency plans for the comprehensive professional development training of all system employees to satisfy federal requirements for money spent on teacher training. In-service hours may be used to satisfy teacher recertification requirements, depending on the state.

Individual professional development selected by teachers. Professional development chosen by an individual teacher may be tied to an annual evaluation plan. In some states, teachers are evaluated and areas for growth are identified so that teachers can formulate a plan to meet those identified goals.

Experiences. Business teachers may seek to grow professionally through travel opportunities, internships/externships, sabbaticals, and reading.

Travel. Travel, specifically outside the United States, is broadening. The business practices and economy of the world take on a different meaning because they have been experienced, and communication is valued differently because of the cultures and languages encountered.

Internships/externships. Paid and nonpaid internships or externships are available in local businesses and are a valuable way to keep skills and knowledge current. These opportunities also assist in developing relationships with area businesses, which can in turn provide the business teacher with a useful network of professionals to serve as guest speakers, as members of the business education advisory board, or to contribute funds for special projects. Internships may also result in excellent locations for field trips or student internships in the future. Internships assist in developing authenticity that is important in academic activities. Students want to make connections with the real world and see value in the hard work they invest in the projects teachers ask them to do.

Sabbaticals. An individual chooses a sabbatical with a specific purpose in mind. For example, they may be pursuing an industry certification, writing a textbook, studying what other universities are doing in an academic area, studying abroad, doing post-doctoral work, completing research, or accepting a Fulbright Scholarship to teach in

another country. Sabbaticals are more typical in postsecondary settings; however, even secondary teachers may be granted professional development leave for short periods of time, such as one week or one or two days, in order to observe successful teachers or to visit positive and thriving schools or programs.

Reading. Reading for pleasure not only improves reading ability but also increases general knowledge and improves understanding of different cultures, human nature, and how people make decisions (Clark & Rumbold, 2006). Teachers who place a high value on reading and also read for pleasure are more likely to employ instructional strategies that encourage students to read—such as allowing class time for silent reading and discussions or sharing personal insights or recommending books to students (McKool & Gespass, 2009).

YOUR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Being a lifelong learner requires effort and attention. Setting annual goals and evaluating at the end of the year are necessary activities in the journey to a successful and satisfying career. Goals are determined with the guidance of a supervisor and/or mentor. When goals are finalized, specific objectives must be determined if goals are to be achieved. Consider the following categories when designing goals: (a) Improve skills and abilities as a teacher that will impact learning, (b) Develop leadership skills to better serve the profession, and (c) Enhance personal development through acquiring new skills, abilities, and knowledge to bring satisfaction and work balance.

The profession needs exemplary teachers who desire to impact student learning, who have a vision for the profession and desire to be a leader in the profession. A business educator's willingness to learn, stay up to date, and serve his/her profession are essential, and well-developed goals and objectives are the cornerstone of this career development.

SUMMARY

Engaging in lifelong professional development is essential for the business educator. Professional development opportunities available to business educators include (a) personal learning networks, (b) professional organizations, (c) professional and business literature, (d) experiences such as travel, internships, and sabbaticals, (e) college coursework that leads to advanced degrees, license renewal, or additional certifications, and (f) in-service and individual professional development. Business educators must plan for professional development by becoming aware of the many opportunities and developing goals and objectives that will impact students, their careers, and the profession.

REFERENCES

- Acree, L. (2016). *Seven lessons learned from implementing micro-credentials*. Raleigh, NC: Friday Institute for Educational Innovation at the NC State University College of Education.
- Association for Career and Technical Education (ACTE). (2017). *About Association for Career and Technical Education (ACTE)*. Retrieved from <http://www.acteonline.org>

- Association for Research in Business Education (ARBE). (2017). *About Association for Research in Business Education (ARBE)*. Retrieved from <http://arberesearch.wixsite.com/arbe>
- Berns, A., Gonzalez, A., & Camacho, D. (2013). Game-like language learning in 3-D virtual environments. *Computers and Education*, 60, 210-220. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2012.07.001>
- Berry, B., Johnson, D., & Montgomery, D. (2005). The power of teacher leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 62(5), 56-60.
- Bruce, C. D., Esmonde, I., Ross, J., Dookie, L., & Beatty, R. (2010). The effects of sustained classroom-embedded teacher professional learning on teacher efficacy and related student achievement. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1598-1608. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2010.06.011
- Buczynski, S., & Hansen, C. B. (2010). Impact of professional development on teacher practice: Uncovering connections. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 26, 599-607.
- Clark, C., & Rumbold, K. (2006). *Reading for pleasure: A research overview*. London, England: National Literacy Trust.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2009). Teacher learning: What matters? *Educational Leadership*, 66(5), 46.
- Fidalgo-Blanco, A., Martinez-Nuñez, M., Borrás-Gene, O., & Sanchez-Medina, J. J. (2016). Micro flip teaching - An innovative model to promote the active involvement of students. *Computers In Human Behavior*. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2016.07.060
- Fowler, K., & Thomas, V. L. (2015). Creating a professional blog: The impact of student learning styles on perceptions of learning. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 37(3), 181-189. doi: 10.1177/0273475315585824
- Frommer, D., & Angelova, K. (2010, January). Chart of the day: One third of U.S. 11-year-olds have cellphones. *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <http://www.businessinsider.com/chart-of-the-day-us-children-who-own-mobile-phones-2010-1>
- Gehrke, R. S. (Fall, 2005); Poor schools poor students successful teachers. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 14-17.
- Hirsh, S. (2011). What makes a good teacher? **The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation digs for answers with its measures of effective teaching project**. *Journal of Staff Development*, 32(6), 18-22.
- History of the Edcamp movement. (n.d.). *Edcamp foundation*. Retrieved from <http://www.edcamp.org/learn-more>
- Hosler, M. M. (2003). The foundations of business education. In M. H. Rader (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education in the 21st century: NBEA yearbook* (No. 43, pp. 1-16). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- International Society for Business Education (SIEC-ISBE). (2017). *Société Internationale pour l'Enseignement Commercial-International Society for Business Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.siec-isbe.org>
- International Society for Technology in Education. (2017). *ISTE Standards for Educators*. Retrieved from <http://www.iste.org/standards/standards/for-educators>.

- Johnson, B. (2014). Why quality professional development for teachers matters. *Edutopia*. Retrieved from <https://www.edutopia.org/blog/why-quality-professional-development-teachers-matters-ben-johnson>
- Killion, J., & Hirsh, S. (2011). The elements of effective teaching: **Professional learning moves vision, framework, and performance standards into action**. *Journal of Staff Development*, 32(6), 10–16.
- Kolb, D. A. (2015). *Experiential learning* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Kuznekoff, J. H., and Titsworth, S. (2013). The impact of mobile phone usage on student learning. *Communication Education*, 62(3), p. 233-252. doi:10.1080/03634523.2013.767917.
- Laurillard, D. (2016). The educational problem that MOOCs could solve: Professional development for teachers of disadvantaged students. *Research in Learning Technology*, 24. doi:10.3402/rlt.v24.29369
- Lenhart, A. (2015). Teens, social media and technology overview 2015: Smartphones facilitate shifts in communication landscape for teens. *Pew Research Center*. Retrieved from <http://www.pewinternet.org/2015/04/09/teens-social-media-technology-2015/>
- McKool, S. S., & Gespass, S. (2009). Does Johnny's reading teacher love to read? How teachers' personal reading habits affect instructional practices. *Literacy Research & Instruction*, 48(3), 264. doi:10.1080/19388070802443700
- Moore, K. M. (2011). *Effective instructional strategies: From theory to practice* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- National Association for Business Teacher Education (NABTE). (2017). *The National Association for Business Teacher Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.nabte.org>
- National Business Education Association (NBEA). (2017). *NBEA Online*. Retrieved from <http://www.nbea.org>
- Pi Omega Pi. (2017). *Pi Omega Pi*. Retrieved from <http://www.piomegapi.org>
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2013a). *This we believe about the importance of professional associations to the future of business education* (Statement No. 92). Retrieved from https://www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement92_2013.pdf
- Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education. (2013b). *This we believe about generational issues in education and the workforce* (Statement No. 93). Retrieved from https://www.nbea.org/newsite/curriculum/documents/PolicyStatement93_2013.pdf
- Sawchuk, S. (2016). Can 'micro-credentialing' salvage teacher PD? *Edweek.org*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2016/03/30/can-micro-credentialing-salvage-teacher-pd.html>
- Scott, J. C. (2008). Lifelong professional development. In M. H. Rader (Ed.), *Effective methods of teaching business education in the 21st century: NBEA yearbook* (No. 43, pp. 278–289). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.

- Shumack, K. A., & Forde, C. M. (2012). Professional association members: Extending the community of practice. In W. Stitt-Gohdes (Ed.), *Trends & issues in business education: NBEA yearbook* (No. 50, pp. 174–187). Reston, VA: National Business Education Association.
- Sterbenz, C. (2015, December). Here's who comes after Generation Z—And they'll be the most transformative age group ever. *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <http://www.businessinsider.com/generation-alpha-2014-7-2>.

