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2020 Appalachian Research in Business Symposium

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It is our pleasure to present the Proceedings of the 7th Annual Appalachian Research in Business Symposium from the 2020 conference. The conference was to be held March 26-27, hosted by the College of Business and Technology at Eastern Kentucky University. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the in-person conference had to be cancelled due to travel restrictions and for safety. In lieu of an in-person conference, authors of blind peer-reviewed, accepted papers were offered the opportunity to share their research through the online publication of these proceedings.

The Appalachian Research in Business Symposium provides a venue for presenting new research, discovering contemporary ideas, and building connections among scholars at Appalachian State University, Eastern Kentucky University, East Tennessee State University, Marshall University, Radford University, and Western Carolina University.

Acknowledgements:
The Conference Committee for the 2020 Appalachian Research in Business Symposium wishes to extend our gratitude to all authors, conference contributors, and volunteers for their time and effort in service to the conference. While we were disappointed not be able to see our colleagues in person for the 2020 Appalachian Research in Business Symposium, we are grateful for the flexibility and kindness shown as we were forced to adapt.
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Diversity, Multiculturalism, and Inclusivity: The Samurai Way

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Diversity, multiculturalism, inclusivity, cultural competence

Introduction

Today’s employers are demanding employees who can operate in an increasingly multicultural environment. To attain a racially cognizant campus climate, institutions need to leverage all the resources and skills that are available at their disposal. It is essential to recognize that a racially aware campus climate is an idealized goal that requires commitment on the part of administration, faculty, and students. However, the first step is to have an appropriate assessment of the current campus resources and capabilities relating to multiculturalism and diversity.
Published in the early 20th century by Inazō Nitobe, Bushido: The Soul of Japan identified the ‘Seven Virtues’ to which Samurai adhered. In sequence, the virtues are “rectitude, courage, benevolence, politeness, honesty, honor, and loyalty.” Utilized by Samurai to expedite mastery of self-control and discipline, the virtues lie at the heart of modern perceptions regarding Samurai practices. In the utilization of Bushido’s seven virtues, the Samurai code has been renewed to contribute towards the development of personal and social awareness, communication skills, intra- and interpersonal relationships, and sources of empowerment need within the society (Pambianchi-Gold, 2019).

An AACSB-International accredited comprehensive regional institution of higher education publicly supports diversity in its strategic plan, core values, and diversity action plan. Thus, the commitment to diversity for the School of Business is evident in its mission, values, and student learning outcomes. However, the perspective of students concerning diversity within the School of Business has not been investigated. This research provides an analysis from the School of Business’ Diversity, Multiculturalism, and Inclusivity survey. The purpose of the study was to identify the School of Business seniors’ attitudes, behaviors, and experiences regarding diversity, multiculturalism, and inclusivity. The following research questions have been formulated and will be answered in this research:

1. Attitudes and Actions Related to Diversity.
2. College as a Welcoming Environment.

Literature Overview

Enyeart Smith, Wessel, and Polacek (2017) conducted a study to analyze perceptions of self-reflection and attitudes among students, faculty, and staff and to identify strategies to increase opportunities for improved cultural competence in higher education academic environment. The study reported positive comments about faculty efforts regarding cultural competency. However, students did provide suggestions to help faculty continue cultural competency efforts. Some of those suggestions included "work[jing] with international students and diverse local populations to increase understanding of cultural backgrounds, customs and practice" (Enyeart Smith et al., 2017, p. 30). It was interesting to note that students “recognized that diversity is not just race or ethnicity and understood diversity to include many other factors, such as sexual orientation, learning abilities, and physical and mental skills (Enyeart Smith et al., 2017, p. 30). Besides, students indicated that faculty members should approach cultural competency through students' perceptions, such as volunteer and service opportunities.

Harpalani (2017) provided a comprehensive analysis of safe spaces and the importance of diversity. He stated, “Through supporting students of color and providing unique educational opportunities for all students, safe spaces play an important role in achieving and maintaining these benefits” (Harpalani, 2017, p. 166). He spent a great deal of time focusing on safe spaces for minority students. Also, he provided an analysis from the minority student perspective. Often at times, teaching about diversity is focused on how to make White students comfortable in learning about their privilege. However, while it is crucial to have White students feel comfortable enough
talking about these sorts of issues, educators should not wholly focus their attention on White students. Instead, the focus should be on bridging relationships between White students and students of color.

Mitchell and Vandergrift (2014) explored how faculty members can increase White students' engagement in issues related to diversity and multiculturalism. They cautioned about students being "color-blind." It is essential for faculty to support students' soft skill development to prevent colorblindness in the classroom. By helping students recognize their differences, faculty will be able to support students' interpersonal development by assisting them in understanding each other's perspectives. To encourage diversity work in the classroom, this could be a foundational aspect of implementing diversity discussions in the classroom.

Methodology

The study was undertaken to understand the School of Business seniors' perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and experiences regarding diversity and multiculturalism at a comprehensive regional institution of higher education. Three hundred and seventy-two seniors were identified and invited to participate in the study by completing a web survey sent through an email invitation. One hundred and twenty-four seniors responded to the survey for a response rate of 33 percent.

Most of the respondents were female, heterosexual, White/Caucasian, and traditionally aged college students ranging from 18-24 years of age. The majority reported that they were not first-generation college students. As expected, the majority of students enrolled full-time and lived off-campus. Only a few students were registered with the Disability Access Services. The most selected majors were Marketing, General Business, Accounting, and Management.

Results and Implications

The analysis of diversity, multiculturalism, and inclusivity has been divided into the following three categories: (a) attitudes and actions related to diversity, (b) college as a welcoming environment, and (c) support services.

Attitudes and Actions Related to Diversity

Most students indicated that the climate in the School of Business classroom is accepting of who they are. Students expressed that racial/ethnic diversity in the classroom allows for a wider variety of experiences to be shared. Likewise, most students reported that the faculty creates an environment in the classroom that is conducive to the free and open expression of opinions and beliefs and encourages students of different racial and ethnic backgrounds to participate equally in the classroom discussion and learning. Students confirmed that the College has visible leadership in fostering respect for diversity. These responses provide evidence of the Samurai virtues of rectitude, benevolence, and politeness.

Most students indicated that having racially/ethnically diverse peers have increased their learning. Students were also in agreement that the interaction among the students of different racial/ethnic
backgrounds in the classroom exposes them to perspectives with which they disagree or do not understand.

Students were asked questions about their effort to stop prejudices/discrimination against other ethnicities. Generally, students reported they would refuse to forward email messages with comments or jokes that are derogatory to any group or culture or sex and would get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals. When a discriminatory or stereotypical comment is made, students generally indicated that they would challenge those who commented. About half reported that they would take action to have offensive graffiti removed, reflecting rectitude, benevolence, and courage.

**College as a Welcoming Environment**

Students overwhelmingly agreed that they felt a sense of acceptance and belongingness at this College. The majority of students reported that the faculty and staff are respectful of people of different religions, indicating benevolence and politeness. Students were generally satisfied with their experience and environment regarding diversity. They were also in agreement that students at this College are respectful of people of different religions, races, and cultures. Most students confirmed that the College environment encourages them to develop an appreciation for diversity.

Overall students reported that the following pre- and business core courses have helped them learn the most about diversity: MKT 300 - Principles of Marketing, MGT 300 - Principles of Management, CCT 300W - Managerial Reports, GBU 204 - Legal and Ethical Environments of Business, and GBU 480: Business Strategy. Also, these major courses have helped them become more aware of diversity: MKT 400: International Marketing, GBU 101 - Introduction to Business, GBU 201: International Business, and MKT 310: Personal Selling. Additionally, the top-rated venues where students reported learning about or becoming more aware of diversity were from friends, at work, from talking with friends, from their family, and campus involvement.

The majority of students indicated that they had made exceptional/moderate progress in each of the twelve areas of Knowledge, Skills, and Dispositions related to working in diverse and multicultural workforces since first entering the School of Business. The top-rated progress made were in their ability to function effectively in a diverse team environment, apply critical thinking strategies to analyze diversity-related issues in business, develop cultural competency and respect for people from different backgrounds, and demonstrate acceptance and appreciation of diverse backgrounds, ideas, and perspectives for an inclusive environment.

**Support Services**

The majority of students reported being aware of the programs to increase awareness and respect for diversity, opportunities to relate and interact with diverse persons on campus, and services addressing the needs of persons with disabilities. Such programs are supportive of the virtues of rectitude, benevolence, and loyalty. Contrary to these findings, students indicated a lack of awareness for services addressing the needs of gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals.
This research provides an insight that diversity, multiculturalism, and inclusivity efforts require planning and commitment on the part of administration, faculty, and students. While limitations and biases are innate within such endeavors, the study encourages a necessary dialogue. The study has deduced areas of opportunity within the program to meet students’ needs around diversity better.

**Conclusions**

An overwhelming number of students feel that College leadership is visible and able to foster respect around diversity. Specific courses offered positively contribute to student population awareness around diversity and inclusivity. Student responses provide clear evidence of attention being paid to most of the ‘Seven Virtues’ in the college. These, in turn, support the ‘improvement of personal and social awareness, communication skills, and intra- and interpersonal relationships’ as indicated by Pambianchi-Gold (2019). Bushido’s Seven Virtues provided a context for how work cultures may be shaped by the cultural values held by members within the organization, the organization’s values and mission, and to recognize opportunities and pitfalls, and skills to develop cultural fluency to navigate between and across cultures fluidly and responsively (Chin & Trimble, 2014).

The following is a limitation that should be noted for this study: White/Caucasian and traditionally aged college students (18-24 years of age) were overrepresented in the respondent sample. Therefore, data were broadly generalizable to EKU business students. However, when considering specific populations of students, these results most directly reflect the experiences of undergraduate, senior students, and traditionally aged college students due to their overrepresentation in the respondent sample.

While dimensions of diversity are explored for seniors in the School of Business, future studies are needed to compare how the concepts of diversity change as students progress through the program, determine the impact of culturally relevant pedagogy within online undergraduate and graduate courses, and implement course-embedded assessments in those courses identified as enriching students’ diversity experiences.

**References**


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multiculturalism, and diversity in the business school. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 25(1), 25-43. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/271822498_Student_Perceptions_of_Internationalization_Multiculturalism_and_Diversity_in_the_Business_School?enrichId=rgreq-522e428a6d690909f2d300bb67641db4-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdlOzI3MTgyMjQ5ODtBUzoyNjM0OTExNTE5ODY2ODhAMTQzOTgzMjU5NTAwNg%3D%3D&el=1_x_2&_esc=publicationCoverPdf

Cracking the Ethical Awareness Code

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Key words:
Business ethics, corporate code of ethics, ethics education, ethical awareness

Introduction
Recent corporate scandals and ethical failures have raised concerns on the ability of business schools to educate future ethical leaders. Business communities agreed that unethical behavior in U.S. corporations had been a result of amassing excessive profit through greed. A lapse in ethical behavior tends to result in both reputational damage and financial consequences to a corporation. Consequently, incidents involving lapses in ethical behavior are detrimental to corporate goals. The purpose of the research was to assess business students' attitudes, behaviors, and experiences regarding ethics scenarios from the following areas of corporate codes of ethics: accurate accounting records, conflict of interest, confidential information, proper use of company assets, compliance with laws, competition and fair dealing, trading on inside information, antinepotism
policy, and reporting an illegal and unethical behavior. The following research questions have been formulated and will be answered in this research:

1. Exposure to business ethics courses positively influences business students’ ethical awareness.
2. Exposure to Ethics Awareness Week programs positively influences business students’ ethical choices.

**Literature Overview**

The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB, 2018) established the following guidelines to prepare graduates for business and management careers:

1. **General Skills Areas** - Ethical understanding and reasoning (able to identify ethical issues and address the issues in a socially responsible manner).
2. **General Business Knowledge Areas** - Social responsibility, including sustainability, diversity, and ethical behavior and approaches to management.
3. **Technology Agility** - Ethical use and dissemination of data, including privacy and security of data.

Schools should assume great flexibility in fashioning curricula to meet their missions and to fit with the specific circumstances of particular programs. Some of these topics may be emphasized for particular learning needs and others may be de-emphasized. Specifically, it is up to schools to translate these general areas into expected competencies consistent with the degree program learning goals and students served.

Yet, unethical behavior exhibited by businesses has continued, usually attributed to profit maximization. Corporate scandals from Enron to Madoff seem to occur with alarming regularity. Volkswagen recently faced scrutiny about a product that was placed in their diesel engines that was not exactly up to expected regulatory standards. These examples illuminate the importance of ethics education within the business curriculum (Dzurnanin, Shortridge, & Smith, 2013).

It is crucial to improve the effectiveness of business ethics and corporate social responsibility (CSR) education, in terms of its impact on business students’ awareness of ethical issues. For example, Lau (2010) found that both ethical discernment and moral reasoning were heightened when business students were presented with questionnaires and scenarios relating to situations where ethical awareness and moral reasoning are contemplated.

**Methodology**

The data for this report were collected through questionnaires distributed to undergraduate business students at a comprehensive regional institution of higher education. To obtain quantitative data to be analyzed for this research, a survey was constructed through Qualtrics and posted on the Ethics Awareness Week Blackboard site. Nine hundred thirty-two students were invited to participate in the study through email that had a direct link, enabling participants of the study to complete the questionnaire online.

Four hundred twenty-seven out of 932 responses were received by the deadline for a 45.9 percent response rate for the pre-test survey. Four hundred and fifteen responses were received by the deadline for a 44.5 percent response rate for the post-test survey. From the post-test sample taken (n=415), 96% of students were full-time between the ages of 18-24 (92%), predominantly white.
(81%), living off-campus (65%), and not first-generation college students (76%). Furthermore, the majority of students reported to have majored in Management (22%), while General Business was second (21%), and Accounting was third (19%).

Results and Implications
Findings from the survey suggested that business ethics courses positively influence business students’ ethical awareness. Also, the Ethics Awareness Week program positively influences business students' ethical choices. For example, after participating in Ethics Awareness events, students indicate they are less likely to comply with a boss’s request to submit a non-business-related purchase order. Additionally, students indicate they are less likely to use company resources for personal purposes.

This research provides an insight into the role that business ethics education and program play in creating ethical awareness. More specifically, this research explores how students’ ethical knowledge can potentially predict future (un)ethical behavior in the workplace. Results indicate students who engage in discussion and in activities about ethics demonstrate a change in attitude in the proper use of company resources.

Conclusion
Several practical implications can be derived from this research. Business schools should re-examine the teaching of ethics education to ensure students demonstrate responsibility to themselves as ethical professionals. Business educators should include case studies of ethical and unethical scenarios where students are exposed to a decision-making process to make informed decisions.

The following is a limitation that should be noted for this study: although ensured of the confidentiality of the questionnaires, students may be hesitant to admit acts of unethical behaviors while completing the survey. Future studies examining student perceptions of ethical awareness and ethics education may consider surveying whether the students understand the broad range of potential integrity violations, as student misconceptions could factor into the data.

References


Popular Music Concert Attendance by Baby Boomers and Generation Xers: A Preliminary Exploratory Qualitative Examination

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Key words:
music concerts; attendance; motivations; Baby Boomers; Generation X

Introduction

As we move into the third decade of the 21st Century, a generational shift continues in the United States. Population figures for the country from the U.S. Census Bureau as of July 1, 2018 show that Generation Z (born 1997 and later) was the largest demographic cohort with 90.55 million people and Millennials (born 1981 through 1996) was third with 72.06 million people. These figures exceed or are comparable to both the Baby Boomers (born 1946 through 1964) and Generation X (born 1965 through 1980) demographic cohorts, who have 72.56 million people and 65.45 million people, respectively. Nonetheless, despite the increasing importance of Generation Z and Millennials to economic activity and to marketers now and in the future, the continued importance of the Baby Boomers and Generation X to the music industry and concert revenues is shown by recent data.

According to Pollstar (2019), the top five most successful worldwide tours in 2019 based on gross revenues (U.S.) were Pink ($215.2 million for 68 shows), Elton John ($212.0 million for 112 shows), Ed Sheeran ($211.7 million for 51 shows), Metallica ($179.0 million for 48 shows), and The Rolling Stones ($177.8 million for 16 shows). Like Elton John, Metallica, and The Rolling Stones, other artists that mostly appeal to Baby Boomer and/or Generation X concertgoers and had tours listed in Pollstar’s Top 20 list of worldwide tours in 2019 included Bon Jovi ($134.2 million for 31 shows), Fleetwood Mac ($112.2 million for 50 shows), Paul McCartney ($100.3 million for 29 shows), Bob Seger & The Silver Bullet Band ($97.0 million for 29 shows), KISS ($89.8 million for 74 shows), Phil Collins ($87.6 million for 30 shows), and Cher ($84.6 million for 68 shows). These figures indicate that despite the increased percentage of Generation Z and Millennials in the U.S. population, Baby Boomers and Generation Xers continue to be vitally important demographic cohorts for concert revenues and thus the music industry.
Literature Overview

Popular music concerts include a combination of economics and music as well as ritual and pleasure for performers as well as their audience (Shuker, 2008). Therefore, their importance is more substantial than simply providing benefits to those performing the music. With touring (live performance) being the largest income source for musical artists (DiCola, 2013), concerts and concert attendance are obviously important. After all, concerts allow potential fans to see the performers and hear their music and they not only facilitate purchases but also increase an artist’s likelihood of success by building their image, increasing their popularity, and enhancing their commercial and financial success and viability (Shuker, 2008). Moreover, the decision to attend a popular music concert will be influenced by an individual’s motivation to achieve a coveted need. Consequently, one’s motivations for attending live music performances could be associated with them coveting celebratory and hedonistic experiences, or the confirmation of their personal and group identity (Stone, 2009). The event motivation literature indicates that motivations will not only be nuanced, but will also be diverse and differ among individuals (Kulczynski, Baxter, & Young, 2016).

The motivations for popular music concert attendance from Kulczynski, Baxter, and Young (2016), which was not specific or solely relevant to Baby Boomers or Generation Xers, is provided in Table 1.

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<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
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<td>Nostalgia</td>
<td>To relive a period with happy personal associations, sentimental longing to relive the past, childhood memories (e.g., Roxette, Backstreet Boys, Aqua).</td>
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<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>The artistic admiration of the music and of the artists/bands technical skill (e.g., John Butler).</td>
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<td>Escape</td>
<td>Seeking distraction from everyday life and responsibilities (e.g., work and kids).</td>
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<td>Physical attractiveness of the artist(s)</td>
<td>Watching concerts because of the physical attractiveness or “sex appeal” of an individual artist/band member or band.</td>
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<td>Status enhancement</td>
<td>Competitive behavior, gaining “bragging rights,” and seeking to increase “fan” status as a consequence of attendance (e.g., More concerts = Bigger fan).</td>
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<td>Physical skill of the artist</td>
<td>The appreciation of the physical skill of the artist or the well-executed performance of the band.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>To interact and socialize with alike people, to feel part of a group with similar interests.</td>
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<td>Experience new and concert-specific music</td>
<td>Hearing music that has not been released, where attendance is the only means of exposure. Hearing covers, acoustic sets etc. that can only be experienced at concerts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hero worship</td>
<td>Being in close proximity to celebrities, form of support and demonstration of dedication to music of artist/band. Can involve touching the artist and crying.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uninhibited behavior</td>
<td>Social behavior that may be unaccepted in a normal setting such as drinking, moshing, dancing and going crazy.</td>
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Table 1. Motivations for Popular Music Concert Attendance (Kulczynski, Baxter, & Young, 2016, p. 243)

Relevant to this research study is a theory and a principle or concept from the field of sociology. The theory is Durkheim’s theory of collective effervescence, while the principle or concept is the principle of homophily. According to Benzecry and Collins (2014), collective effervescence is the process of feeling excitement when in close resonance to other participants. In addition, Hopkins,
Reicher, Khan, Tewari, Srinivasan, and Stevenson (2015) found that perceptions of shared identity among individuals had an indirect effect on positive event experiences. As for the principle of homophily, this occurs culturally when people convene and engage in events based on like interests and is often captured with the well-known phrase “birds of a feather flock together” (e.g., Mark, 1998; Mark, 2003; Zhou, Xu, & Zhao, 2018). Based on the definitions and descriptions from the extant literature, it would seem that both Durkheim’s theory of collective effervescence and the principle of homophily are particularly relevant to the focus of this research study, especially when the focus is on members of the same generation(s) or demographic cohort(s) (i.e., Baby Boomers and Generation Xers).

Methodology

For the preliminary research already completed, this researcher took a participant observation approach. The approach involved attending 22 music concerts by a diverse group of 26 major musical artists from various musical genres (i.e., pop, rock, heavy metal, country, etc.) during the 2019 calendar year. However, all were well-established musical artists that had been active for 25 or more years and thus appealed primarily (or at least strongly) to Baby Boomers and Generation Xers. The musical artists, along with the venues where they performed, are provided in chronological order in Table 2.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Date of Show</th>
<th>Musical Artist(s)</th>
<th>Venue (Location)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>March 1, 2019</td>
<td>KC &amp; The Sunshine Band</td>
<td>EKU Center for the Arts, Richmond, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>March 9, 2019</td>
<td>Metallica</td>
<td>KFC Yum! Center, Louisville, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>March 12, 2019</td>
<td>Ronnie Milsap</td>
<td>Lexington Opera House, Lexington, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>March 17, 2019</td>
<td>Christopher Cross</td>
<td>Manchester Music Hall, Lexington, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>March 31, 2019</td>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>EKU Center for the Arts, Richmond, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>April 6, 2019</td>
<td>Oak Ridge Boys</td>
<td>Renfro Valley Entertainment Center, Mount Vernon, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>June 1, 2019</td>
<td>Paul McCartney</td>
<td>Rupp Arena, Lexington, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>July 7, 2019</td>
<td>The Rolling Stones</td>
<td>Foxboro Stadium, Foxboro, MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>July 20, 2019</td>
<td>Hootie &amp; The Blowfish / Barenaked Ladies</td>
<td>Riverbend Music Center, Cincinnati, OH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>July 26, 2019</td>
<td>Air Supply</td>
<td>The Rose Music Center at The Heights, Dayton, OH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>August 13, 2019</td>
<td>Melissa Etheridge</td>
<td>Lexington Opera House, Lexington, KY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>August 23, 2019</td>
<td>.38 Special</td>
<td>Niswonger Performing Arts Center, Greeneville, TN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Only major artists are listed, with some individual shows including multiple well-known artists touring together, some involving largely unknown opening acts not listed, and some not including an opening act.
Table 2. Concerts by Musical Artists Attended (2019)

The research activities at each of the concerts involved the collection of primary data. The data was collected through close observation of the concert-related activities and behaviors by attendees around and inside the concert venues, listening to public (i.e., non-private) conversations by attendees, and engaging in brief conversations with multiple attendees at each show, which included the taking of contemporaneous notes to chronicle all of these activities. Overall, these efforts not only resulted in qualitative data being collected from the observations of dozens of attendees, but also from conversations with 35 attendees. The researcher then compared their findings to the motivations for popular music concert attendance from Kulczynski, Baxter, and Young (2016), which, as mentioned earlier, were not specific or solely relevant to Baby Boomers or Generation Xers, and was provided in Table 1.

Results and Implications

Using the above list of motivations from Kulczynski, Baxter, and Young (2016) as a foundation and based on observations and/or brief informal discussions with some of the other attendees by this researcher, strong support was observed among Baby Boomers and Generation Xers in attendance for the existence of five of the motivations on the list: (1) Nostalgia, (2) Aesthetics, (3) Escape, (4) Physical skill of the artist, and (5) Uninhibited behavior. Weaker support (if any) and even contradictory evidence existed for the existence of four of the other motivations on the list – (1) Status enhancement, (2) Social interaction, (3) Experience new and concert-specific music, and (4) Hero worship. At best, each was a secondary motivation for some of the attendees, with Status enhancement and Hero worship appearing to be much stronger at shows involving iconic artists (e.g., Oak Ridge Boys, Paul McCartney, The Rolling Stones, Metallica, KISS, Bob Seger & The Silver Bullet Band, Elton John) compared to popular but less successful or revered artists (e.g., KC & The Sunshine Band, Ronnie Milsap, Christopher Cross, The B-52s, The Zombies, America, Kansas). No support was found for Physical attractiveness of the artist(s) being a
motivation of Baby Boomers and Generation Xers in attendance at any of the concerts. This was not surprising to this researcher due to the composition of the audiences at these concerts, including the current age (i.e., most were 40 and older), life stage, priorities, and social circumstances of the attendees.

Conclusion

The preliminary exploratory qualitative research activities described throughout this paper were utilized to examine the motivations of Baby Boomers and Generation Xers when attending music concerts, though their behaviors at the concerts were also observed. As indicated by the aforementioned touring revenues, this is an important topic to business and marketing professionals involved with the music industry, especially those involved with the production and promotion of concert tours by artists performing live music for paying audiences. As for the limitations of this research study, the data gathering techniques utilized could have been more formal and structured. In addition, the concerts attended were not randomly selected but selected based on this researcher’s musical preferences and his availability.

Future research activities should leverage the preliminary results of the research already conducted and discussed in this paper and include the conducting of multiple future qualitative and quantitative research studies involving diverse research methodologies and data collection techniques, especially at a substantial number of future music concerts. Specifically, more formal and in-depth qualitative and quantitative research methods and data collection techniques should be utilized for future research studies, which should employ different and/or multiple research methods and data collection techniques. For example, as presented, described, and discussed by Grewal and Levy (2018), focus groups, observation, and in-depth one-on-one interviews are among the qualitative research methods that can be utilized in the first set of largely exploratory research activities, while surveys administered in person and/or online are among the quantitative research methods can be utilized in the confirmatory research studies that will follow.

References


Daily Prevention Focus and CWB: The Moderating Role of Prosocial Identity

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Key words:  
Prevention focus, prosocial identity, CWB

Introduction

Research examining regulatory focus suggests it is an important predictor for many work outcomes (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012; Neubert, Carlson, Roberts, Chonko, & Kacmar, 2008; Whitford & Moss, 2009). Theory suggests that fluctuations in in regulatory focus can impact employee outcomes (Koopmann, Lanaj, Boyce, & Campana, 2016), but there is little empirical evidence of this proposition. Moreover, there is little evidence that the influence of fluctuations in regulatory focus on work outcomes are influenced by other employee individual differences. The purpose of the present study was to test the proposition that daily shifts in prevention focus influence daily shifts in CWB, and this relationship is moderated by employee prosocial identity.
Literature Overview

**Regulatory Focus.** An individual with a high level of prevention focus is more likely to act cautiously and avoid any behaviors that might threaten job security (Higgins, 1997). Because of this, prevention-focused employees may be less likely to act in ways that violate company norms and expectations (Lanaj et al., 2012). As behaviors that fall into the category of workplace deviance are behaviors not sanctioned by the organization, individuals high in prevention focus may be less likely to partake in these activities. Indeed, Lanaj and colleagues (2012) found a negative relationship between prevention focus and CWB, and Neubert et al. (2008) found a negative relationship between prevention focus and deviant work behavior.

*Hypothesis 1: Prevention focus will be negatively related to CWB.*

**Prosocial Identity.** According to identity theory, employees are motivated to reinforce valued aspects of their identity (Ashforth & Mael 1989; Shamir, 1990; Swann et al., 2004). Thus, employees with a prosocial identity are less likely to engage in counterproductive work behavior (CWB) as a means of validating and reinforcing their prosocial identities as caring and giving individuals (Grant, 2007; Grant et al., 2008).

*Hypothesis 2: Prosocial identity will be negatively related to CWB.*

**Regulatory Focus and Prosocial Identity.** Prosocial identity may also moderate the relationship between daily prevention focus and CWB. Individuals with a prevention focus are more likely to focus on negative events and information, making them more likely to attempt to avoid the retaliation that could stem from deviant behavior. Because of this, it is likely that prosocial identity will moderate the relationship between prevention focus and CWB, such that for employees higher in prosocial identity, there will be a significantly stronger relationship between prevention focus and CWB.

*Hypothesis 3: Prosocial identity will moderate the relationship between prevention focus and CWB.*

Methodology

**Participants and Procedure.** Participants worked in a variety of occupations, including food service, retail, and financial services. The mean age of participants was 24.44 years (SD = 6.62) and the sample was 62.3% male. Participants’ supervisors were 54.00% male and an average of 40.10 (SD = 12.85) years old. Data were collected from 54 matched pairs of employed individuals and their supervisors. Participants and their supervisors completed daily surveys as part of a leadership development program at a southeastern U.S. university.

We used an experience sampling methodology to collect data for this study (e.g., Koopman et al., 2016). First, prior to the start of the program, participants completed a one-time background survey, which assessed demographic information and prosocial identity. Participants then received a packet with two weeks’ worth of surveys that were to be completed by themselves and their supervisors. Employed participants provided daily self-reports of prevention focus, and their supervisors provided daily reports of the employee’s CWB.
Measures. Daily prevention focus. We used three items adapted from the prevention focus subscale of the Work Regulatory Focus Scale (WRFS; Neubert et al., 2008).

Daily CWB. Three items adapted from the organizational deviance subscale of Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) Workplace Deviance Scale was used to measure CWB.

Prosocial identity. We measured prosocial identity using three items from Grant, Dutton, and Ross (2008).

Data Analysis. Because of the nested nature of our data (daily observations nested within individuals), analyses were conducted using the R statistical programming language, specifically the lmer function for multilevel modeling contained in the lme4 package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). This approach accounted for the nested data structure resulting from measurements across multiple days of participation in data collection per individual for first-level, within-subjects variables of prevention focus ($M = 3.97, SD = 0.75$) and CWB ($M = 1.66, SD = 0.76$). A second-level, between-subjects variable of prosocial identity ($M = 5.77, SD = 0.71$) was included in the model as a potential moderator of Prevention Focus’s effect on CWBs. Additional descriptive statistics for these variables are found in Table 1. Listwise deletion was used in preparing data for analysis; results are based only on data from participants that completed all surveys across the study. Grand-mean centering was used to adjust for significant study variable intercorrelations, as seen in Table 2 (Finch et al., 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>min</th>
<th>max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CWBs</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention Focus</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosocial Identity</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CWBs</th>
<th>Prevention Focus</th>
<th>Prosocial Identity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CWBs</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention Focus</td>
<td>-0.437 ($&lt;.001$)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosocial Identity</td>
<td>-0.239 ($&lt;.001$)</td>
<td>0.076 (.038)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Computed correlation used Pearson-method with listwise-deletion; p-values printed in parentheses.

Table 2. Intercorrelations of Study Variables
Results and Implications

The use of a multilevel model was justified by using the ICC of a fitted one-way ANOVA with random effects to calculate a root design effect of 3.00 (Finch, Bolin, & Kelley, 2014). Improved fit statistics comparing the proposed interaction model to the baseline model can be found in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Baseline Model</th>
<th>Interaction Model</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention Focus</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosocial Identity</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention Focus: Prosocial Identity</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Random Effects

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma^2$</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\tau_{00}$</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>ID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICC</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>ID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>753</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIC</td>
<td>1197.634</td>
<td>1128.311</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log-Likelihood</td>
<td>-595.817</td>
<td>-558.155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Study Model Summaries

**Tests of Hypotheses.** An inverse relationship was expected between the first-level, within-subjects variables. This hypothesis was supported by a negative association between the outcome variable CWB and predictor variable prevention focus ($b = -0.33, SE = 0.04, p < 0.001$); those lower in prevention focus were associated with having participated in more CWBs. A secondary hypothesis anticipated a significant moderating effect of prosocial identity on the relationship between prevention focus and CWB. Our analyses found this moderation to be significant ($b = 0.13, SE = 0.05, p = 0.01$), supporting a stronger effect of prevention focus on CWB outcomes in the case of higher levels for prosocial identity. Additionally, a main effect of prosocial identity on CWB was found to be significant ($b = -0.24, SE = 0.10, p = 0.02$); higher frequencies of CWB were predicted by lower scores on prosocial identity.

The present study aimed to understand the relationships between prevention focus, prosocial identity, and CWB, including the moderating effect of prosocial identity on prevention focus in predicting levels of CWB. The study’s design allowed for analysis of longitudinal data, providing information about the daily-level negative direct relationship that was supported between the prevention focus and CWB. The incorporation of a second-level variable, prosocial identity, with
the longitudinal prevention focus and CWB variables led to the interpretation of relationships that are reliant on the variation of effects across individuals and correlations of observations over time for each individual.

**Conclusion**

The results of the present study further emphasize the utility of multilevel models and longitudinal data analysis in organizational research. Acknowledging individual variance and behavioral trends across time contributes to reduced error in evaluating the effects of interest so that the results may more accurately inform application of the information (Finch et al., 2015). Thus, our results provide a more reliable estimate of the relationship between prevention focus and CWB, as well as highlighting the importance of individual differences in the influence of daily shifts in regulatory focus on work outcomes.

One implication of this study is the possibility of the significant moderator, prosocial identity, being considered along with prevention focus data to more effectively contribute to reduction of CWB. This study may also inform further research investigating the functions by which prosocial identity moderates the relationship between prevention focus and CWB.

Further research should be conducted to replicate our findings, as well as test for the influence of other possible moderators.

**References**


Community Characteristics as Predictors of Disaster Recovery

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Key words:
Disaster Recovery, Community Reconstruction, and Resiliency

Introduction
While the U.S. is still recovering from the costliest Hurricane Season since record keeping initiated in 1815, a noticeable gap in the literature exists surrounding one of the most important funding sources available for property owners in the wake of a natural disaster - the U.S. Small Business Administration Disaster Assistance Loan. Applying Josephson and Marshall’s (2016) conceptual framework and community-level data available from the U.S. Census Bureau, this analysis of community characteristics and U.S. Small Business Disaster Assistance Loans sought in the wake of Hurricane Irma might better inform future disaster preparation budget allocation and preparedness.

Literature Overview
Hurricanes are certainly not a new global phenomenon. Neoteric evidence suggests that oceans are warming, creating a catalyst for increasing hurricane ferocity. As hurricane ferocity increases, understanding funding sources in the aftermath of a hurricane “shock” is an important component in rebuilding, reconstruction, and understanding overall community-level resiliency. Hurricanes and tropical storms, cause on average $81M damage annually, nearly 70% more in damage costs than the average cost of flooding, the second most damaging event type (Miao, et al, 2018).

Early research by Haas, et. al (1977) suggests that reconstruction is “the longest phase of the disaster cycle.” In the case of natural disasters such as hurricanes, the reconstruction phase often overlaps with the beginning of the next hurricane season of tropical activity. Mejri, et al. (2017) expanded on Haas’s early conceptual foundation by developing a framework emphasizing the
importance of “being able to recover and reconstruct in a resilient way,” utilizing models to assist decision-makers in better understanding community “risk and vulnerability.”

Josephson and Marshall (2016) first considered variables which might be helpful to decision-makers in understanding Disaster Assistance Loan demand in Mississippi following the impact of Hurricane Katrina. At the time of the study, Hurricane Katrina had been the costliest hurricane in the history of the country causing an excess of $108 billion in damage and some 1,800 deaths. The scope of their work considered SBA Business Personal Disaster Assistance in Mississippi counties following Hurricane Katrina’s strike. Notably, the authors’ concluded, “future inquiry should focus on different types of disaster assistance sought in the wake of a natural disaster.” One such variable ripe for further inquiry is the U.S. Small Business Administration non-business-related Disaster Loan Assistance, one of the most utilized forms of disaster assistance other than personal insurance.

Methodology
This short paper seeks to further explore the seminal work of Josephson and Marshall by using regression modeling to empirically evaluate if U.S. Census community-level variables such as “median age,” “total housing units,” “housing units for seasonal, recreational, or occasional use,” “renter-occupied housing units,” “median household income” and “mean household income” (independent variables) were predictive of demand for U.S. SBA Disaster Assistance (dependent variable) sought in the wake of Hurricane Irma. Based on results from of previous inquiry, it would be expected that community-level characteristics will be predictive of Personal Disaster Assistance sought from the U.S. Small Business Administration in advance of a hurricane.

According to the National Hurricane Center, Hurricane Irma made landfall at 9:10 a.m. Sunday, September 10, 2017, Cudjoe Key, Monroe County. Using publicly available FY17 post-disaster data (“Total Approved SBA Loan Amount” requests) from the U.S. Small Business Administration Disaster Assistance Loan program yielded a sample of 48 approved U.S. SBA disaster assistance loans in a geographic area contiguous to Irma’s strike (n=48). Included Monroe County counties were: Long Key, Islamorada, Key Largo, Key West, Cudjoe Key, the epicenter of the strike, Big Pine, Summerland Key, Marathon Key, Key Colony, and Tavernier Key. The sample cases were then sorted by zip code, using the validated natural disaster sampling method of Josephson and Marshall (2016), spanning a disaster relief period of October 1, 2016 through September 30, 2017.

Conclusion
In support of the hypothesis, a regression analysis indicated that the independent variables MEAHOU (Mean Household Income), MEDHOU (Median Household Income), RNTROC (Housing Units for Seasonal, Recreational, or Occasional Use), HOSROS (Renter-Occupied Housing Units), and TOTHOU (Total Housing Units) were significant predictors of Personal Disaster Assistance sought from the U.S. Small Business Administration in advance of a hurricane at the p<.10 level. MEDAGE (Median Age) was shown not to be a significant predictor, p>.10. p<.10 is suggestive of a potential significant effect that warrants addition inquiry and most certainly, the expansion of the sample size to include Hurricane Irma U.S. Small Business Administration Disaster Assistance Loan requests of the same geographic region which may have been approved in FY18. Since the FY17 U.S. Small Business Administration Disaster Assistance Loan dataset provides data through September 30, 2017, we have termed this analysis a “Working
Paper” worthy of additional exploration. Additionally, use of a “Hierarchical Linear Modeling” and an “Inflated Zero” methodological approach might synthesize the findings even further with the potential expansion of the sample size. We intend to continue this exploration.

References


Putting Teeth into Antitrust: Using an Interdisciplinary Approach in the Classroom to Leverage the Fangs in Student Experience

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Key words:  
Antitrust, pedagogy, business education

Introduction

Antitrust law is an esoteric subject at any level of education. Few law schools offer courses in antitrust law and a small percentage of lawyers confront antitrust issues as a part of their practice. Beyond the Justice Department’s Antitrust Division and a handful of boutique law firms, antitrust law is largely a mystery. According to the American Bar Association website, membership of the bar surpassed 356,000 in 2019; a small fraction joined the organization’s Antitrust Law Section.

Antitrust itself is a confusing term to the modern student audience. Antitrust law, in the modern sense, has nothing to do with “trusts.” Rather, antitrust law is designed to protect the public from the dangers of a monopoly controlling a given market. While antitrust law is on its surface difficult to access, the implications of this policy have a practical import for everyone. Antitrust policy choices boil down to if, when, and how the government should intervene in the economy to rein in or, in the extreme, break-up companies that have “won” the market.

Specialized antitrust expertise is also underrepresented among business school faculty. Implicitly acknowledging that “business units come and go, but finance, HR, IT, marketing, legal, and R&D are forever” (Leinwand and Mainardi 2013, p. 1), AACSB accredited programs generally require some legal focused coursework for undergraduates. Antitrust policy choices shape our world and economy like few other areas of law. Antitrust dominates many of the conversations in current political debate (Hovenkamp 2019). It is no understatement to say that this has implications for
how society and governments will be organized, and how people will live. Calls are regularly made for antitrust considerations well beyond “consumer welfare” in order to address a vast array of goals involving diversity, equality, healthcare, employment, resource redistribution, the environment and more (Nachbar 2019; Steuer 2017). Particularly relevant to business schools are standardized tests of undergraduate business learning (i.e., ETS Major Fields Test), which include assessments of antitrust learning.

*Fortune* 500 CEO’s identified antitrust as the fourth most important legal issue impacting the firm (Massin 1990), emphasizing its relevance to all business students. Clearly, understanding this topic is crucial, and it is with good reason that the subject remains part of the undergraduate curriculum. Even so, basic law courses may slight antitrust owing to the breadth of topics in the course, while the major courses may tread all too lightly. Major professors commonly recognize that the mere utterance of “antitrust” reduces undergrads to a glassy-eyed, zombified state. Too, professors may be at least slightly sensitive to the utterance themselves, thereby favoring their own area of expertise to the exclusion of antitrust legalese. In sum, legal faculty likely overemphasize legal analysis with little attention to how it integrates across the business functions, while other business faculty likely focus on functional issues in their discipline, thereby treating legal issues as something outside the box (Leibman 1992; Petty 2000). Educators must push the boundaries of the traditional disciplines of finance, HR, IT, management, marketing, legal, and R&D, and adopt integrative approaches (Petty 2000). In sum, the significance of antitrust is largely at odds with its current treatment approach in the business school, as well as with its ability to inspire interest and engagement in the minds of students.

This research uses a qualitative design to investigate themes of student interest, understanding and concern related to antitrust in a law class that attempts to develop an integrated interdisciplinary approach to law and business applications. Specifically, study of the legal concept is combined with study of marketing concepts to leverage student experiences with the companies of Facebook, Amazon, Netflix and Google, commonly referred to as the “FANG” stocks. In so doing, we seek to advance pedagogy that builds interest and engagement in the critical area of anti-trust law and marketing application.

**Literature Review**

The cornerstone of federal antitrust law is the Sherman Act, adopted in 1890. In short, this law prohibits “restraint of trade.” Exactly what “restraint of trade” means has been the subject of much debate. Antitrust in premodern societies was limited in scope to eliminating practice of forestalling, hoarding and price-fixing, as these had the general effect of raising prices (Hawk 2018). Despite its age, the Sherman Act is still the guiding principal for modern actions. Thus, price fixing, bid-rigging and other clearly collusive arrangements are still prohibited. Beyond that, a “rule of reason,” or a fact specific test, is used to determine if conduct is or should be prohibited. The second pillar of antitrust law is the Sherman Act’s criminalization of monopolistic activity, stated in 15 USC SS2.

Earliest examples of industries that were the subject of antitrust inquiries included the steel, railroad, and oil industries. In the early 1980s, the Reagan administration’s breakup of Bell Telephone revived the topic, and provided what is in some ways the most clear example of the law’s application. In the 1990s, antitrust attention turned to Microsoft, whose software had come to operate nearly every computer in use at the time. In recent years, the AT&T/Time Warner
merger brought antitrust scrutiny. Nearly all Americans are consumers of some product from this conglomerate be it from cellular phone service, cable TV, or programming from any of the myriad content producers such as HBO, Turner Broadcasting or Warner Brothers.

In terms of developing legal thought and theory, the Harvard School analyzed antitrust issues from a structural perspective based upon the idea that antitrust laws should be used when there existed concentrations of power or control over a large portion of a market (Posner 1978). Under this analysis, companies that control large portions of a market would be the subject of scrutiny due to their size alone. In contrast, the Chicago School, rooted in the work of Aaron Director, and championed by one-time Supreme Court nominee Robert Bork, shifted focus from market dominance to a concept of consumer welfare (Posner 1978). In this way, the Chicago School eschewed analysis of industrial organization in favor of analytic tools rooted in economic theory. Under this approach an enterprise might control an effective monopoly but would not be considered a problem so long as its behavior did not actually harm consumers; only explicit price-fixing and mergers to monopoly were of concern (Posner 1978). Upon inception the schools had very distinct perspectives; time brought steady convergence where differences tend to be technical, not ideological (Posner 1978).

Today, antitrust hawks have turned their scrutiny to a new wave of internet companies including Facebook, Amazon, Netflix and Google (FANG). Nearly every American has used one of these FANG services. If and how antitrust law is applied to these behemoths will determine whether the government intervenes in their respective industries, with subsequent consequences for everyone.

Unlike other areas of legal education, antitrust law truly requires consideration of a balance of policy choices, rather than mere understanding or recitation of principles, laws and acts. Federal acts that have created antitrust law are textually simple. The key to antitrust in the past and present is deciding how to apply the rules. This choice of application is one of the most important legal policy choices of our time. For this reason, we develop new ways to make this content accessible to students and to engage students with the topic. At its core, antitrust law at the undergraduate level is not and should not be an exercise in merely learning the law but rather a critical thinking exercise about the policy decision of when and how this law should be applied. Compared to modern enactments of the law, the antitrust laws themselves are fairly bare-bones. The Sherman Act itself is but 7 sections printed into at-most a handful of pages. Contrast that with the Affordable Care Act, which was over 2,300 pages in its original form. We suggest that for purposes of undergraduate education, there is an opportunity to make the topic of antitrust more accessible by requiring an examination of various policy choices of when and how basic laws should apply. We detail this in the method section to follow.

Method

First, to aid students in their analyses, we introduce them to the two principal schools of antitrust thought used traditionally by Courts and scholars: the Harvard and Chicago Schools. We do this as part of the foundational treatment in class and textbook readings. In essence, students are asked primarily to consider the policy choices behind the if, how, and when of the application of basic antitrust principles. By approaching antitrust in this way, an esoteric topic becomes accessible and relatable. Admittedly, there are other views on the proper application of antitrust law, but we feel
the Harvard and Chicago schools will be the most useful tools to students studying the issue, in terms of aiding them in formulating their own analysis.

Second, we draw on student personal exposures and experience to FANG. We push this further by overlaying legal exposition with marketing applications as suggested by (Petty 2000) in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Legal Exposition and Marketing Applications](image)

Future antitrust battles will inevitably involve applying antitrust laws to Facebook, Amazon, Netflix and Google, undoubtedly foreshadowing one of the most important policy choices of coming years. These companies dominate the internet and human life across the planet. Everyone “googles” daily. Mark Zuckerberg’s online social community boasts 2.4 billion active “citizens” rivaling populations of China (1.4B) and India (1.3B) combined. Amazon redefined shopping for inhabitants in more than half the world’s countries. Thus, students are well acquainted with how FANGs impact their own life experience as consumers and here we introduce them to the 4Ps of marketing. In sum, when personal experiences as consumers serve as the springboard, student interest in antitrust is amplified making the topic readily accessible.

Third, we follow with exercises and discussions that combine the personalized student experiences with legal scholarship. See the appendix for Table 1 showing supplementary reading examples and Table 2 for a sample assignment using Amazon.

**Results**

To-date, the authors have used this approach in different classes to discuss the topic with roughly 150 students. This yielded data for textual content analysis using Atlas.ti for use in further development of the approach. Drawing upon the coded themes, we plan to integrate other business disciplines (e.g., HR, management, IT) going forward.

Most striking are the student responses referencing personal experiences. Related experiences include work for Amazon, work for a small retailer affected by Amazon’s growth, or moreover as a customer. In all cases, these personal relationships to the topic pave the way for meaningful critical thinking analysis and greater understanding of the law. The approach has shown success in both face-to-face and online learning environments. The launching point using the responsive writing prompts fed discussion and learning exchanges student-to-student in the form of class discussions or online discussion boards. In both environments, students voiced their greater-than-expected enthusiasm for the topic and their interest in following the issue going forward.
Limitations and Direction for Future Research

We used a qualitative design to investigate themes of student interest, understanding and concern related to antitrust. We attempt to develop an integrated interdisciplinary approach to law and business application. Next steps include empirical studies to objectively assess effectiveness. We propose repeated measures of student knowledge and enthusiasm for the topic at the beginning and conclusion of each course section. We also seek to extend our work by comparing our approach to a control group taught with a standard pedagogical approach to the topic. Finally, given that standardized tests assess this topic, we plan to conduct correlational analysis using the Major Field Test report for our college. Using this approach, we can compare performance from groups of students exposed to our approach as well as pre-existing approaches. All of these approaches potentially suffer from limitations on the available pool of students, specific geographical contexts and methodological concerns related to each of the tools of analysis.

References


Appendix Table 1. Sample Supplementary Readings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructions: Debate is ongoing between legal scholars regarding the FANG companies. Lina Khan’s 2017 note in the Yale Law Journal ignited particular criticism for Amazon. After reviewing this note, craft a response that discusses the following prompts. In your response reference your personal experiences and thoughts you have about Amazon in particular.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is Amazon a monopoly or too powerful?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is Amazon’s market success good or bad for America?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is it good or bad for consumers or for society as a whole? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What if anything should courts consider in applying antitrust law?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the risks of applying antitrust law to Amazon or any successful business?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which approach to antitrust law (between the Harvard and Chicago or any other school of thought)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix Table 2. Sample Assignment Using Amazon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructions: To understand current concerns relating to Amazon and its influence, review the following supplementary readings. Prepare to discuss these in class and share your insights in the Blackboard Discussion Board.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Financial Well-Being and Financial Literacy of Kentucky Teachers: Implications for Entrepreneurship Opportunities

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Financial literacy, entrepreneurship, financial well-being

Introduction

Economic development is critical for the future of the Appalachian region, and stakeholders are working on various entrepreneurship initiatives to promote new ventures. In other efforts, in 2018, Kentucky passed HB 132 which requires that, starting with the class entering high school in fall, 2020, high school graduates must complete a course or program in financial literacy. While these activities could contribute to a healthier economy for the Commonwealth, this paper uses results describing teachers’ financial well-being and financial literacy to show that teachers are not yet equipped to implement the mandate. While the average financial well-being score for this group is higher than both the national and statewide averages, the financial literacy score is lower than the national average. The results are important for the Appalachian business community because they highlight the need for more resources devoted to preparing teachers to teach financial concepts in order to spur economic development in the region. Through the multiplier effect of teaching teachers, those who invest more resources in financial literacy efforts and entrepreneurship education in schools can promote economic development for generations to come.
Literature Overview

A Kentucky initiative known as Shaping Our Appalachian Region (SOAR) was established in 2013 (SOAR: History, n.d.). Then Kentucky Governor, Steve Beshear, and Kentucky 5th District Congressman Hal Rogers recognized the severity of the declining coal industry and its effects on the state, regional, and local economies. In an effort to begin a dialogue about the economic future of the region, these leaders created a non-partisan economic development agency composed of a network of 54 Appalachian counties. The mission of the SOAR Initiative is to “expand job creation; enhance regional opportunity, innovation, and identity; improve quality of life; and, support all those working to achieve these goals in Eastern Kentucky” (SOAR: About Us, n.d., para. 1).

While the primary objective of the SOAR initiative is economic development, leaders outlined seven specific goals. Developers of the initiative assert that achieving goal 1, broadband (through fiber) connectivity, will lead to success with the other goals which involve participation in a digital economy and connecting the Appalachian economy to the global economy by attracting industrial employment and promoting tourism. (SOAR: Blueprint, n.d.) Thus, current legislators’ recent recognition of the value of financial literacy to the Commonwealth could not be more timely. Today’s high school students are future contributors to an economy that Kentucky is creating through the SOAR Initiative. Financial literacy is a fundamental necessity and a driving contributor to economic development in Appalachia.

Research has shown a positive link between entrepreneurial skills and financial literacy, particularly in young people. In South Africa, Kojo Oseifuah (2010) showed that above average levels of financial literacy contributed to entrepreneurial skills in youth while Mwangi and Kihiu (2012) concluded that financially illiterate young people had an increased likelihood of remaining financially excluded from the economy. In a Federal Reserve Bank study, Hogarth and Hilgert (2002) concluded that financial literacy leads to better decision making which fosters economic development in communities. Education and training in both financial literacy and entrepreneurial skills can promote business development.

Financial knowledge is a different measure than the broader concept of financial well-being, and Shim et al. (2009) and Joo and Grable (2004) have shown these to be positively related. Hogarth (2006) provides support for a positive link between financial education and financial well-being at the individual and community level in a case study analysis of a community development credit union. In this study, we measure financial knowledge and financial well-being of a group of Kentucky teachers who attended a financial literacy professional development event to determine whether they are positively related and to aid in the future development of appropriate educational and training goals as schools implement a new state mandate in financial literacy.

Methodology

The data in this study were obtained from a survey that Kentucky teachers voluntarily completed at a free, optional financial literacy professional development training on June 18, 2019, at Keeneland Race Course in Lexington, KY. The event was provided by the Coalition for Financial Literacy in the Commonwealth with support from the Federal Reserve Banks of Cleveland and St. Louis and the local business community. The objectives of the event were to improve financial literacy among K-12 teachers and to provide training and resources to help them teach financial literacy to their students.
In investigating financial capability, we focus specifically on financial well-being and financial knowledge. The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB) defines financial well-being as “a state wherein a person can fully meet current and ongoing financial obligations, can feel secure in their financial future, and is able to make choices that allow them to enjoy life” (CFPB, 2015, p. 6). This measure is not strictly dependent on income level or level of financial knowledge. A person can have low income and also little knowledge of financial concepts but have a high sense of financial well-being and vice-versa. To measure financial well-being, we use the CFPB’s Financial Well-Being Scale, a brief survey that is publicly available, tested, and validated as a tool to measure a consumer’s sense of financial well-being (CFPB, 2015). The survey is scored on a scale of 0 to 100 where a higher number indicates a higher sense of measured financial well-being.

In measuring financial knowledge, we use three questions developed by Lusardi and Mitchell (2011a) that have been widely used as a simple, robust measure and are commonly referred to as the “big 3 financial literacy questions” (e.g., Nicolini and Haupt, 2019). The authors focused on the principles of simplicity, relevance, brevity, and capacity to differentiate when developing the questions and were seeking to develop an instrument that could be widely adopted. The three questions focus on compound interest, inflation, and risk diversification. (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2011b)

Attendees of the “Off and Running” professional development event were provided an opportunity to complete a survey that included the CFPB Financial Well-being Survey questions, the three Lusardi and Mitchell financial literacy questions, and demographic questions. We use descriptive statistics from this survey to analyze financial well-being and financial knowledge of this sample of Kentucky teachers.

Results and Implications

Ninety teachers attended the Coalition for Financial Literacy in the Commonwealth’s “Off and Running” 2019 professional development event and were provided an opportunity to complete the survey. The majority (77%) of these teachers were from SOAR counties. Seventy-five teachers completed all of the well-being questions, and results are provided below in Figure 1. While the CFPB does not describe a specific cutoff for “low” or “high” scores, they report that most scores will be in the middle of the range. The average score for our sample of teachers is 57 when including all respondents and 56 when including only those ages 18 to 61 (which is 95% of the sample). The average financial well-being score for adults 18 and older in the U.S. was 52 in 2018 and 49 when restricted to adults 18 to 61 (CFPB, 2019). For CFPB’s Kentucky sample, the average financial well-being score for adults 18 to 61 was 47, and this was statistically significantly lower than the national average (CFPB, 2019). Our teacher sample had a higher average financial well-being score than the wider sample of Kentuckians who completed the CFPB survey as part of the FINRA 2018 National Financial Capability Survey.
The results for the knowledge questions are provided below in Figure 2 where we observe the percentages of correct, incorrect, “don’t know,” or “other” answers for each individual knowledge question. We also see the percentage that answered all three questions correctly, missed at least one, answered “don’t know” to at least one, or provided an “other” answer to at least one question. In a study of U.S. respondents, Mitchell and Lusardi (2015) reported that 44.3% of college graduates and 63.8% of respondents with postgraduate education answered all three questions correctly. In our sample of practicing teachers who do have college degrees and even postgraduate degrees in many cases, 36% answered all three questions correctly. Thus, the teachers in our sample have an average level of financial literacy that is lower than the national average. However, it does appear that they know what they do not know, at least with respect to inflation and risk diversification. Looking at results from the inflation question, we see that more respondents chose “don’t know” than answered the question incorrectly. This outcome is even more pronounced in the results from the question about risk. Only 3% of respondents answered the question incorrectly, but 37% said they did not know the answer.

Figure 2. Results from Lusardi and Mitchell’s “Big 3” Financial Literacy Questions

2 One respondent selected “Refuse to Answer” for each question and another provided written explanations instead of choosing from the available answers.
These descriptive results illustrate that teachers in our sample perceive a higher level of financial well-being for themselves than that of a statewide or nationwide sample of the population. Based on the CFPB’s definition, this suggests that the teachers have a higher level of confidence in meeting financial obligations, feel more secure in their financial future, and are more able to make choices that allow them to enjoy life. This higher average level of financial well-being is accompanied by a lower average financial literacy score than a nationwide average. In a study of determinants of financial satisfaction, Mugenda et al. (1990) also found financial satisfaction and financial knowledge to be inversely related. They concluded that this might due to differing levels of financial awareness. More financially knowledgeable people may experience less financial satisfaction as they strive to improve their quality of life through financial means while those with less financial knowledge may not recognize available opportunities for improving their quality of life and, therefore, may be more satisfied with their current financial situation. Another explanation may be that the teachers perceive a high level of future security since 92% reported that they have retirement accounts in a state employee defined benefit plan. This explanation is supported by Berry and Williams (1987) where they found that perceived future security contributed positively to satisfaction with one’s income.

**Conclusion**

This study provides a baseline indicator of Kentucky teachers’ financial well-being and financial literacy levels. While the average level of financial well-being is high compared to other samples, the average level of financial literacy is low. This is important to note as teachers begin to implement a state mandate to teach financial literacy in high school. In 2020, it is expected that the Kentucky Department of Education will publish content standards in financial literacy. These will provide teachers and schools guidance about what to teach, and providers of financial education can provide materials that are aligned with the standards. An important part of preparing teachers should be increasing their personal knowledge about financial concepts in addition to equipping them with resources for teaching their students.

The sample size in this study is small, so caution should be exercised in applying our conclusions statewide. Also, this particular sample of teachers chose to attend the financial literacy professional development event. This could mean that they are more interested in the topic and might have higher knowledge scores than others who did not attend, but it could also mean that they are less knowledgeable and attended the event to learn more about a content area in which they were weak. Either way, the results highlight the importance of devoting resources to equipping teachers as they begin to implement an unfunded mandate in financial literacy. While the mandate is intended to improve financial literacy in the Commonwealth and, ultimately, improve lives and increase economic development, it presents an opportunity for the business community to invest in the future by providing resources at this early stage. This is important for the economic development and well-being of Appalachia.

**References**


The Small Business Landscape: The Gig Economy in 2020 and Beyond

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Small business, entrepreneurship, freelancing, gig economy

Introduction
Depending on what sources one might consult (e.g., government agency, non-profit entity, scholarly literature), it becomes obvious that there are numerous standards for discerning the size, scope and other dimensions of the small business landscape. Nevertheless, engagement in freelancing, home-based business endeavors, self-employment, the gig economy, and such activities clearly are trending upward. U.S. Census reporting indicates “nonemployer” firms comprise the majority of small businesses. The adjective “very” small may be useful as a colloquial description of their relative size. In comparison to total revenues produced by much larger firms with hundreds of employees (yet still classified as “small” by the U.S. Small Business Administration, i.e., those with fewer than 500 employees), nonemployer firms’ revenues are miniscule.

Literature Overview
For purposes of this literature review, Version 9.1 of the list entitled, “Core publications in entrepreneurship and related fields: A guide to getting published,” compiled and maintained by Jerome Katz (2019) has been regarded as authoritative in determining coverage of the topics at hand in the scholarly literature that is associated with small business and entrepreneurship.

A local computer database comprised of approximately 220 items has been utilized in the development of this present paper. The software used for the construction of the aforementioned database allows for attachments (e.g., Excel, PDF, Word, image files, and ZIP compressed files) in association with individual reference items. As such, the database supports both the typical citation information that one needs for future researchers, it can in effect, serve as a repository cataloging many data sources. Attachments are identified as artifacts under a qualitative researcher’s framework. An associated secondary database comprised of core resources pertaining to qualitative research has also been utilized. All artifacts may be regarded as sources of data, and
these may in-turn be analyzed under a qualitative research paradigm (Creswell, 1994; Hodder, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Database collections including those from ProQuest, Ebsco, and ABI/INFORM Complete, have been consulted. When a search using a given resource may have yielded a paucity of returns, methods to expand results have been employed.

Artifacts have also been collected from numerous other sources beyond well-known library databases such as those indicated above. As examples, documents produced by government agencies, e.g., Congressional testimony from hearings (typically captured as transcripts and publicly available video content), has been added to the aforementioned local database. Reports from research organizations such as the NFIB Research Foundation, have also been consulted. Finally, items from popular press venues might occasionally be useful, especially in cases where scholarly research (often with a long publication cycle) may be slow in providing immediacy. Even if such popular press sources such as the business press and blogs may be lacking in rigor, they can sometimes point to original source material that is more authoritative.

**Methodology**

Under a qualitative researcher’s paradigm, the role of the researcher is to ask questions, collect data, and to identify patterns and themes. From these efforts, the researcher may interpret meaning and report findings. Where multiple forms or sources of data indicate similar or the same patterns, triangulation (Caporaso, 1995; Maxwell, 1992) may increase confidence in researchers’ findings. Conversely, the researcher may also dismiss data for lacking applicability or veracity relative to a given phenomenon under study (Caporaso, 1995). While using a constructivist approach (Barry, 1996; Schwandt, 1994), the qualitative researcher endeavors to develop theoretical frameworks. Such frameworks are not intended or purveyed as being generalizable, yet they may serve as a starting point where little is known about a phenomenon due to a lack of prior scholarly research. Portions of the local databases discussed above have been developed over a period of many years.

**Results and Implications**

The U.S. Small Business Administration’s (SBA) Office of Advocacy employs a definition of what might comprise a small business that is based on size, i.e., those businesses with fewer than 500 employees. There were 30.7 million such small businesses in 2016, according to the most recent published data as of 2019 (citation given below). 99.9 percent of all firms in the U.S. fall under this employee size-based threshold. Just over eight out of ten (81 percent - 24.8 million) small businesses do not have any employees (labeled nonemployers). The other nineteen percent (5.9 million), do have paid employees. There were approximately 15.4 million nonemployers in 1997, whereas in 2016, this number increased to 24.8 million ("Frequently asked questions about small business," 2019). As such, the number of nonemployer small businesses has gradually grown over a period of time that is nearing two decades.

Over the past decade, approximately 50 percent of all firms have been home-based, a proportion that has remained fairly constant over this period of time. As suggested in the introduction to this present paper, some data can be challenging to reconcile. Home-based businesses are an example, given that they may be operated primarily out of a small business owner’s home, yet additional locations may be connected with business activities (for instance, a retail store owner might use a residentially located storage area for excess inventory and take deliveries there). 60.1 percent of
firms with no employees are home-based. Thus, a simple calculation (24.8 million nonemployer firms times 60.1 percent) yields that there are approximately 14.9 million, home-based, nonemployer, businesses. 86.6 percent of nonemployer firms are classified in their legal form as sole proprietorships (Ibid.).

According to a presentation on Slideshare.net ("Future of small business report," 2016) attributable to Intuit (maker of QuickBooks), by the year 2026 projections suggest that the number of U.S. small businesses will grow to over 42 million. The survey suggests trends that will facilitate small business competitiveness; these include infrastructure, online marketplaces (inclusive of cost-effective online advertising), and the availability of on-demand talent.

**Independent Workers**

According to Manyika, et al, “Independent work has never found a comfortable fit within government labor statistics” (2016). Authors further suggest that data collection is insufficient and outdated relative to independent workers. McKinsey Global Institute (MGI) has published a report in which it posits three key features which characterize independent work. These include: 1) autonomy; 2) pay for performance, i.e., “by task, assignment, or sales”; and 3) short-term relationships (Manyika et al., 2016). A significant limitation of MGI’s report, however, was indicated in the following footnote: “our online survey may not reflect the full extent of workers in the informal economy who are offline, have language barriers, are paid off the books, or do not have official immigration status” (p. 5). This same footnote went on to acknowledge a common limitation in other research, mainly, it is difficult to survey such populations.

**The Freelance Workforce**

Upwork and Freelancers Union has commissioned Edelman Intelligence (as an independent research firm) to study the U.S. freelance workforce and produce a series of reports that are now in their fifth annual iteration ("Freelancing in America 2018," 2019). Among the 5th report’s key findings, it is suggested that more than one third of Americans – 56.7 million – freelanced this year; Americans are spending more than 1 billion hours per week freelancing; and almost two-thirds (63%) of freelancers were engaging in this form of work by choice rather than necessity.

**The “Gig Economy”**

According to statements on the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) Website, it does not possess a definition of “gig workers” or “the gig economy.” (“Frequently asked questions about data on contingent and alternative employment arrangements,” 2018). The rationale indicated is that researchers may use different definitions in connection with these terms. There are related issues such as the fact that there may be overlapping data in connection with contingent workers and others who identify as being in alternative employment arrangements. The BLS (instead) provides a Contingent Worker Supplement (CWS), promoting that “it [the CWS] measures many different types of work, allowing researchers to study the workforce using their own definitions” (Ibid.).

Nevertheless, a recent Gallop report found that “36% of U.S. workers participate in the gig economy through either their primary or secondary jobs” (McFeely & Pendell, 2018). Similar to results from the aforementioned “Freelancing in America 2018” study (and Gallop’s findings), a Federal Reserve report found that three out of ten adults were participants in the “gig economy”
in 2017 (Larrimore, Durante, Kreiss, Park, & Sahm, 2018). Katz and Krueger (2016) have studied trends in alternative work arrangements published in their working paper entitled, *The rise and nature of alternative work arrangements in the United States, 1995-2015*. The methods that they have employed with their study were associated with the RAND American Life Panel ("RAND American Life Panel (ALP)," 2018), and based on a version of the CWS. They report a significant increase in the use of alternative work arrangements during the period from 2005 to 2015: “The percentage of workers engaged in alternative work arrangements – defined as temporary help agency workers, on-call workers, contract workers, and independent contractors or freelancers – rose from 10.7 percent in February 2005 to 15.8 percent in late 2015.”

**Conclusion**

This present research has not been pursued with any intent to reconcile (or criticize) the numerous differing definitions, approaches, limitations or results from various researchers or sources in trying to better understand the state of the small business landscape in the U.S., now, or going forward. Although there may be confounding data and findings across a broad spectrum of sources, it can still be concluded that the population of individuals that is engaging in various alternative work arrangements is already substantial and participation in such arrangements is rising. A tie-in with data from entities such as the SBA (which uses a numerous government agencies and sources) exists viz. home-based businesses, nonemployers, and other very small firms, even if it may be ill-defined and confounded. According to the SBA, small businesses created 9.6 million net new jobs while large businesses created 5.2 million in the period from 2000 to 2018; this equates to almost two-thirds (64.9 percent of the net new job creation being attributable to a small business economy ("Frequently asked questions about small business," 2019). At the very least, in a practical context, the trends discussed here matter.

Dourado and Koopman (2015) found that “flexible work arrangements offered by sharing-economy platforms provide an alternative for those excluded from traditional employment relationships.” Further, based upon analysis of IRS 1099-MISC form data, Dourado and Koopman (2015) concluded: “The shift toward more contract work is a real and dramatic change in the labor market.” Technology is making it easier for individuals to find work, and whether they may self-identify as freelancers, contractors, sole proprietors, or small (home-based) business owners – or all of these – it is clear that the phenomenon of being independent from traditional employment arrangements represents a very relevant trend. Research-oriented as well as applied questions abound. Are educators, ready? Is our workforce, ready? Are those (millions) who may be impacted, ready? Do we fully appreciate, that the “gig economy” portends a changing socioeconomic dynamic in perhaps profound ways, whether we are, ready, or not?

**References**


Trust in The Sharing Economy: Using Integrative Trust Theory to Examine Uber, Airbnb, And TaskRabbit

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Sharing economy, trust beliefs, trust intention, app trust, behavioral intention

Introduction

The sharing economy is “the peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community-based online services” (Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen, 2016, p. 2047). It relies on technological developments that simplify the sharing of goods and services through mobile Internet information systems (Harmari et al., 2016). Companies such as Airbnb and Uber for example, have developed scalable platforms empowering individuals to share access to excess capacity of spare rooms and transportation. The sharing economy is
expected to grow to $335 billion by 2025, an increase of 2.293 percent since 2014 (Denamur, 2019).

Trust is considered to be a principle determinant of using sharing economy services (ter Huurne, Ronteltap, & Buskens, 2017; Möhlmann, 2015; Sundararajan, 2016; Tussyadiah, 2015). The sharing economy involves trust between buyers and providers, trust in the apps, and trust between users and the company or platform (Tussyadiah 2015). Surprisingly few studies empirically investigate trust’s role in the sharing economy (see Mittendorf 2016; Möhlmann, 2015; Zamani, Choudrie, Katechos, & Yin, 2019 for some exceptions). Trust is important to study because sharing economy uncertainty and risk can prevent consumer use. In addition to physical loss and personal safety risks, the sharing economy may be risky because transaction partners are unable to inspect and evaluate products upfront, little opportunity exists for initial interpersonal interaction, and there are few rules and regulations governing the sharing economy (ter Huurne et al., 2017). The objective of this research is to examine trust’s role in the sharing economy by utilizing and extending McKnight, Choudhury, & Kacmar’s (2002a) integrative trust model.

**Literature Overview**

Trust theory is the theoretical background for this study. Because the sharing economy involves transactions between buyers and providers who most likely do not know each other or have information about each other, it often involves trusting strangers (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Trust is the “willingness to commit to a collaborative effort before you know how the other person will behave” (Sundararajan, 2016, p. 60). Trust allows consumers to overcome perceived risk and uncertainty and cope with a complex world such as the sharing economy (Keymolen, 2013). It does not take away complexity, but reduces it to a bearable level by enabling people to bridge information gaps (Keymolen, 2013).

This study uses the McKnight et al. (2002a) trust model that integrates the concepts of trust beliefs and trust intention within the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen. 1975). The model posits that trust beliefs lead to trust intention, which results in a trust-related behavior. In our model, the trust-related behavior is intention to use the platform’s service. Trust intention is a willingness to depend (McKnight et al., 2002a) on the sharing economy provider (e.g., the host in the case of Airbnb or the driver in the case of Uber). Trust beliefs include integrity, benevolence, and competence (McKnight et al., 2002a).

We add to the McKnight et al. (2002a) model by adding the technology trust beliefs of reliability, helpfulness, and functionality (McKnight, Carter, Thatcher, & Clay, 2011) in addition to provider trust beliefs because most sharing economy firms do business through technological platforms run on apps (Hamari et al., 2015). People may be more willing to depend on the provider and participate in the sharing economy if the app is consistently reliable, helpful, and operates properly (Lankton, McKnight, & Tripp, 2015). We also include perceived risk as a predictor of intention to use the platform because consumers may believe the provider will act opportunistically (Bélanger & Carter, 2008) thereby decreasing use intentions.

Similar to McKnight et al. (2002a), we include dispositional and institutional trust factors as trust belief predictors. We also include sharing economy platform-specific factors as suggested by
MicKnight, Choudhury, & Kacmar (2002b). Disposition to trust is the extent to which a person displays a general tendency to depend on others, across various situations and persons (McKnight et al., 2002a). Disposition to trust can influence trusting beliefs because it helps one interpret the interpersonal relationship at hand, especially in early relationships. In addition to disposition to trust people, we extend the McKnight et al. (2002a) model by also including disposition to trust technology, which refers to the general tendency to rely on technologies (McKnight et al., 2011). Having a higher disposition to trust technology means one is likely to trust a technology until provided a reason not to (McKnight et al., 2011).

Institution-based trust is buyers’ perceptions that impersonal structural conditions are in place to facilitate the transaction successfully (Keetels, 2012; McKnight et al., 2002a). Institution-based trust is important in the sharing economy because people feel a need to be protected in a new endeavor, especially if it inheres risk to their person or property like the sharing economy does. One form of institution-based trust is structural assurance, the belief that technical, legal, or governmental structures are in place to promote success or constrain bad behavior (McKnight et al., 2002a). The other form of institution-based trust is situational normality, the belief that the environment is in the proper order and the situation is normal or favorable (McKnight et al., 2002a). In the sharing economy situational normality can include common values, informal norm congruence (Sundararajan, 2016), and mechanisms that facilitate social interaction between participants like email, chat, and other messaging services (Keetels, 2012).

Platform-specific factors such as reputation and graphic attractiveness may also influence the base trust model. McKnight et al. (2002b) discusses how in initial relationships consumers may rely on signals or symbols or whatever information they have such as vendor reputation or web site appearance, to make trust-related inferences. Reputation is second-hand information about another party, which in this study is the sharing economy platform (Jarvenpaa, Tractinsky, & Vitale, 2000). Hearing from someone else that their sharing economy platform experience was positive will help alleviate user perceptions of risk and insecurity when interacting with the platform. App or graphic attractiveness refers to the extent that the platform appears neat, well-ordered, and nice-looking. Graphic attractiveness should influence trusting beliefs because viewing the app provides experiential cues to the vendor’s trusting attributes.

**Methodology**

We tested the integrated trust model using questionnaire data about three sharing economy services: Uber, Airbnb, and TaskRabbit. Uber is a ride-sharing service where drivers use their own cars to transport customers for a fee. Airbnb is an online hospitality service in which hosts list and rent out their homes to consumers looking for travel accommodations. TaskRabbit is a sharing economy service that matches freelance labor with local demand, allowing consumers to find immediate help from taskers with everyday tasks, including cleaning, moving, delivery and handyman work. We chose these services because they may differ in perceived risk, reputation, and other factors that allow us to test the robustness of the model. We collected data from business undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory information systems course in the Midwest U.S. Students are an appropriate sample because 18 to 35-year-olds have higher levels of participation in the sharing economy versus those over 35 (Maru/Matchbox, 2017).
The survey was administered online during class time, and the students received course extra credit worth 1.5% of total class points for attending and participating in the survey. Participants were assigned randomly to the three different sharing economy services. The final sample size was 571 (188 Uber respondents, 193 Airbnb respondents, and 190 TaskRabbit respondents). Due to the high response rate, we could not test for non-response bias.

We adapted validated scales from prior research: disposition to trust technology, trusting beliefs in the app (helpfulness, reliability, functionality) (McKnight et al., 2011); disposition to trust people, situational normality, structural assurance, trusting beliefs in the provider (benevolence, integrity, and competence), trusting intention (McKnight et al., 2002a); reputation (Jarvenpaa et al., 2000; McKnight et al., 2002b); and behavioral intention (Pavlou & Gefen, 2004). We developed a one-item scale for measuring graphic attractiveness and included six control variables in the study: gender, length X frequency of experience, quality of experience (Pavlou & Gefen, 2004), positive/negative impressions of the graphic, personal innovativeness, and risk propensity. We used SmartPLS 3 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015) to test both the measurement and structural models.

Results and Implications

Measurement model tests support convergent and discriminant validity of the data in addition to finding that multicollinearity and common method bias are not a problem. The structural model explains 63.9%, 52.1%, and 42.7% in behavioral intention for Uber, Airbnb, and Task Rabbit, respectively. We find that both provider and app trust beliefs are important predictors of trust intention in the sharing economy with provider trust having stronger effects (Table 1). Perceived risk in the platform also has significant influences showing that trust offsets sharing economy platform risk.

Structural assurance and reputation have the strongest effects on trust beliefs. McKnight et al. (2002b) discusses that reputation is an important trust-building factor for web vendors particularly in the initial trust phase when consumers do not have personal experience with the vendor. Experience in our sample is quite low with a mean of 2.08/7.00 for length and 1.96/7.00 for frequency. We show that hearing about a sharing economy platform from someone else can help build users’ trust perceptions in the provider and the app among users with little experience. Structural assurance picks up on “safety” aspects of using sharing economy services. The significant relationship suggests that trust may be built through some general structural assurances and signals from the platform providers about the trustworthiness of the buyers and the apps (Keetel, 2012; Pavlou & Gefen, 2004). Future research can tease out which safeguards are more important to building trust in sharing economy providers and apps.
Disposition to trust, situational normality, and graphic attractiveness have fewer significant relationships. Personality factors such as disposition may not have strong effects on trust beliefs due to other more context specific effects. Lower experience for our sample could explain why situational normality has fewer effects because it relies on individuals feeling the other is recognizable and familiar to previous experiences (Baier, 1986). The app’s attractiveness was not as effective in predicting provider trust beliefs, but it did have significant effects on app trust beliefs. Like reputation, this can provide signals about trustworthiness.

Comparing the results for the three different sharing economy platforms we find that the app trust beliefs to trust intention path is significantly stronger for Uber than for Airbnb (p<.016), the disposition to trust technology to app trust beliefs path is stronger for Uber than for Airbnb (p<.048), and the reputation to provider trust beliefs path is stronger for Airbnb than for TaskRabbit (p<.032). Future research should consider these differences as they imply moderating effects or additional theoretical extensions.

**Conclusion**

There are several possible limitations to this research that could be opportunities for further research including its focus on initial trust and the use of students. Despite these limitations, this
study contributes by being one of the first studies to comprehensively examine the role of trust in the sharing economy. We extend the McKnight et al. (2002a) model to investigate how trust works in three popular sharing economy services. Results show that provider and app trust beliefs, risk, disposition to trust people, reputation, and structural assurance are important factors for understanding the sharing economy. The model is mostly robust over the three sharing economy services.

References


Soliciting Career Advice from Graduates

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Introduction

In the constantly changing field of Information Technology (IT), the process of identifying and securing a meaningful career is challenging and not well defined. Also, the sources of career information are incomplete and career advice is not consistent. The reality is that there is a great deal of variety in IT positions, and there are many career paths. In this paper, the researchers describe the results of a survey of Computer Information Systems (CIS) graduates, and detail how this process can capture valuable career advice from working IT professionals.

Literature Overview

Alumni can be a rich source of information on career advice (Lawson, 2018). Researchers at Mt. St. Joseph in Cincinnati found that alumni can collaborate with academic programs to have on-campus career panels and create a careers website for current students (Lawson, 2018). A recent survey of alumni from the University of Nebraska Lincoln identified several themes of career advice, including internships, leadership skills through extracurricular activities, communication skills, challenging students academically, and employment advice (Van Tassell, 2014).

A recent popular book read by many IT professionals contained an entire chapter on career advice (Spolsky, 2008). The author identified several pieces of free advice for computer science students:
learn how to write before graduating, learn C before graduating, learn microeconomics, do not blow off non-technical classes, take programming-intensive courses, and get a good summer internship.

In an effort to evaluate the career advice of CIS graduates, the researchers identified five distinct technology eras spanning nearly 50 years (Mahaney & Fisher, 2019). The inspiration for the creation of eras was two popular IT publications (Berners-Lee & Fischetti, 1999; Isaacson, 2014).

Methodology

The researchers developed a web-based, Qualtrics questionnaire for graduates of the Eastern Kentucky University (EKU) CIS program (Wilkerson, 2012). The survey was developed and a link was sent to 668 e-mail addresses obtained from the Office of Alumni Affairs. One hundred eighteen e-mail messages were returned as undeliverable, resulting in 550 graduates who actually received the e-mail invitation to complete the survey. One hundred and ten surveys were completed for a 20% response rate.

A question on the survey asked graduates to share any career advice they might have for current CIS students. The responses included six pages of recommendations from graduates dating back to 1972. The technology eras, dates, and responses by era are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graduation Year</th>
<th>Technology Era</th>
<th># of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008-2015</td>
<td>Great Recession and Recovery</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2007</td>
<td>Dot-Com Collapse</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993-2000</td>
<td>WWW/Y2K/Dot-Com Bubble</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984-1992</td>
<td>PCs and Client-Server</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-1983</td>
<td>Mainframes/COBOL Programming</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Responses by Technology Era

Results and Implications

By far, the most frequently mentioned career advice was for students to gain career-related experience in addition to their IT education. This was true for the vast majority of graduates. Another priority was the need to be a life-long learner, which included certifications and continuing education. A third recommendation was for students to be flexible and to enjoy what they do. Graduates also stressed the importance of building and maintaining work and professional relationships. The last major piece of career advice was to emphasize the importance of the business core and its continuing value throughout the careers of graduates.

An analysis of graduate responses by technology era follows.
Great Recession and Recovery (2008 and more recent)

There were three major themes in the career advice for current CIS students: Co-op or Internship opportunity, continuing education and certifications, and learning things on your own. These quotations were indicative of the responses:

- “Even though co-op is not required, it NEEDS to be. Just having a degree isn't enough. Having experience before applying for your first professional job gets [you] ready to answer their questions better and helps you adapt to the changing business environment.”
- “Obtaining a co-op position will provide the most value-added for early career advancement and placement out of school. Also, industry certifications should be considered, such as Cisco, CompTIA, ISC2, ISACA, and GAIC. Even if you do not have adequate work experience for some certifications, you can still study and take the exams which will set you up for success and increase your [chances] of landing that dream job!”
- “Before leaving school do an internship, it is the number one way to gain experience and get your foot in the door. Even if the place where you do the internship does not hire you, the experience can be invaluable and gives you a leg up on someone who does not have any experience.”
- “I credit a large portion of my success to the experience I obtained in the Co-Op-program.”
- “Go out of your way to learn things outside the classroom.”

Dot-Com Collapse (2001 – 2007)

These graduates entered the workforce during one of the most competitive employment markets in IT for the last 50 years. Like responses in the first technology era, these alumni stressed experience and certifications. They also encouraged students to move out of their comfort zone and be willing to take a chance. This is reflected in these quotes:

- “Be open minded in [what] you want to do with your career. Work hard, ask a lot of questions and never pass up opportunities to gain more knowledge/experience.”
- “Don't be afraid to put yourself out there. Interview for jobs on the edge of your skill set. Build a support network.”
- “Take the courses that ARE NOT what you are already an expert at.” and “That's the only way to grow!”
- “Get certified, get certified and get certified.”
- “Get some real world experience.”
- “Get experience! Pursue classes on leadership.”


These alumni graduated during a strong employment market—particularly with the development of the World Wide Web and the increased need for COBOL programming skills to address the looming Year-2K date problem. They have been working in the IT field for 20-30 years, and their advice reminded researchers of a typical discussion between a manager and an employee. Succinctly, they encouraged students to pursue the elements of success. These responses reflect that advice:
• “Success in this field requires a constant and consistent approach to formal education, technical certification and real-world experience. Ensure that your plan continues to advance all three.”
• “Determine where your passion is, and focus on that area.”
• “Be open to all opportunities that [are] presented to you.”
• “Also, remember that those classes that are difficult (Finance) or where the professor seems to be intentionally picking on you (Business English), maybe that is something you need to work a little harder at because it will benefit you down the road.”
• “Get practical experience in your major. It will help prepare you for life after college. It will also make you more marketable to larger firms.”

**PCs and Client-Server (1984-1992)**

These graduates completed their education as the PC was changing the IT field. New programs in Information Systems were being developed, and CIS courses were being added to the business core. These alumni would now be in management positions where hiring would be an integral part of their responsibilities. This group of alumni again emphasized the importance of cooperative education and internships, and developing the elements of success.

• “Get involved in internships or co-op to get some real world experience to couple with your classroom experience.”
• “Get as much experience in a co-op as you can.”
• “Definitely would encourage summer internships.”
• “Probably the best advice that I can give is to find an area or more specifically an industry that stimulates a passion. The passion for what you are doing will subconsciously drive your efforts to stay on top of your game by seeking new technology, changes, modifications and extended education that will lead to personal growth and success.”
• “Take as many classes on public speaking and writing as you can. Both have enabled me to grow in my career and be successful.”

**Mainframes/COBOL Programming (1972-1983)**

These graduates have seen the evolution of IT from data processing and computer punch cards to cyber security, data analytics, and cloud computing. There are themes of flexibility, of being a life-long learner, and a willingness to change as the industry advances. These quotes reflect these themes:

• “Be prepared to:
  - deliver presentations to senior management or clients
  - have a working understanding of accounting (many jobs expect knowledge of debits and credits)
  - make the effort to work face-to-face with peers - relationships are valuable and the experience will pay dividends later in one’s career.”
• “Enjoy what you do. Don't go [into] a field to make money; do it because you enjoy the challenge.”
• “Keep an Open Mind, Be Flexible.”
• “Never stop learning.” and “keep up with technology changes.”
• “Don’t get too caught up in trying to know everything.”

The major finding of this study is the important role alumni of a CIS program can play concerning career advice for current and future students. As graduates, they are familiar with the institution, its mission, the background of the students, and academic reputation. In addition, the vast majority of the respondents are working in the IT field, and have been there for a number of years. This gives them tremendous credibility when it comes to advice on careers.

Conclusion

The data in this study was from a larger e-mail survey of CIS graduates. The question seeking career advice for current students was the last item. Survey fatigue may have been a factor in about thirty alumni not responding to this question. A study specifically focused on careers and career advice may provide findings that are more robust, and would permit more in-depth questions.

This survey was sent to the alumni of one academic program at one public university. It would be valuable to collect career advice from other IT programs both at EKU and throughout the region. It would also be interesting to survey other business disciplines. This is an area for future research.

A Delphi study or face-to-face structured interviews of CIS graduates and other IT managers could generate more in-depth career advice. This method would permit researchers to penetrate responses in more detail, and might create a more valuable resource for students.

This study identifies two recommendations for CIS programs. First, how should we address the consensus recommendation of requiring cooperative education or an internship experience? How is this requirement developed in the curriculum? What type of experiences should qualify? Who will be responsible for finding opportunities for the students?

Second, what is the best format for creating a usable career advice resource for students? Should it be web-based or in some other format that students would use? Other formats might include brochures, podcasts, alumni panels, workshops, career fairs, a formal class, etc.

Surveying graduates of an academic program like CIS can be a rich source of information about careers and opportunities in Information Technology. This resource is often overlooked, and will prove to be an invaluable resource to current and future faculty and students.

Alumni can be effective mentors for students and faculty alike. Theses graduates are working in the field and are familiar with the constant changes in technology. They can also be valuable members of curriculum and other advisory councils. This valuable resource is too often overlooked.
References


A Discussion Concerning the Adoption of Social Media Along Generational Timelines: Security and Privacy Concerns

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Introduction

In early 2019, the Pew Research Center stated that approximately seven-in-ten Americans connect with one another, access news, and share information about themselves through social media (Pew Research Center, 2019). While adoption of social media applications has grown exponentially, there are differences among generational cohorts of Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z.

Born between 1946 and 1964, Baby Boomers are the second largest generational cohort at 75.4 million (“Millennials Outnumber Baby Boomers,” 2015). This generation gave us Bill Gates, Steve Jobs, and others who invented the core technologies and protocols of the Internet, as well as envisioned technology as a new learning process (Novak, n.d.). While Baby Boomers are heavy
users of the Internet, they also have low trust issues and are hesitant to share sensitive information (Goodchild, 2016).

Regarded as “America’s neglected ‘middle child’” (Gao, G. & Taylor, P., 2014), the Generation X cohort was born between 1965 and 1980. Of all the generations, Generation X has garnered the least attention, probably because they are a small group in comparison to the Baby Boomers and the Millennials. This generation is known to spend the least amount of time online.

The largest cohort, Generation Y, is represented by 83.1 million individuals (“Millennials Outnumber Baby Boomers”, 2015). Born between 1981 and 1996, their lives have been shaped by the rise of technology, specifically smartphones, social media, and mobile applications. Unlike any group before them, they do not remember a time before technology (Goodchild, 2016).

The Generation Z cohort is on track to be the largest among technology adopters. They are the first cloud-based generation, using social media to connect and engage worldwide. While there is no agreement on the exact dates of this generation, sources have tentatively selected 1997 as the beginning year with no established cutoff point (Dimock, 2019). “Most notably, smartphone ownership has become a nearly ubiquitous element of teen life: 95% of teens now report they have a smartphone or access to one” (Anderson, M. & Jiang, J., 2018).

It should be noted that social media is pervasive enough to be frequently used by all generations, with use ranging between 37 percent and 88 percent (Smith, 2018). However, what should also be taken into consideration are the nuances created by perceptions of privacy and security.

**Literature Overview**

Baby Boomers are knowledgeable about the Internet. They are more likely than any other group to spend at least one hour online. Interestingly, they are the least likely of any group to use social media. Baby Boomers do not depend on social media or see it as a reflection of their social identity as do their younger counterparts. They restrict access to only trusted people on sites like Facebook because their idea of privacy is that private information that has been shared should be held in confidence (Murnane, 2016). This view is very different from those held by the Millennials (Murnane, 2016). "Millennials have a notion that anything shared is public” (Klugman, 2016), even if it is only shared with one person.

Generation X’ers can remember a time before technology and the advent of email. Surprisingly, this cohort spends the most time on social media, averaging six to seven hours per week sharing personal information (Casey, 2017). The 2016 Nielsen Social Media Report also “looked at second-screen activity on social media, measuring how many times Facebook and Twitter users employed those sites to post about programs they were watching or to interact concerning others’ posts. Again, in this category, it was Generation X that could not look away from their devices,” (Bromwich, 2017) with an average of 42 percent interacting with TV or Facebook. “The research shows that 88% of Generation X are concerned about password security and 79% are nervous about their personal information being hacked, making this group the most concerned of the generations; however, only a small portion of respondents are taking steps to make their passwords and access to sites such as Facebook more secure” (Schult, 2017).
According to projections, Millennials are the largest online audience with 83 percent sleeping with their phone near or next to their bed (Pew Research Center, 2010). Statistically, data shows that millennials prefer texting over calling (““Shoot Me a Text:””, 2016). Additionally, Millennials are “the most likely generation to use both online (92%) and mobile channels (79%) for banking” (“From Investing To Budgeting”, 2019). “Out of all generations, this group is the most proactive with their safe password practices which include setting long and difficult passwords” (Schult, 2017). The action of setting safer passwords may make more sense as these individuals are accessing both their financial and health information online.

Generation Z has “been shaped by and are in turn shaping technology and social media in very different ways from the Facebook-reared cohort” (Mastroianni, 2016) mentioned above. They are more interested in interacting on “personal, immediate social platforms like Snapchat,” (Mastroianni, 2016) which is a much faster platform to send personal messages, rather than communicating via Facebook and Twitter for all the world to see. According to Astha Khanal (2019), Generation Z “…who grew up with phones in your hands learned early not to blindly trust the Internet. You knew that someone who's up to no good might be watching you.”

Conclusion

So how do perceptions of privacy and security impact the use of social media among different generations? All generations are concerned with the privacy and security of their personal information, so much so that they would consider using alternate platforms for communication. It appears that no matter their generation, individuals are concerned about the privacy and security of their personal information. This rationale may be partially due to social media companies egregiously sharing consumer information. However, paradoxically, even with publicized incidents surrounding social media and how companies have shared private information, consumers have tended to stay the course of being very open about their lives. This assumed complacency among end users, known as the privacy paradox phenomenon, could lead to less rigorous security standards, which should concern all generations who use social media and associated technology devices.

References


In Search of a Role for the Traditional Lecture

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Key words:
teaching style, traditional lecture, active learning

Introduction

In 1930, the Republican-controlled House of Representatives, in an effort to alleviate the effects of the... Anyone? Anyone? ...the Great Depression, passed the... Anyone? Anyone? The tariff bill? The Hawley-Smoot Tariff Act? Which, anyone? Raised or lowered? ...raised tariffs, in an effort to collect more revenue for the federal government. Did it work? Anyone? Anyone? Anyone know the effects? It did not work, and the United States sank deeper into the Great Depression. Today we have a similar debate over this. Anyone know what this is? Class? Anyone? Anyone? Anyone seen this before? The Laffer Curve. Anyone know what this says? It says that at this point on the revenue curve, you will get exactly the same amount of revenue as at this point. This is very controversial. Does anyone know what Vice Present Bush called this in 1980? Anyone? Something -d-o-o economics. ‘Voodoo’ economics. –Ferris Bueller’s Day Off, 1986

In recent years, the traditional lecture method of teaching has developed an exceptionally bad reputation. A mention of the traditional lecture as opposed to active learning in the classroom conjures images akin to the teacher in the movie Ferris Bueller’s Day Off who receives no responses from his expressively bored students despite multiple invitations to join the learning conversation in the form of “Anyone?”. The traditional college lecture, described simply as “the professor stand[ing] before a podium and talk[ing]” (Kagan, 2014, p. 120) has been compared to “the educational equivalent of bloodletting” (Westervelt, 2016). Arguments have been made that the teaching method is in its “twilight” years (Lambert, 2012) and should receive no “Lazarus-style resurrection” (Fulford & Mahon, 2018). Faculty professional development programs focus on every way possible to not lecture to students, suggesting the incorporation of active learning, high-impact practices, team-based learning, and more.

As the promotion of, and evidence for, more engaging alternatives increased, interest in the traditional lecture decreased. One particularly well-cited article that has supported the call to end the traditional lecture was conducted by Freeman, et. al. (2014). These authors meta-analyzed 225 studies, specifically comparing student outcomes in classes with some active learning versus
classes with traditional lecturing only. Their results concluded that students in active learning classes of a variety of sizes showed increased performance and higher achievement. Moreover, evidence was found that the traditional lecture classes set up students for much more negative outcomes: students in the traditional lecture classes were 1.5 times more likely to fail than those in classes with some active learning.

Any reasonable social scientist would not discount the evidence of the benefits of active learning. At the same time, it is difficult to believe that a teaching method that has prevailed, successfully, for thousands of years, both formally and informally, is, in a mere two decades, defunct. Some of history’s greatest teachers—from Socrates and his Socratic method to Martin Luther King, Jr. and his moving speeches—have used a traditional lecture method. In fairness, some authors have offered more tempered opinions on the traditional lecture, arguing not for its extinction but instead for educators to carefully consider what they are teaching before deciding on the best delivery method (Corrigan, 2013; Feden, 2012). But the overwhelmingly negative opinion formed around the traditional lecture in such a short period of time deserves investigation, at the very least.

The purpose of this paper is not to argue that one teaching method is better than another, nor is it to argue that educators are wrong in their promotion of active learning and other modern teaching techniques. Instead, it is to probe student perceptions of the “professor as lecturer.” Why? If criticisms of the traditional lecture are examined carefully, a pattern of judgment of the lecturer versus the lecture itself emerges. Specifically, the lack of oratory skills possessed by the lecturer (Gross-Loh, 2016) is often cited as the reason for lectures being ineffective. Parallel to this, Richards and Velasquez (2014) conducted a study in which they identified a lack of engagement (defined as lectures and instructors not being engaging and material not being relevant) as the top mistake students perceived professors making when in a lecture setting (followed by faculty assumptions related to students’ prior knowledge, understanding, and motivation; incomplete explanations; and flawed instructional delivery due to voice projection as well as clarity and tone of speech). This begs the question: is it really the lecture method that should be criticized, or is it particular lecturers choosing an incompatible teaching style for their own personal strengths that is the problem?

Literature Overview

While the clear trend over the past two decades has been a call for less traditional lecturing and more active learning, there are advocates on all areas of the continuum. At one extreme exists authors arguing that active learning should replace the traditional lecture, that courses with extensive learning are meaningful to students, and that traditional lectures are overused (Evans & Omaha Boy, 1996; Feden, 2012). At the other extreme are those in favor of the traditional lecture, pointing out that there are times when students should directly be told what they need to know. Gooblar (2019) argues that “telling is an excellent method of communicating specific information,” and that sometimes professors need to “take the easiest route from A to B and just tell (i.e., lecture)” students. And it has to be noted that active learning and high-impact practices can be labor intensive, leading to faculty exhaustion (Halonen & Dunn, 2018). Finally, additional, often-overlooked advantages to a traditional lecture include students benefiting from hearing content explained from an expert in the field, as well as students experiencing positive emotional contagion after being exposed to a lecturer’s interest in, and enthusiasm about, a topic.
Many authors fall somewhere in the middle of this continuum ranging from active learning to traditional lectures. For example, many have suggested that lectures can be effective if interjected with opportunities for students to engage in processing exercises (Faust & Paulson, 1998; Kagan, 2014). Research from Larson and Lovelace (2013) supports the use of questions during lectures, which although more common among assistant professors, appear to garner more student responses for more experienced, associate professors. This same study also found support for questions during lectures being more effective at engaging students if “carefully crafted” and offered “at critical junctions throughout the lecture” instead of coming from a professor all at once, which may only “stimulate superficial engagement” (p. 116). Still yet, it is also recognized that a simple divide between traditional lecturing and active learning is not realistic, as there are many variables surrounding student success in traditional lecture classes—such as study habits and learning styles—that are not adequately considered in the debate about the teaching style’s effectiveness (Schermerhorn, Gardner, & Dresdow, 1992). In other words, to evaluate the potential of a teaching style, many variables about the professor, the students, and the content need to be evaluated.

**Results and Implications**

The potential implications of this study carry heavy weight for the role traditional lecture plays in the college classroom. At present, much of the criticism over traditional lecture is not on the lecture method itself, but instead on the characteristics of the lecturer or the lecture content. The present study seeks to separate judgments of the lecture method from these other variables. Findings would affect the type of teaching method chosen by a professor given the content they are communicating. If traditional lecture is decided to be the best learning method for a particular topic for students, then the results of this study would also impact professional development training programs aimed at the traditional lecture method that are designed for professors.

**Conclusion**

The past two decades have allowed for a barrage of criticism regarding traditional lectures in the college classroom, and calls have been made to replace the antiquated teaching method with active learning. While active learning may be an effective way to educate students, the traditional lecture may still fulfill a critical role in student learning, thus not deserving the harsh judgement it has received. This study attempts to better understand the role of the traditional lecture by gaining insight into whether the lecture method can be distinguished during evaluation from the lecturer and the lecture content. Implications can assist in guiding professors in their choice of teaching method as well as in the design of professional development opportunities for professors.

**References**


Knowledge Requirements Fulfillment Analysis

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Knowledge management, knowledge spectrum

Introduction

The critical loss of knowledge and expertise that resulted from business process re-engineering demonstrated the need for a knowledge management perspective (Adamson, 2005). Knowledge management requires continuous auditing of organizational intellectual capital and the mapping of existing knowledge resources (Stewart, 2002). Like chemistry’s table of elements, the knowledge spectrum organizes a large amount of information about knowledge. Based on knowledge spectrum properties, a dialogue can be established with managers enabling them to define their business process knowledge requirements (BPKR). This BPKR information would be stored in BPKR trees. This information would be used to establish a dialogue with the knowledge workers of the firm, enabling them to catalog their possession of business process knowledge. Using a business example, this paper illustrates the value of the information in BPKR trees and how it can support knowledge requirements fulfillment analysis. Although this is a simple
example, it demonstrates that knowledge requirement fulfillment analysis would enable organizations to determine if their knowledge workers satisfy, exceed, or fall below the knowledge requirements of their assigned tasks.

**Literature Review**

Randles, Miller, and Blades (2011) introduced knowledge requirements fulfillment analysis drawing from telemedicine research. Randles and Thachenkary (2002) suggest that diagnostic confidence was an emotion that preceded intelligent action and was related to the size of a physician’s knowledge gap. To test the validity of the four-stage model, Randles and Thachenkary (2002) studied the video recordings of teleconsultations and conducted telephone interviews with the consulting physicians. Their study revealed an average change in diagnostic confidence of 40% for teleconsultations conducted to make diagnoses and an average change of 18% to confirm diagnoses. This indicated that diagnostic confidence was inversely related to the size of the physician’s knowledge gap and that the successful processing of information and provision of explanations increased diagnostic confidence. Further, these researchers explained the relation between knowledge requirements, knowledge gaps, and diagnostic confidence. Furthermore, their four-stage model described the knowledge requirements that must be satisfied to move a diagnosis through its diagnostic stages. Each stage relies most prominently on a specific knowledge type to attain a specific form of insight, and diagnostic milestone (Randles and Thachenkary, 2002). This research resulted in a knowledge management approach known as knowledge chemistry, which utilized an engine and vehicle analogy (Randles and Fadlla, 2004) whereby the knowledge spectrum was the first proposition.

**Method**

The four-stage model of the diagnostic process described how diagnoses are made using three forms of insight (selective encoding, selective comparison, and selective combination) and seven knowledge types (declarative knowledge, rules, signals, maps, technical knowledge, semantic knowledge, and structuring causes). These knowledge types and forms of insight represent the basis of a schema of cognitive force, graphically depicted and known as the knowledge spectrum (Randles, Miller and Sayeed, 2017). In the knowledge spectrum the knowledge types and forms of insight are represented on a continuum according to their explicitness, technical feasibility, and ability to generate cognitive force (Randles, Blades, and Fadlla, 2012). This schema provides a static view of knowledge with underlying premises that suggest intelligent behavior occurs as a result of interactions between knowledge types.

The knowledge spectrum provides a framework for defining and assessing organizational knowledge requirements and knowledge resources, and, by describing a process as a sequence of stages, a detailed definition of an organization’s knowledge requirements can be generated through the inheritance of knowledge spectrum properties. These stages are represented by the level 1 branches of a BPKR tree - the behavioral/cognitive level of the tree.

Randles, Miller, and Blades (2011) suggested that business managers and knowledge workers provide knowledge requirements and knowledge profile information. This would provide an organization with two perspectives by which to define their requirements and catalogue their knowledge resources establishing a means to analyze managers’ and knowledge workers’
understandings of business processes. This would provide a means to validate knowledge workers’ possession of knowledge as well as managers who fail to recognize and use organization talent (Randles, Miller, and Blades, 2011). To optimize the use of knowledge workers, employee skills should be closely matched to requirements, and the first step in doing this is the creation of business process knowledge requirements (BPKR) trees. By defining business process knowledge requirements, knowledge spectrum information would be used to establish a dialogue with a firm’s business process managers. This dialogue would enable employees to create their knowledge profiles. This requirements and profile information would be used to support the conduct of knowledge requirements fulfillment analyses. From a definition of knowledge requirements, the process moves to the cataloguing of employees’ possession of these requirements, and the internal maps that guide intelligent behavior are the cornerstone of knowledge requirements fulfillment analysis. Then queries about these internal maps can produce detailed or summary definitions of business process knowledge requirements.

The intent of this paper is to present an example of how knowledge requirements fulfillment analyses would be conducted using employee knowledge profile information.

**Results**

To perform complex business processes, many knowledge requirements must be satisfied. In assigning employees to tasks, employees with complementary skills should be identified. As depicted in Table 1, Analyst A and B formed a complementary relationship that enabled them to successfully complete many projects over several years. Because Analyst A was adept at the design of information systems, Analyst A would immediately begin the design of any information system that was to be coded by their team. Meanwhile Analyst B would complete the documentation of the information system that was just designed. Analyst A was also adept at identifying existing programs that were similar to what was required. Using existing (tested) code, Analyst A would quickly code and test the program with the greatest functionality. After finishing the documentation and walk-through for the previous system that Analyst A and B had designed, coded, and tested, Analyst B would become involved in coding the next system. Using Analyst A’s code as a template, Analyst B would create several other programs bringing each of them to 80% completion. Unfortunately, Analyst B faltered in working out the final problems identified during unit testing. The programs were completed by Analyst A while Analyst B would develop a test plan and create the test files for systems testing. The strengths and weaknesses of Analyst A and B are revealed in Table 6. This information illustrates that employees can be assigned to tasks for which they are best suited through an analysis of the knowledge requirements and employee knowledge profiles. By defining the knowledge requirements of projects more precisely, knowledge requirements fulfillment analyses should enable project leaders to establish the complementary relationships that Analyst A and B recognized through the successful completion of many projects over several years.

If implemented organization wide, a directory of business processes would be provided allowing knowledge workers to access specific BPKR trees. For example, the knowledge workers could select a technical skill from the menu, and this selection would invoke a dialogue which would guide the knowledge workers’ entry of information regarding their possession of the selected skill. The envisioned system could support the project manager’s effort to select a project team of 15
analysts that is required to develop approximately 200 lower level data flow diagrams. To select the team, available analysts would be assessed to determine if they possessed the required knowledge to use the tool - data flow diagrams. Of the available analysts who can use the specified tool, information about the process knowledge they possess is obtained, which reveals the analysts’ understanding of organization processes. The analysts who best understand the tool (data flow diagrams) and possess required process knowledge would be selected for the team.

Limitations and Direction for Future Research

This paper has provided several examples of knowledge requirements fulfillment analysis. Implementation of the envisioned system would reveal many more interesting scenarios. However, these examples demonstrate that knowledge spectrum information can be used to establish a dialogue with business process managers and knowledge workers, and this dialogue would produce information to support the conduct of knowledge requirements fulfillment analysis. Because the knowledge spectrum and the knowledge chemistry approach provide a concise but comprehensive way of describing organization knowledge requirements and knowledge resources, they can support the effective cataloging, measurement, and analysis of organization knowledge requirements and resources. Although only a concept, the development of the templates that would drive the envisioned system does not seem a daunting task. The development of a prototype system seems a fruitful next step.

References


## Appendix Table 1. Knowledge Profiles of CTMS Analysts A and B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Leaf Id and BPKR Query</th>
<th>Emp. A</th>
<th>Emp. B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logical Design</td>
<td>Data Model 2.2</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to develop data models using Entity Relationship Diagrams?</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Design</td>
<td>Logical Model 2.3</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to develop logical models using hierarchy charts with narrative?</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Design</td>
<td>Walk-through 3.3</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to make a verbal presentation of the hierarchy charts?</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Coding / 2</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to code and de-bug computer programs using language A?</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Test Plan Dev/ 3.1</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to develop a test plan to test coded computer programs?</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Test Data Dev/ 3.2</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to create test data and test files for program testing?</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Test Plan Imp / 3.3</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to implement a test plan for coded computer programs?</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Documentation / 4</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to provide the documentation for coded and tested computer programs?</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Script writing / 5.1</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to write a script for the verbal presentation of the programs and test results?</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Visual Present. / 5.2</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to prepare a visual presentation of the programs and test results?</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Walk-through / 5.3</td>
<td>How confident are you in your ability to make a verbal presentation of the coded programs and test results?</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classroom Activities to Build Ethical Awareness

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Key words:
Business ethics, activities, ethical issues, ethics awareness

Introduction

Ethics is a standard of behavior governing what is right, fair, and just. Education and training can and does play an indispensable role in the development of ethics based upon society, business, and individual ethics. Additionally, employers want educators to make students aware of the social and behavioral expectations of their future employees (Hoffman & Chowdhury, 1998; Johnson & Orr, 1999).

Students must learn to make ethical decisions because when they enter the workplace they will be faced with situations in which unethical decisions are being made by others. Research abounds on the amount of unethical behavior existing in businesses today. International Survey Research found that half of U.S. workers admitted to unethical or illegal behavior, including forging signatures, employee theft, and cheating on expenses (Jones, 1998). A survey of almost 2,000 workers found that the five most common ethical violations in the workplace were cutting corners on quality control, covering up incidents, abusing or lying about sick days, lying or deceiving customers, and putting inappropriate pressure on others to do something unethical (Ethics Association, American Society of Chartered Life Underwriters, & Chartered Financial Consultants, 1997). Fortune 1000 company vice presidents stated that dishonesty is the major characteristic that upsets employers most. Other attributes that displease employers included irresponsibility; arrogance; aggressiveness; absenteeism; bad attitude; and lack of commitment, motivation, and respect.

As ethical decision making is an essential tool for the manager today, students must be taught the process for making informed decisions and communicating those decisions to constituents in an appropriate manner.

This paper focuses on activities that help students to determine their own “code of ethics” using a series of steps in self-reflection and discussion. Through the use of case study and debate, students make choices and develop their own guide to ethical decision making. Students determine the parameters, ethical principles, legal responsibilities, and adequate communication to resolve an ethical issue.
Literature Review

Kallman and Grillo (1993) defined ethics as the process of making principled choices, but not trying to persuade others to take on one’s own beliefs. Fulton-Calkins (2003) elaborated, stating that ethics is a systematic study of moral conduct, duty, and judgment; similar to Odgers & Keeling’s (2000) definition of ethics as systematic thinking about the consequences of decisions. Ethics is a code of rules, written or unwritten, that specifies what is right or wrong; an ethical dilemma occurs when an individual is not sure if there is a clear solution that is right or wrong. Educators can help students rationalize their choices by introducing and explaining the fundamentals of ethical decision making. Then, educators and students must examine the principles and models that can be applied when they are faced with ethical dilemmas (Balachandran, 2002).

Odgers and Keeling (2000) embraced the following ethical standards, among others: honesty, fairness, social responsibility, and respect for the law. Josephson Institute of Ethics additionally identified ethical business behavior to include integrity, trustworthiness, loyalty, respect for others, commitment to excellence, leadership, reputation, and accountability. The six pillars of character established by the Josephson Institute of Ethics, are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trustworthiness: honesty, integrity, reliability, and loyalty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respect: civility, courtesy, decency, dignity, tolerance, and acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility: accountability, pursuit of excellence, and self-restraint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness: process, impartiality, and equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social responsibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Josephson’s (2002) Six Pillars of Character

Professional ethics are an important characteristic of a profession, especially the public profession of duties and moral commitment (Wagner, 1996). Wagner further assessed that, assuming people are ethical, training in professional ethics helps one to act as a moral person in the practice of that profession.

Ethics allow one to determine the difference between that which is right and that which is wrong. It is not always easy to determine what is right and what is wrong. While the law can be used as a guideline, decisions involving ethical issues may not always involve legal issues (Thomas, 2004).

While legality and ethical concerns are not exactly the same, they may intersect at times (Thomas, 2004). Since the public as a whole elect the lawmakers, the ethics of voters and lobbyists will influence the actions of those lawmakers. Laws are compelling by nature. Laws are recognized by society as enforceable by government authorities; but, the law still does not cover all ethical behavior (Thomas, 2004). Some decisions may be perfectly legal, while considered unethical in certain cultures or norms of society. Those instances are when students need to be able to make informed, ethical choices based upon acceptable ethics and morals.
Wagner (1996) provided a checklist for ethics and explained rights, duties, ethics, and policy. He further discussed the duty individuals have to others in their profession, community, and discipline. While Wagner gave specifics in the teaching discipline, his ethical principles apply to all people. A variation of Wagner’s list of ethical principles appears in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ethical principle</th>
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<th>ethical principle</th>
<th>ethical principle</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t use people for personal gain.</td>
<td>Be fair, treating equals equally and unequals unequally.</td>
<td>Think through the moral consequences of your actions.</td>
<td>Treat others with respect.</td>
<td>Consider all relevant sides before making a decision.</td>
<td>Do the right thing.</td>
<td>Adhere to your special duties in each of your roles within society. Using so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Wagner’s (1996) List of Ethical Principles**

Ethical decisions are based on the everyday skill to make distinctions between competing choices (Josephson, 2002). Josephson’s seven-step path to making ethical decisions takes on a generic scientific approach as can be seen in Table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>step</th>
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<th>step</th>
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</table>

**Table 3. Josephson’s (2002) Path to Ethical Decision Making**

Leslie (2000) stressed another structured approach for decision making that is based upon the scientific method for problem solving, but also breaks down the problem in the form of legal, ethical, and/or social concerns. One of Leslie’s decision making models is shown in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>step</th>
<th>step</th>
<th>step</th>
<th>step</th>
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<th>step</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Table 4. Leslie’s (2000) Structured Approach for Decision Making**
1. Consider three critical criteria: legality, company policy compliance, and professional code of ethics.

2. Know the facts: research the problem.

3. Identify possible alternatives: analyze each for right and wrong.

4. Identify the stakeholders: anyone affected by the decision.

5. Consider each alternative in relation to stakeholders: costs and benefits creating the most good and least harm.

6. Determine if the possible solution passes the Golden Rule test: “Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.”

7. Determine how you feel about the possible solution: reflect, ask yourself the informal ethical test questions.

8. Consider the opinions of others: ask those who have no stake in the decision.

9. Consider how the decision is to be implemented: time frame, individual commitment, communicating to stakeholders, etc.

10. Implement the solution and take responsibility for the decision: get feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students must be able to rationalize a situation to determine the ethicality and legality of the circumstances. There is evidence that supports the teaching of ethics in the classroom (Johnson &amp; Orr, 1999; Hoffman &amp; Chowdhury, 1998). Ethics can be promoted in the classroom by having students conduct research, self-assessment, and collaboration (Johnson &amp; Orr, 1999), and by promoting discussion and debates of questionable ethical decisions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Methodology**

There has been substantial research in the area of ethical decision making. Several authors have developed lists of principles or steps to facilitate ethical choices. All of the guidelines begin with giving much thought to the harm and benefit the final decision will have not only on all members of the group but also on the individuals affected by the decision. Using some of the models found in the research, classroom activities were created to enhance ethical awareness.

**Results: Classroom Assignments in Ethics**

The following ethics activities allow students the opportunity to self-reflect, analyze, and evaluate situations and solutions to determine acceptable ethical or unethical outcomes. Any of these activities may be modified or combined to fit any discipline, class level, or purpose.

**Activity 1**

Divide the class into groups by major. Give each group a relevant, real-world case scenario that they can apply to their discipline. For example, the marketing majors may have a case concerning false advertising, management students may deal with employees taking home office supplies, and technology majors may have the issue of employee monitoring (i.e., Internet use, e-mail, idle computer time, etc.).
Activity 2

Give students a controversial debate topic where they choose a side that they think is the ethical response. Have them do some research for a debate. When it is class time for the debate, have the students write their ethical viewpoint and why they believe this. Have them explain the circumstances that have led them to believe that opinion, i.e., upbringing, generation, media, etc. Collect the papers, and then have the students debate the opposite side that they had written about. Therefore, they should refute their own arguments. Then, have them do the same writing assignment for the side they debated, listing the circumstances that could happen in a person’s life to give them that point of view. This helps students to broaden their viewpoint and to understand how others make decisions.

Activity 3

Have students create a grid and give scenarios for each of the following situations:

- Something that is legal and ethical
- Something that is legal and unethical
- Something that is illegal and ethical
- Something that is illegal and unethical

An example is shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Legal</th>
<th>Illegal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unethical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 4

Give students an ethical case study, and have them answer the following questions:

- What are the ethical issues?
- What are the relevant facts?
- Does a specific ethical policy exist (e.g., Hippocratic Oath, company code, etc.)?
- List the stakeholders, including those who may not be specified in the situation.
- Define the relationship between each stakeholder and the ethical issue.
- Is there a conflict of interest that exists, or could exist?
- Explain how someone could be harmed by a decision.
- Explain how anyone could benefit from a decision.
- What would the following people say about the situation:
  - Your grandmother?
  - Your mother?
• Your religious leader?
• Your neighbor?
• Your boss?
• Your co-worker?
• An acquaintance that lives in another country?
• Your friend of a race, gender, and/or age other than yours?

• What are the implications of the decision?
• How will a decision affect your conscience?

In teaching ethics, there may be several right answers, or answers that are more right than others. Therefore, it is necessary to allow for multiple right answers in an essay style ethics question if the rightness of the answer changes based upon the situation and the student’s value system (Foulger, 2002). Hence, the end result (outcome) stresses the importance of students being able to identify the conflicting issues, possible options, impact of decisions, and other facts about the ethics of the scenario.

Conclusion

Students must be aware of their own ethics when faced with a questionable situation so that they may think about the problem, assess the options, and make the best ethical choice before they take action. Ultimately, students must understand that no matter what their choice, right or wrong, they are to be held accountable for their decision.

References


Going Overseas to Teach: Lessens from One Business Professor’s Experiences in Asia

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Key words:
Teaching in Asia, Teaching in Korea, Acculturation, Sabbatical Experiences

Introduction

Many faculty members at U.S. universities will get a chance to go overseas and teach or spend a year on sabbatical. This abstract offers some insights the writer feels will be generally helpful to professors who are considering going to Asia and specifically helpful for professors who are going to Korea.

Focal Entity

During two full year sabbaticals, about eight years apart and every summer for about 10 years, the investigator taught in the College of Business at Ewha Woman’s University in South Korea. Located in West Main Gate District in Seoul, it is the ninth ranked university in Korea and far and away the highest ranked women’s university. The first female prime minister, the first female president and many former first ladies are graduates. It is also the most internationally oriented university in a country where business is very export driven and externally oriented, but society at large is very internally focused and traditionalist.

Entrance to universities in Korea is based on a fact intensive (memorization reinforcing) national exam, but Ewha uses its own internal exam. Almost every year a scandal is uncovered on the national exam where the professors who write the substantive area questions sell inside knowledge. Ewha puts its professors on a closed floor of the main dorm several days before the test, seizes their cell phones to keep them incommunicado and brings in food in an attempt to maintain the sanctity of its entrance exam.

The principle investigator came into this situation from a regional state university in the United States. It is a very good regional university and the PI is proud to work there, but going to an Ivy League level school required a substantial adjustment.
Adaptive Challenges: Student Competitiveness

The classes have strict grade quotas with limits on the number of As and Bs a professor can give out along with a mandatory quota of Cs. As you can imagine this creates an intensely competitive environment. I remember having to give Bs to students with 94.5% averages. Another time, there was a pretty clear break between the top 20% (who could receive As) and the others below, so I asked the students if they would like for me to give an easier final than I had originally intended. To my surprise, I received numerous emails (and personal visits) from students asking me to make the final as hard as possible. And even though I made the final very difficult, none of the 11 A-qualifying students (out of 55) scored less than a 95%. In another class, students got really mad when I let a couple of students into class a couple minutes late without penalizing them. The C students were very popular and it was not uncommon to see other students entreating (begging) them not to drop the class. If you teach in a similar competitive environment in Asia, a strict approach to attendance, assignment deadlines and test grading is not merely apropos, but necessary.

Adaptive Challenges: Language Barrier

Language is another issue. Westerners, particularly Americans, overestimate the ubiquitous of English. Few people in Japan, Korea and China speak English. If you stay in high end hotels and take tours organized for foreigners, you can get by just using English. If you really want to absorb culture, though, learning the language really opens the doors of experience. Just learning level 1 language skills made a huge difference. And functional fluency made all the difference for me in my time in Korea. The effect of culture/language on how people think can never be clear to someone who doesn’t know the language. Nevertheless, I knew expats who had lived in Korea for 10 or 15 years and never learned Korean. Some of them had adapted amazingly well. They could go to restaurants, use the transit system and direct taxi drivers, but it always seemed to me that they were on the outside looking in.

Adaptive Challenges: After Hours Work Party Culture

A commonly held (and often cited) belief among Koreans, themselves, is that Koreans are number two in the world behind Russians in alcohol consumptions per capita. A World Health Organization study (WHO 2014) shows them 17th with Russia merely 4th (though formerly Soviet bloc countries hold all of the top five and 8 of 10 top spots). Still, drinking alcohol is heavily ingrained in the culture and there is an amazing tolerance for drunkenness and over-drinking. The widespread availability of cheap transportation, which eliminates the principle societal problem of drunk driving, may have something to do with that. Nevertheless, you should expect to go to four or five after-hours events every semester, all (not most, all) of which involve drinking. It is common to be asked (and it was asked of me) in job interviews. “Can you drink?” Not “Do you drink?” or a euphemism such as “Do you like events where people drink?” And they really mean it as “Do you have the ability to drink alcohol?” Someone who answers “no” to this question is traditionally not hired.

There are a few pan Asian tricks that will help you survive these events. The easiest is to just sip, but never finish your drink. If you finish an adult beverage, it is customary for someone to refill
your glass, which is done as a sign of respect and friendship. It also helps to avoid the drink to get drunk beverage. In Korea, Soju, a rice liquor somewhere about half way between wine or beer and whiskey in strength, is the primary drink to get drunk option, though western style bourbon and scotch is becoming more popular. Drinking wine or beer will help you avoid the get-drunk peer pressure. Also, there are often three stages or “sets.” The first set is the dinner, awards ceremony or whatever the event is. Then, there is a second stage or set which involves after dinner drinks. Because everyone has just eaten, I found these events to be mild, pleasant and collegial. Finally, there is a third set. The only thing I can say about the third set is that you should tell your colleagues early on that you will not be doing the third set. If you are able to drink without acting like a total fool, though, I encourage you to go to these events through the second set and keep up with them drink for drink at least once in your first semester. There is no faster way to build esteem in the eyes of your colleagues.

Adaptive Challenges: Gender Relations

Things have improved dramatically. When I went to Korea for a full year the first time, Ewha had just changed a longstanding rule that married students could not attend the university. Women were expected to retire after marriage and have children, a prejudice which still exists, if at a lower level of intensity. Sadly, I also witnessed several episodes of brutally unsubtle sexual harassment during that first year, during which episodes I am ashamed to say, I spinelessly did not intervene.

When I went for a full year the second time, I attended the Korean language orientation which actually contained a newly minted module on sexual harassment. I knew it was new because the senior male professor at the orientation said, while looking right at me. “Yes, up until a couple years ago, nobody had ever even heard of sexual harassment.” The Korean language does not even have words for it. They used the English words in the Roman alphabet instead of Hangul. It is also more common (but not ubiquitous) for women to continue working past marriage and childbirth. Nevertheless, as recently as 2015, Korea ranked 115th out of 145 countries on gender equality—behind countries like Saudi Arabia, Afghanistan and Burkina Faso (World Economic Forum 2015). During my first year there, I had a temporary one year term and was not required to attend student orientations, faculty meetings and the like. During my second year-long appointment, eight years later, I was a regular full professor who went to all the meetings, spoke at orientation and generally had all the normal responsibilities of being a member of the faculty. The female professors in the business school were not at all reticent or apprehensive about giving their opinions during meetings, interviews or other work activities. Key department positions and assignments, including the department chair of marketing, were held by women. The bias was more subtle and seemed to affect social events more than work itself. During my two years and eight summers at Ewha, not one of my female colleagues, who made up about 40% of the faculty total and 50% to 60% of the younger (pre-full professor) faculty, ever went to the second set of an after-hours work event. My department chair, who I considered a good friend, often talked about how difficult these things were for her. She said to me more than once, “I still feel the societal pressure to take care of my husband and mother in-law.” Some of the younger female professors talked about the difficulty of finding a husband who was equal in status and education to them. They were shocked when I said many of my female colleagues in the U.S. were happily married to men who were tradesmen and did blue collar jobs.
Some U.K. and American female colleagues in the International College at Ewha reported they had issues with Asian men, reporting that Asian men were intimidated by them and would not treat them as equals or colleagues. In contrast several Korean language proficient colleagues from non-English speaking countries pointedly noted that they thought Korean and Japanese men were much nicer and more respectful of them than European men.

Female professors who go to Asia will have challenges that male professors do not have. Still, that would be true here, in Europe or pretty much anywhere. My principal admonition is to learn the language (and thus the culture). It is also important that you understand that everybody who goes to another country and interacts with people in different language will make mistakes in communication and commit cultural faux pas. It is important that you not try or expect to be perfect.

**Conclusion**

I have focused my attention on the challenges professors or lecturers who go overseas will face. Nevertheless, I absolutely recommend that anyone who gets the chance should do it. It is a great experience. It will make you a better teacher when you return, and you will often have the chance to work collaboratively with some very high powered researchers.

If you go, there will be challenges with student competitiveness, outside work hour events and dealing with a very different gender relations environment. All in all, though, the benefits way outweigh the challenges.

**References**


Selling Technologically Complex Products in Underdeveloped Markets: The Relative Roles of Issue Versus Solution Framing

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Key words:  
B2B selling, issue framing, solution framing

Introduction

In today’s dynamic business-to-business (B2B) selling environment, sales organizations increasingly differentiate themselves from competitors by providing customers with total solutions rather than stand-alone products (Ulaga & Kohli, 2018). The transition from product to solution selling is even more critical in the context of high-technology B2B selling (Sharma et al., 2008). However, solution selling remains challenging and its success depends on the salespeople’s ability to transform the buyer’s mind-set from an ego- and firm-centric orientation to a collaboration-centric orientation, a key factor that increases the buyer’s willingness to update knowledge and explore new solutions (Kaski et al., 2019).

Buyers in underdeveloped markets, which are characterized as markets with “low economic level of industrial production and standard of living” (Merriam-Webster.com), often do not enjoy the same level of exposure to technological innovations as do buyers in developed markets. In
underdeveloped markets, the focus is not on new technological innovations, but frequently on the assimilation of existing innovations. This lack of exposure likely acts as an inhibitor to forming an exploratory, collaborative mindset that triggers a favorable consideration of unfamiliar and new (as opposed to familiar and prototypical) information (Hansen & Topolinski, 2011). Given that underdeveloped markets represent untapped opportunities for companies, it is both theoretically and practically meaningful to understand how salespeople can help buyers in underdeveloped markets adopt a favorable mind-set that allows buyers and sellers to jointly create solutions.

Buyers tend to evaluate the new information and solutions against their current frame of reference (Kaski et al., 2019). Thus, when selling to buyers in underdeveloped markets who may have a fixed mind-set, it is imperative that salespeople strive to alter the buyer’s existing frames by presenting new viewpoints (Witte et al., 2008). However, little sales research exists on how salespeople should frame the issues and solutions when presenting new information to buyers. Since a key role played by salespeople in solution selling is to reduce uncertainties for buyers (Ulaga & Kohli, 2018), this research examines how salespeople can properly frame issues vs. solutions to reduce different types of uncertainties associated with the solution provision process.

**Theoretical Background and Propositions**

Salespeople play a pivotal role in providing new information to customers, helping customers recognize problems and issues, and working with customers to find solutions to problems (Kaski et al., 2019). Previous sales research has identified three types of uncertainties that salespeople must attempt to reduce in the solution selling process: (1) need uncertainty, (2) process uncertainty, and (3) outcome uncertainty (Ulaga & Kohli, 2018). These uncertainties are particularly pronounced in underdeveloped markets, where knowledge and exposure with regard to new technologies can be lagging. Conceivably, issue framing is associated with need uncertainty, whereas solution framing is associated with process and outcome uncertainties.

First, if potential buyers do not see a problem or an issue, there is little value in advancing a solution (Alt & Craig, 2016). We suggest that the salesperson’s issue framing can facilitate or inhibit the buyer’s issue recognition. When presenting technological innovations to buyers in underdeveloped markets, salespeople can frame an issue as an opportunity or a threat (Mittal & Ross, 1998). According to the strategic management literature, threat perception is “a deep sense of vulnerability that is assumed to be negative, likely to result in loss, and largely out of one’s control” (Gilbert, 2005, p. 742). While a strong sense of threat perception can unlock resource rigidity (inertia to change resource investment patterns), it nevertheless amplifies routine rigidity (inertia to change organizational processes that use the resources) (Gilbert, 2005). For salespeople working with buyers in underdeveloped markets, routine rigidity may be a bigger concern or challenge than resource rigidity, because routines tend to be self-reinforcing and tacit. Routines are organizational processes that are tightly aligned with the external environment (Gilbert, 2005), and buyers in underdeveloped markets would likely not have an external environment that necessitates the change. Thus, to help buyers not feel vulnerable or defensive, opportunity framing is proposed to work more favorably than threat framing in reducing need uncertainty:
Proposition 1: When selling technologically complex products to underdeveloped markets, opportunity framing will be more effective than threat framing in reducing need uncertainty.

Second, how salespeople should frame the solutions to reduce process and outcome uncertainties is another important consideration. It is possible that buyers in the underdeveloped markets feel particularly unsure if the technological innovation will work properly with the existing organizational resources (a process-oriented consideration) and if the innovation will indeed benefit the organization (an outcome-oriented consideration).

According to consumer decision making literature, while loss-oriented frames are most effective when paired with low-level, concrete information (the “how”), gain-oriented frames are most effective when paired with high-level, abstract information (the “why”) (White et al., 2011). By extending this logic, the loss/how frame may be particularly effective for salespeople to reduce process uncertainty for buyers in underdeveloped markets. Conversely, the gain/why frame may be particularly effective for salespeople to reduce outcome uncertainty for those buyers. The appropriate framing is likely to activate the right mind-set needed to see the technology-based solution as less uncertain or risky with respect to its process and outcome.

For example, when working with buyers to co-create solutions, to reduce process uncertainty, the salesperson may ask the buyer to think about what will be lost if the company does not adapt technologically and also identify different ways (the “how”) to adapt and change. To reduce outcome uncertainty, the salesperson may ask the buyer to think about what will be gained if the company adapts and change and also identify different reasons (the “why”) to the adaptation and change. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 2: When selling technologically complex products to underdeveloped markets, loss/how framing will be more effective than gain/why framing in reducing process uncertainty.

Proposition 3: When selling technologically complex products to underdeveloped markets, gain/why framing will be more effective than loss/how framing in reducing outcome uncertainty.

Conclusion

When selling technologically complex products to buyers in underdeveloped markets, one main challenge is that those buyers may not have a mind-set that allows them to comprehend and appreciate the technological innovation. Thus, it is imperative that salespeople contextualize issues and solutions in a frame that is meaningful and relevant to buyers to reduce feelings of uncertainties. In the context of selling socially oriented innovations to for-profit organizations, previous research has suggested that seller not conflate the way they craft issues with the way they craft solutions (Alt & Craig, 2016). By extending the same logic, when selling technologically oriented innovations in underdeveloped markets, it is important to pay equal attention to the issue vs. solution framing by not conflating the two. Accordingly, a set of propositions is proposed here to provide some prescriptive advice to salespeople on how to frame the issue vs. solution appropriately when working with buyers in undeveloped markets in the context of selling technologically advanced offerings.
This research offers significant implications for the evolution of the concept of transformative selling, which is a modern customer centric approach to business-to-business (B2B) consultative sales, that benefits customers, helps them to achieve their objectives, and reduces perceived uncertainties.

References


Preparing the Business Workforce: Developing Social and Ethical Responsibility via Volunteerism

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Key words:
Ethics, Social Responsibility, Higher Education, Volunteerism, Communication

Introduction

Why do some actively volunteer and give back to their communities, often doing so without encouragement, while others do not? What motivates an individual to ‘do the right thing’, even when no one is looking or would notice? Does this stem from one’s ability to effectively make ethical decisions, and as educators, can we help to hone this skill? A college education, specifically one in business, helps prepare individuals to be successful and thrive in a competitive environment. As such, required curriculum, including that of business ethics, drives home the importance of thinking rationally, making good decisions, and understanding that success is often measured by much more than salary or promotions. It is the authors’ contention that encouraging students to actively participate in volunteerism will not only help them to better understand business relationships, but also encourages graduates to be more productive members of a society that understand the importance of giving back far beyond collegiate years. This study aims to identify and examine the motivations for volunteering and making ethical decisions in general, intentions
to participate (and continue to participate) in volunteerism projects, facilitating improved communication, and ways to further encourage volunteerism.

**Literature Overview**

A multitude of research in support of volunteerism exists, both at the individual/employee and corporate level. In fact, nine out of ten U.S. firms encourage employee volunteerism, and over two-thirds of them offer time off to do so (Pelloza & Hassay, 2006). Allowing employees time to volunteer, coupled with financial and other support from the overall organization results in a win-win for firms. First, employers can gain increased brand awareness and image as they give back to the communities in which they operate (Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000). Second, employees gain valuable experience and development of interpersonal and communication skills through these activities, while improving morale and overall commitment to the organization as a result. Philanthropy and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are peppered within many business courses throughout collegiate programs, and for good reason. Today’s graduates are expected to understand the importance of being a good citizen, and further, their employers will expect them to activity participate in charitable programs, both as an individual in pursuit of greater societal good, and as a moral representative of the organization.

The measurement of ethics and ethicality of decisions has a long history in scholarly literature across most all disciplines. However, research conducted by Reidenbach and Robin (1990) and Reidenbach et al., (1991) brought to light the inadequacies of a single-dimensional construct of ethics. They propose that because ethicality is such a complex construct, a multi-item, multi-trait approach utilizing these three dimensions is more effective in capturing the true nature of the relationship. As such, their research suggests that the ethics construct is multifaceted, being comprised of three dimensions—moral equity (fairness and justice), relativism (cultural and traditional acceptability), and contractualism (legality; unspoken promises; unwritten contracts). Although the original scales developed by Reidenbach and colleagues to assess the three dimensions of ethicality used as many as 33 items of measurement, a reduced set of measures was later developed by Reidenbach et al., (1991). Table 1 identifies these measurement constructs, as will be operationalized in this research, and their related dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Measurement Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral Equity</td>
<td>Fair/Unfair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Just/Unjust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morally Right/Not Morally Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptable to My Family/Unacceptable to My Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativism</td>
<td>Culturally Acceptable/Unacceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditionally Acceptable/Unacceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractualism</td>
<td>Violates/Does Not Violate an Unwritten Contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violates/Does Not Violate an Unspoken Promise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1: Measurement Dimensions and Corresponding Items**
Methodology

Methodology for this project involved students enrolled in a college-level Business Ethics course. As a part of the class, students were required to participate in a volunteerism project of their choosing, with involvement in an organization that falls into one of the following categories: Religious, Social Services (e.g., Habitat for Humanity, Meals on Wheels), Environmental Causes, Medical (e.g., Cancer Society, Special Olympics), Athletic, Youth Development, or other sectors as approved by the professor. Students were also asked to classify their work based on the following categories: Donated Time: Manual Labor; Donated Time: Donated Services; Donated Time: Fundraising; Donated Time: Serving on Board; Donated Property: Donated Monies, or Donated Property: Donated Clothes, Food, Building Materials, etc. Two semesters of data were collected (n=343).

Before volunteering, students were required to complete a pre-assessment survey, which assessed students’ current volunteering activity level (how often), influences/reasons for volunteering, enthusiasm toward volunteering, and overall ethics, examined as a multidimensional construct, which more deeply explains fundamental causes for making ethical decisions. After participating in a volunteer project, students were required to complete a post-assessment, which not only captured information about the organization for which the work was completed, but again assessed students’ influences/reasons for volunteering, overall ethics, enthusiasm toward volunteering as a result of the project, and enthusiasm toward continued volunteer work with the same organization.

In addition to examining the influences and continued commitment to volunteering as a result of the in-class project, an additional manipulation was added. As an additional project requirement, students were also required to create a poster describing their volunteerism experience. These posters were then displayed around the business building of the authors’ institution for other students to see and experience. The first set of posters, which accompanied the first semester’s data collection were average, at best. For the second semester of data collection, a special lecture was included to discuss skills to communicate effectively, specifically when doing so through a visual medium (e.g., poster). Topics such as effective use of white space, emphasizing written content, creating effective visuals, professionalism, and consistency were discussed. In an attempt to assert if an improvement in communication via the student posters was achieved, the grade distribution for this assignment between the two semesters was statistically examined.

Results and Implications

Several interesting findings emerged from an initial examination of the data. The table below depicts questions asked of respondents to assess motivations for participation and percentage of responses, which include contractualism markers, relativism markers, and moral equity markers, among others, as prior research has suggested to measure ethics as a multidimensional construct (Reidenbach & Robin, 1990; Ellis, & Griffith 2001). Initial analyses of the collected data suggest that there are indeed statistically significant differences between motivating factors of making ethical decisions, including volunteering, all of which contribute to the overall relationship. Furthermore, each of the dimensions significantly contribute to the overall model supporting how and why students make decisions and engage in activities based on their ethical perception of the activity (in this case, volunteering). Additionally, respondents indicated that their enthusiasm for volunteerism was increased and their intentions to continue with volunteering also increased.
Table 2. Influences to Volunteer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morally the right thing to do</td>
<td>2.04%</td>
<td>0.87%</td>
<td>0.58%</td>
<td>7.29%</td>
<td>16.33%</td>
<td>37.03%</td>
<td>35.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culturally acceptable thing to do</td>
<td>1.76%</td>
<td>1.47%</td>
<td>1.76%</td>
<td>14.66%</td>
<td>16.13%</td>
<td>37.24%</td>
<td>29.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic duty to support this organization</td>
<td>2.33%</td>
<td>1.75%</td>
<td>1.46%</td>
<td>14.87%</td>
<td>18.37%</td>
<td>32.36%</td>
<td>28.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable to my family</td>
<td>2.33%</td>
<td>3.79%</td>
<td>1.46%</td>
<td>15.45%</td>
<td>7.00%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
<td>41.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable to my friends</td>
<td>3.22%</td>
<td>3.51%</td>
<td>2.34%</td>
<td>17.84%</td>
<td>8.48%</td>
<td>27.49%</td>
<td>37.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Résumé building</td>
<td>4.09%</td>
<td>3.51%</td>
<td>4.68%</td>
<td>16.08%</td>
<td>16.96%</td>
<td>28.36%</td>
<td>26.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was required to do so as a part of a contract (for a class/school project)</td>
<td>3.79%</td>
<td>7.58%</td>
<td>3.50%</td>
<td>13.12%</td>
<td>15.45%</td>
<td>26.53%</td>
<td>30.03%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As another requirement for the volunteerism project, students were asked to prepare a poster board describing their experience (e.g., name of the organization, mission of the organization, number of volunteered hours, visual expression of the volunteer work). After submission, these posters were displayed around the building for other students and faculty to view; the idea being that these examples of volunteerism might potentially spark interest in others and also create an awareness of the value of volunteer work. As mentioned, in the first semester of data collection, students did, at best, an adequate job of creating these posters for display. Requirements were met; however, the quality of work and overall communication skills represented were less than desired. In hopes of improving both the aesthetic quality, content, and overall communication impact of the posters, the authors held a special professionalism/communication lecture for the students during the second semester of data collection to discuss how to best prepare their work. All enrolled students received this information, both in the form of a verbal lecture and a PDF handout. Data was collected regarding the final poster grade for both semesters, where the only controlled difference was the inclusion of the communication/professionalism lecture. An Independent Samples t-Test was conducted to examine whether an overall statistically significant difference between the two semester grades existed. Interestingly, but not surprisingly, there indeed was a difference between the two semester grades for the poster portion of the assignment (t=8.133; p<0.001); rather, a significant improvement from the first semester (without lecture) to the second (with lecture). This lends support to a continued emphasis and discussion of effective communication with students, that in turn, could spark the desire for others to engage in volunteerism.

Conclusion

Future research continues into the remainder of this academic year. A third round of full data collection is in process, including pre and post assessment data collection. Further analyses of the data will include Structural Equation Modeling to examine relationship paths of the ethical dimensions, and both t-test and ANOVA to compare subsets of students/demographic relationship
groups to find statistically significant differences to further understand motivations behind volunteerism and ethical decision making.

References


IDEASA+ Design Thinking: Federal Governed Phase 0-III System

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Key words:
Aerospace, Design Thinking, Critical Thinking, Creative Problem-Solving,

Introduction

The research studied is metacognitive design thinking aligned to digital twin/traditional models. Design Thinking is important as a tool to aid the study of any problem, issue or phenomenon. We specify the problem, issue or phenomenon of teaching design thinking federally governed phases by an applied study to disseminate major phases 0-III idea art-to-part product design to fairing developments. For K-12 institutions and higher the appendix fig 0: Design Thinking Matrix contains the fundamentals of design thinking information classes & elementary parts, cognition. An aerospace fair, land, sea, space craft design illustrates the authors’ graduate study research scholarship, tutorage in cognitive design thinking oriented by ideasthinking.com (Burnette,CH). Business communication entrepreneurs, marketing and sales persons are of interest in the investment of their projects or project-based learning that stem from their outcomes of applied practical application & study of the IDEAS A+ K-16 educational framework in design thinking.

The conference digitally models and posters: 1) two-dimensional design thinking activity pages and 2) three-dimensional interactive online game model commercial prototype for limited use. The hierarchical cognitive design thinking system is intended for both business commerce development as well as for teaching and learning resources relevant to 21st century business corporate communications and marketing strategy. A natural critical thinking and creative problem solving proprietary ‘thinkers toolbox’ is discussed, illustrated, and presented as an online cognitive design thinking game’ called IDEASA+™. A patent pending ASEE peer reviewed 3D dimensional phases outcomes and visual interface is introduced as a platform for bringing cognitive design tutors to 21st century business classrooms.

The -IDEAS+ graphic user interface (GUI), electronic design page tutors, matrix, and templates help academic and business leaders collaborate. The research translates academic pedagogy
theory into post-industrial practice for design thinking visual communication-oriented classrooms of intelligent higher ordered metacognitive thought, as university-level studies.

**Conference Presentation & Workshop**

Role-playing cards from idesginthinking.com educational free-space are referenced and innovated to include federal rules & regulations to aid real-world ideas, design thinking topics. Identity named role playing tags and page tutors are used in the presentation & workshop. Participants apply the -IDEAS+ design thinking game to advertising, business, communication marketing pedagogical development for project-based learning (PBL). The conference schedule affords time to develop a set of deliverables for business and higher education personnel. The universal Design Phases & Design Stages employ both critical thinking and creative problem-solving to leverage participants learning instruments and/or corporate investments. For secondary-to-post learning arena attendants, the prototype design thinking game is to be online by fair limited use and program fee, to aid dual-use enrollments in topic areas important to the department of defense (DOD) technology transfers. A complete set of pages is presented to structure visual communication design study to forward the development of ideas such as brand corporate logographic and is not limited by case study. Computer modeling is out-of-scope.

A Design Thinking Matrix and structured online learning program was devised originally for post 2000 and early 2020 business formats. © Design Thinking Game® logo graphics, symbols trademarked for fair limited business commerce use are limited to the conference setting and time. Available sets of pages are for one time use or by monthly subscription. The K-16 Design Thinking Matrix, (higher study) is available for use during the workshop and available online, with the website URL provided. © The Design Thinking Matrix® is authored intellectual property.

We figure and table graphic user iconography (GUI) & creative design thinking visual interface.

i. Fig 1 -IDEASA+ 3D Phase Thinking: Graphic Interchange-of-Major Phase Thinking (Top View)
ii. Fig 2 -IDEASA+ 3D Design Stage Thinking: ROYGBIV: Iconographic Spectrum-of-Structured Thought
iii. Fig 3 -IDEASA+ 3D Information Architecture Graphic User Interface/Interaction Diagram
Additive blue, green red color primaries: (red/green/blue: RGB) frequencies of light mix-to-create full color spectrum of multi-color design phase iconographic artifacts, ROYGBIV by RGB.

Phase I: DEFINE Information Blue (Cognitive)

Phases II: DESIGN Interfaces Green (Affective Visual/Spatial)

Phase III: DEVELOP Interactions Red (Behavioral)

The central sphere is the central organizing principle for project-based learning such as a human centered design thinking format.

Table 1. Critical Thinking & Creative Problem-Solving -IDEAS+ GUI Interface © James A. Wronecki

Four major Design Phases articulated in International Conference on Design Management ICTM 2016: Industrial Design Science & Technology: Art-to-Part, Applied Engineering Design Graphics Technology (ICTM, 2016) format current careers in exported white paper & symposium on project-based learning deliverables: “Integrating Digital Tools into Industrial Design Practice” (2006). A fair, land, sea, space (auto-mobile) for aerospace body component design for submarine/navel architectural forms illustrates how aerospace aerodynamic + ergo dynamics (anthropometric human factors) integrate to make vehicle space frames and exterior fairings for conceptual/illustrative engineering media design process digital phases. The digital engineering media design phases security level: advance CAD to top secret security measures. Current military media present concept art to avoid exposure to evidences by photo scan. Today’s technology can create human face fakes by one photo; Class A/B surfaces are final data. The traditional and digital twin coordinate data plots accuracy is refined to Class A cp data. fig. IA) Class D concept technical illustration for approximate coordinate data entry (CAD). fig. IB) Mechanical drawing accurate Class D measured perspective illustration template. fig. IIC) Class C1 facet polygon hard surface model, & II C) Class C2 mesh proxy smoothed. fig. IIID) Class B unfair curve-fitting & Class A surface fairings achieved by computer aide. Surface (CAS) post-production artifacts inform final commercial product design/development.
Phase IA: Class D Define Information: XYZ Engineering Drawing Coordinates Point Plots

Concept illustration mult-view orthographic engineering drawing graphics, dot-to-dot, or CAD point-by-point drawing method is standard traditional engineering drawing blueprint data format.

Views Ia: Top View
Views Ib: Front View
Views Ic: Side View

Fig IA. Fair air, land, under sea, space craft design vector graphic engineering drawing. © James A. Wronecki

Phase IB: Class D Measured Perspective XYZ data plot rapid visualization template, © JAW.

Concept illustration measured Perspective
Plane A: Top View Blue
Plane B: Front View Red
Plane C Side View Green
Projected planes 3D data.

Business commerce may or may not apply traditional measured perspective. Non digital data studies are not subject to digital security threats.

Fig IB. Fair air, land, under sea, space craft sketch, traditional measured perspective drawing. © James A. Wronecki
Phase II: Class D/C facet polygon hard surface model, clay print sculpture format STL. © JAW.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept Model Perspective View</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plane A: Top View: Blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plane B: Front View: Green</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plane C Side View: Red</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Projected RGB image planes with Fig 1A) 2d dimensional engineering drawing multiview orthographic planes are blueprints curve data for control vertex (cv) digital media facet hard surface model sculpture for IIa) 2d image print, IIb) smooth proxy render video of implied continuity, IIc) 3d print prototype.

**Fig II.** Rapid faceted hard surface model polygon cage/continuity mesh proxy smoothed. © James A. Wronecki [4]

Class C: rapid smooth mesh printed small scale models for early wind tunnel/water wave test beds. Added wireframes must be added by insertion of edge loops to develop solid watertight print.stl. Smooth proxy mesh feature implied curvature continuity by control vertex (cv) not to XYZ data.

Phase III: Class A/B curve-fit data XYZW elastic fair geometry NURBS surface format IGES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-Production Mould-ed Surfaces for CNC tooling.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top View: Top Left</td>
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<tr>
<td>Front View: Bottom Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Side View: Bottom Right</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perspective: Top Right</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Digital twin fabrication, Class A/B product development fair surface for advanced manufacture CNC by International Graphic Exchange Standard IGES.

**Fig III.** Slow fair elastic soft surface model NURBS continuity curvature G2+ mould for CNC. © JAW.

Final Post-Production Product Design-to-Development Exterior Skins Phase III: Surfacing
Class A, curvature continuity implicit no weight=1 control point (cp) data XYZω1, non-rational. Computer Aided Surface (CAS) practitioners substitute circle by four 90° arcs of degree 6 [1]. CAD Engineer, Computer Aided Solid Modeling (CAD) apply non-weighted models for test beds. NASA’s digital twins include computer aided solid modeling for material weight simulations [5].

The federal government includes small business innovation research (SBIR) as do military such as United States NAVY to aid development of requested project investments in phases 0, 1, 2, 3.

**Design Based Education (DBE)**

Early education experiences in joined rationale order tensor continuity (JROTC) can provide employment job opportunity with or without current higher education degree dependent on job. Educational experiences ascertained by apprenticeships, internships, or self-directed training provide opportunity for United States citizens to participate in careers in Creative Information Technology (CIT). An CIT exemplar is Class A/B Computer Aided Surface (CAS) design. Current careers technology education (CTE) in entertainment model for cinematic film, games, and movie hard surface modeling, also include CAD modelers in film credits. Careers in (CAS) are referred to as Advanced CAD, where engineering graphics technology education is accredited by the American Business Engineering Technology (ABET). The National Association Art & Design (NASAD) education accredits BA/BS MFA programs, where Industrial Design programs of engineering graphics technology: (CAD) solid modeling and (CAS) may dual accredit to ABET.

The Higher Learning Commission informs Dual Enrollments where current secondary-to-post higher education community colleges provide transfer credits to university degrees. Early education is recommended in digital literacy by current Federal STEM guidelines. Where games quality merges to photo-realism, both hard surface modeling and elastic soft mold post-production jobs both require high school degrees, and prefer to require higher education. Graduate education NASAD:MFA or ABET: MS degrees or other such as Master Industrial Design (MID) can provide invested job candidates with employment opportunity by skill competencies stated as levels i-iv.

Both USAJOBS.gov and SBIR include opportunities for employment by work experience and/or opportunity to create business commercial entrepreneurial enterprise without a degree. CAD drafting technicians (two-year) and CAD/CAM/CAE or CAS Master Technologists four-year find employment in major corporations funded by federal government military revenues. Engineering positions typically require computer programming (PERL, Python) for cp data script/test beds.

**0-IV Four Major Engineering Media Design [U.S Gov’t Phases P0-III (P0, P1, P2, P3)]**

Innovative Advanced Concepts (IAC) Phases P0-3 all require Notice of Intention (NOI) to conduct research & rules-to-work closely with research topic directors (TD’s) as governed peer review. Four major engineering media design process phase 0-III all require administrative federal government oversight-to-institutions, (colleges & universities) or exclusions to promote SBIR government contractor invitation and required training to inform governing principles & federal procedures for all phases. Phase 0: Federal Government/Military Regulations (FGMR) are determinate of PI) solicitations-of-ideas (phase I), PII) merited monetarily commercial design, PIII final industrial commercialization i.e. military special forces trade production practices (phase 3).
Dual-Use Technology Transfer

Different agencies provide opportunities for dual-use engineering technology (DUET. Primary investigators include the National Aeronautic Space Administration (NASA) by Cooperative Agreement Notice (CAN) or other such as Navy, SBIR. Regulated our restricted topics are earmark as classified and available to United State U.S citizens only. All require close supervision of work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fig.2: IDEASA+ GUI (Design Stage Iconography)</th>
<th>-IDEASA+ Design Stage Thinking: ROYGBIV Iconographic Spectrum-of-Structured Thought</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0. Analyze (-)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I:1. Identify</td>
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<td>II:2. Define</td>
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<td>III:3. Explore</td>
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<td>IV:4. Arrange</td>
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<td>V:5. Sequence</td>
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<td>VI:6. Assess</td>
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<tr>
<td>VII:7. Synergize (+)</td>
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<tr>
<td>VIII:8: Design Thinking</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. -IDEAS+ Design Thinking Stages (Colors and Graphic Paths) © James A. Wronecki / Front View: GUI

IDEAS A+ Information Architecture (Overview)

Access to the federal government’s idea incubator is limited to U.S. Citizens.

3 major phases comprise SBIR

I. Concept Ideation
II. Product Design
III. Product Development.

All IDEASA+ phases & stages in NASA CAN/NAVY SBIR are restricted to U.S. citizens.

Table 2. -IDEAS+ Design Thinking Stages (Colors and Graphic Paths) © James A. Wronecki / Front View: GUI

3 Design Phases contain 7-9 Design Stages

Table 2. -IDEAS+ Design Phases: Each SBIR phases and stages can result in artifacts that may be limited to U.S. Citizens. Access to the secure online design thinking game require log in and can be regulated by federal agency; Department of Defense (DOD) to manage intellectual property and technology transfer.
Early analysis of ideas, issues, or phenomenon may result in an idea that is classified to the media or general public. Faculty and teachers may use the ‘PEN’ button to indicate a students’ or teachers idea is restricted topic for U.S. citizens only. Aerospace conference presentations, Air Force ‘pitch days’, & NAVY SBIR all limit & regulate non or classified media presentations. Students, teachers, and faculty with ideas related to the Feb 1st 1952 Invention Secrecy Act are required to inform the federal government about the idea, issue, or phenomenon, prior to pursuit of intellectual property patent claims. A model uncertainty principle outlines gray areas of study.

-IDEASA+ Design Stage Thinking (Overview Statements of Testimony)

0. Analyze a challenge or problematic situation in the world today.

0.5 < Contemplate interesting thinks that you want to be able to do or think about.

0.5 < Consider others needs and important things that other people need you to know about.

1. Identify one main major goal or topic to align or balance your interests with others’ needs.

2. Define elastic or flexible boundary conditions by deciding what factors are in its’ scope.

3. Explore ideas within and beyond a projects’ boundaries to interconnect and search topics.

4. Arrange components in visual space frame compositions to organize structured themes.

5. Assess criterion by degree to which phase two’s objectives are met by stage 6’s outcomes.

6. Synthesize the information, interfaces, and interactions to create an integrated solution.

7. Iterate/ re-investigate ideas as higher order thinking skilled perspective & file report.

8. Translate or transform topic-of-study for low level audiences and higher research studies.

9. Collaborate & communicate ideas as human centered design sciences for in universe topic.

10. Ask and accept critical feedback to respect others opinions & rights to freedom of speech.

11. Adjudicate apostolic frameworks or evangelists of interest in program study or investment.

12. Lead in your disciplinary framework to foster community & interdisciplinary pursuits.

Conclusions: Cognitive Design Stage Thinking

United State citizen business in commercial product design-to-developments for military special force trades are limited to lists of agencies, business or institutions, but may be open to ideas from outside individuals or institutions by following proper protocol for idea conception. -IDEASA+ is a framework to articulate business commercial designs, abcd for phases O-III. Final industry
commercialization must comply with current United States of America’s government industry partnerships. -IDEASA+ educates business, students and teachers with formal procedures. The Bureau of Labor Statics: Commercial And Industrial Design (CAD) integrate business, design, & engineering/engineering technology as employment careers.

**Creative Information Technology (Ideas Phases Concept/Design/Development) Framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design Map Pages</th>
<th>Design Stage Thinking: Abstraction of Ideas Patterned Thought</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Situation Map</td>
<td>Concept Map</td>
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<tr>
<td>Identity Map</td>
<td>Process Map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept Map</td>
<td>Link Map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position Map</td>
<td>Values Map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Map</td>
<td>Total Map</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 -IDEAS+ Cognitive Design: Abstract pattern language of component idea structuring. © James A. Wronecki

Buzan’s mind map: structured tree formalize a whole brained approach to concept mapping tree. -IDEAS A+ Design is a series of design mapping pages as a formal governed process of staging ideas. The U.S. federal government product design-to-development does restrict ideas in stage 0: situation map to U.S Citizens. The United States Congress: Invention Secrecy Act (ISA) Feb 1, 1952 further defines limits for ideas and inventions relevant to national defense and/or both national intelligence current as technology transfer of creative information technology (CIT) such as fair surface design development. U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) regulates ideas.

United States of America’s federally governed agencies in aerospace include the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td><img src="https://example.com/navy-logo.png" alt="U.S. NAVY Logo" /></td>
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<td><img src="https://example.com/space-force-logo.png" alt="U.S. Space Force Logo" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Class A/B Surface fairing careers are not limited to the following federal agencies above.

**References**


Concept Modeling with NURBS, Polygons, and Subdivision Surfaces, ASEE 2006 Conference, Chicago, IL

IdeasAlive Design Thinking System: A way to teach design, ASEE 2004 Conference, Salt Lake, UT
International Conference Technology Management (ICTM 2016) Conference Proceedings


NASA Air Sled Solid Model Technical Report & Presentation, University of Alabama Huntsville (UAH), AL 2006


Teaching Visual Design Thinking (Semantic Scholar, Methods Concept Creation, Format Technical Reports) (ASEE 2007)
Appendix Table 1. Information Classes and Elementary Parts

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<th>M</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>Constraints</td>
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**INFORMATION CLASSES FOR DESIGN THINKING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Brain Strategy</th>
<th>Phase Map</th>
<th>Guide</th>
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**DESIGN THINKING MATRIX**

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<th>Brain Strategy</th>
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