

COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES
OF A CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN BUSINESS COURSE
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled:

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OF A CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN BUSINESS COURSE
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background

Business and industry have expanded to a global reach with the advent of greater technology (Friedman, 2005; Hormats, 1999). According to Hormats (1999), “barriers to the flow of trade and investment have fallen and deregulation has spread throughout the world as ideological divisions have collapsed and the cost of communication and data transmission has plummeted” (p. 2). Institutions of higher learning, like businesses, are feeling the effects of a new global society. Classrooms include an increase in minority attendance and more exchange students from around the world.

The complexion of the student population in higher education is undergoing changes. It was predicted by Gollnick and Chinn (1998) that the populations of African American, Latino, Asian American and Native American will comprise 40% of the population by 2020 and 50% of the population by 2050. Gaither (1999) states, “the institutions of 2010, they say, will be a mixture of unprecedented demographic and technological transformation as today’s so-called minorities are becoming the new majority” (p. 115). The changing demographics of the United States population will create a need for cultural diversity education.

To form a literary base for this research associated with cultural diversity education, the review of literature begins with identification of the conceptual underpinnings. Key elements related to the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and hypothesis follow. Key terms are defined to provide clarity for the research discussion. The review of literature falls into three main topic areas

related to cultural diversity education: global trends, globalization and higher education, and globalization and other organizations.

The review of related literature for cultural diversity education begins with a broad global scope and narrows down to focus on a cultural diversity in business course in higher education. A global trend of cultural diversity education explores concepts related to immigration in the United States. The changing terms used to describe cultural diversity in the United States reflected a change in attitude toward the acceptance of other cultures (Bucher, 2004; Schaefer, 2005). Global trends also explored an expanding global society for business, commerce and higher education institutions. Global influence was also evident in changes for international trade, immigration and more ethnic diversity on college campuses (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2001).

Higher education institutions have responded to globalization trends in many ways. Higher education followed similar trends found with immigration (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). Business departments in higher education have responded to global influence in the marketplace by including international trade and commerce courses in business curriculum (Sherer, Beaton, Ainina, & Meyer, 2002). Specialized Centers for International Business Education (CIBE's also known as CIBERs) were formed around the United States to provide universities with international business resources (Sherer et al., 2002).

Higher education institutions have utilized various models to incorporate cultural diversity education in curriculum (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini, & Nora, 2001). One method has been to infuse cultural diversity education across curriculum and include the topic in a variety of different courses

(Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). Or cultural diversity education has been isolated and offered as an individual course as part of the overall curriculum (Van Note Chism, 2002). Another option available for students to gain exposure to cultural diversity in higher education has been study abroad programs. Study abroad programs provide college students the opportunity to immerse themselves in another culture. With the growing popularity of study abroad programs, countries have come to appreciate both the financial and cultural benefits of students in these programs (Cummings, 2001). The economic implications of international education have contributed to the view of higher education as a global commodity (Blumental, Obst, Ranta, & Waters 2004). There are economic implications, challenges, and cultural adjustments for students in study abroad programs.

Another major area considered for cultural diversity education was globalization and other organizations. Business and industry have responded to the changing United States demographic profile by offering employees cultural diversity training (Bucher, 2004). Training workshops have been designed to enhance cultural awareness and improve working relationships between diverse populations (Bucher, 2004). Organizations that offer cultural diversity education gained a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Allison, 1999; Carneval & Stone; 1994; Day, 1995). Cultural diversity training has also been found across the career specific disciplines of healthcare, social sciences and psychology. The need for business and career disciplines to offer cultural diversity training acknowledged a perceived skill gap found in workers related to cultural diversity awareness (Bucher, 2004). This perceived skill gap leads to the basis of this research to explore the outcomes of a cultural diversity in business course in higher education.

Conceptual Underpinnings for the Study

Three theories will be discussed related to the conceptual underpinnings for this study: collaborative learning, the developmental stages of learning, and knowledge creation. Bruffee (1999) offered learning through conversation and transitioning between knowledge communities as a part of collaborative learning. Wells (2000) detailed a continuum of learning for cultural competence in healthcare by moving through various cognitive and affective phases of learning. The knowledge creation theory of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) emphasized the importance of social interaction. Each of these theories will be discussed in detail as the foundation for this research.

According to Bruffee (1999), “from the very beginning of our lives we construct knowledge in conversation with other people” (p. 135). Bruffee (1999) suggested collaborative learning and the construction of knowledge takes place through conversations among peers. He further suggests, “learning involves shifting social allegiances because knowledge results from acknowledgment, the mutual agreement among knowledgeable peers that a belief expressed by a member of that community has been socially justified or is socially justifiable” (p. 136). Once individuals acquire language, we are reacculturated from knowledge community to knowledge community and the learning process becomes increasingly complex (Bruffee, 1999).

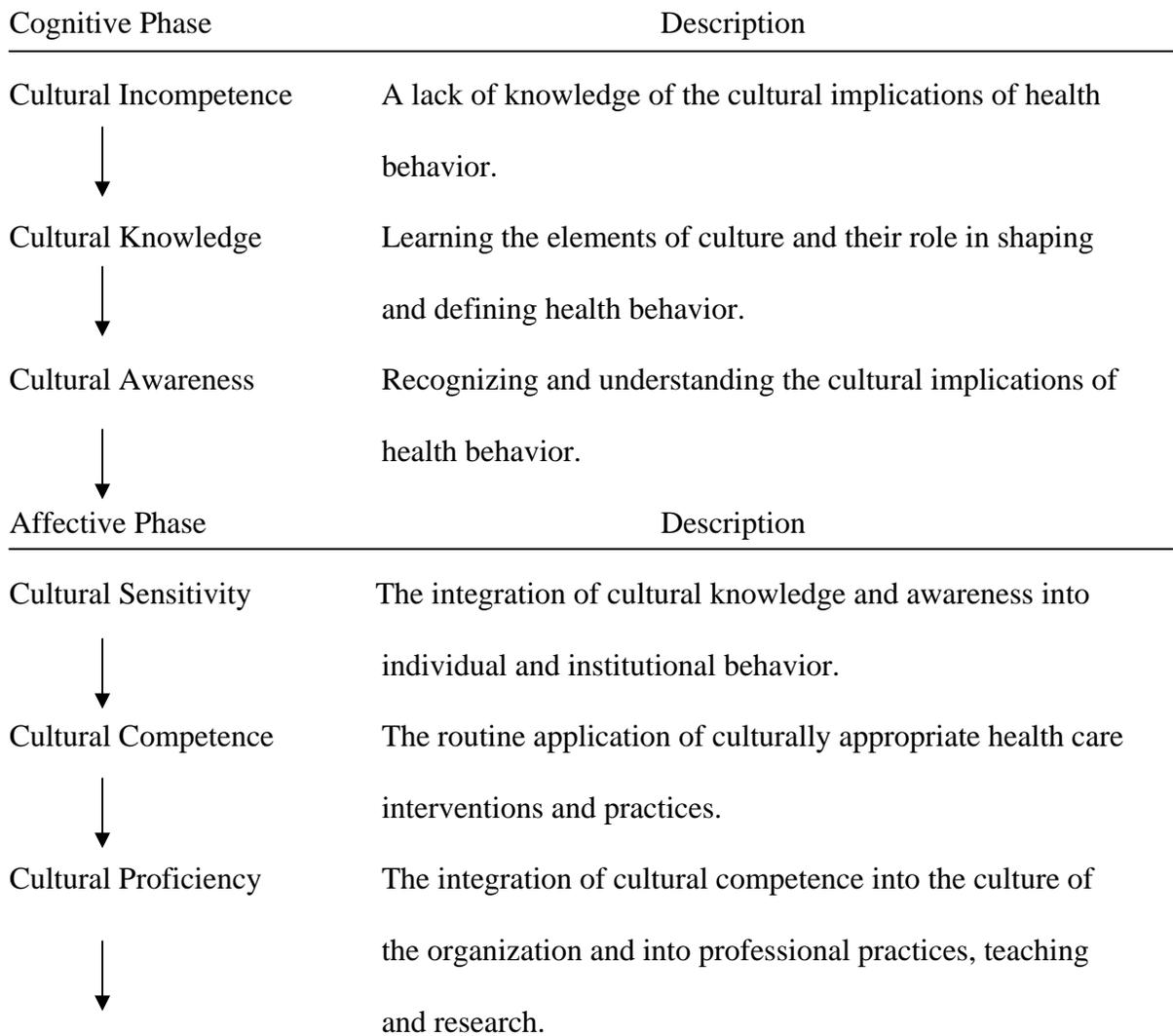
Education, and more specifically a cultural diversity course in higher education, can be an avenue to initiate conversation. Bruffee (1999) explained, “in collaborative learning students learn the craft of interdependence” (p. xiii). Bruffee (1999) described two types of conversations as part of the transition between knowledge communities. “Normal discourse occurs within established knowledge communities” (p. 143). Within

this community established knowledge is maintained and confirmed. In contrast nonstandard discourse “is a negotiation between those who know and accept a community’s values and conversations and those who do not” (Bruffee, 1999, p. 296). Bruffee (1999) used the example of higher education classrooms as the site where ideas can be exchanged and the transition can be made between knowledge communities. In higher education professors serve as translators between knowledge communities.

Collaborative learning and the construct of knowledge takes place through conversations among peers as discussed by Bruffee (1999). “Collaborative learning places students in a position, that is, in which they must reconcile their preconceptions in conversation with one another” (Bruffee, 1999, p. 17). College students are moving from one knowledge community to a more educated knowledge community through the course work they study. Nonstandard discourse conversations are part of the transition between knowledge communities (Bruffee, 1999). A cultural diversity course can serve as the site where ideas are exchanged and the transition can be made between knowledge communities.

The Cultural Development Model (CDM) was developed to identify a continuum along cognitive and affective phases incorporating both individual and institutional stages for cultural competence in healthcare (Wells, 2000) (see Figure 1). Wells (2000) suggested, “a review of cultural diversity literature seems to suggest that success in meeting the challenges of diversity requires progression through the developmental stages along a continuum” (p. 191). In the cognitive phase the emphasis is on learning

Figure 1. Cultural development model of cognitive and affective phases for cultural competence in healthcare.



Mastery of the cognitive and affective phases of cultural development.

Note. From “Beyond Cultural Competence: A Model for Individual and Institutional Cultural Development,” by M. I. Wells, 2000, *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, 17(4), p.192.

and acquiring knowledge (Wells, 2000). The affective phase follows with application of knowledge learned in the cognitive phase to achieve attitudinal and behavior change (Wells, 2000). Wells (2000) stated, “a very preliminary step in moving from the cognitive to the affective phase is a recognition of the ways in which our thoughts, perceptions, and impressions are shaped about people whose cultural backgrounds differ from our own” (p. 193). Wells (2000) contended the unwillingness of individuals and institutions to examine their underlying assumptions were a key barrier to progressing through the continuum. A willingness to examine underlying assumptions can facilitate progression through the continuum (Wells, 2000). Introspection on a continuous basis for individuals and organizations was a deliberate process (King, Nielsen & Colby, 2004). Wells (2000) also offered “experiences with people from culturally diverse backgrounds and a willingness to embrace diversity rather than resist it” as a way to facilitate progression through the cognitive and affective phases (p. 194). A commitment to change on the part of individuals and organizations is another key component to achieving cultural proficiency (Wells, 2000). Students who have elected to attend a cultural diversity course show their willingness to examine their assumptions and begin the process through Wells’ (2000) Cultural Development Model CDM.

The theory of knowledge creation by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) also has application in the study of cultural diversity education. They used examples for knowledge creation with organizational implications and used knowledge as the basic unit of analysis to explain organizational behavior. Furthermore, they clarified that knowledge was different from information and referenced two dimensions of knowledge creation (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Epistemological knowledge creation related to

tacit and explicit knowledge, and ontological knowledge creation related to individual, group, organization, and inter-organization knowledge. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) focused their discussion of tacit and explicit knowledge as complimentary entities expanded through social interaction. Tacit knowledge is explained as a subjective experience and hard to express in words. “Cognitive elements of tacit knowledge refer to an individual’s images of reality” (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995, p. 60). Explicit knowledge on the other hand is objective and can be communicated (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) contended, “human knowledge is created and expanded through social interaction between tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge” (p. 61).

The model of knowledge creation involved four modes, socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). For example knowledge begins with one person’s idea (tacit knowledge), which they share with others through a storyboard, pictures or over the web (tacit to tacit or socialization, sympathized knowledge). The idea is then discussed (tacit to explicit knowledge, externalization, conceptual knowledge) before being articulated as a proposal and presented to other staff and/or management (explicit to explicit, combination, systemic knowledge) for approval. The idea is carried out, resulting in a new business operation or program offered to the public (explicit to tacit, internalization, operational knowledge). Thus, knowledge is created and shared intra-organizationally and inter-organizationally (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). A cultural diversity course exposes students to new concepts that may differ from a student’s existing tacit knowledge. The exposure to new cultural information in a cultural diversity course can carry the student through the

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) knowledge creation spiral. And the outcome might be students would experience an increase in knowledge and more accepting attitude toward other cultures.

In summary, three theories were reviewed as part of the theoretical base for this research. Theories covered included collaborative learning, the developmental stages of learning, and knowledge creation. The conceptual underpinnings provided by Bruffee, (1999), Wells (2000), and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) provided the foundation for this research. Application of these theories will be discussed further in Chapter Two.

Statement of the Problem

Characteristics of the United States population in the last 30 years have reflected more racial and ethnic diversity (Schaefer, 2005). Spurred by the changing demographic profile in the United States many employers are now offering comprehensive diversity education programs for their employees (Bucher, 2004). Students in higher education are gaining skills that will make them more employable; however, with companies feeling the need to offer diversity training, higher education may need to consider diversity skills as a competency employers find desirable.

Research has regularly shown that different ethnic and racial groups have different perceptions (Schaefer, 2005). While evidence of the relationship of cultural diversity education and the positive effect on cognitive and affective outcomes have been established (Geranios, 1997), no such comparison has been investigated using a cultural diversity class offered in a college of business and a control group. Still not enough is known about the impact of cultural diversity classes on university students' cognitive and affective outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

This research investigated to what degree a cultural diversity in business course increased college students' attitudes and knowledge of other cultures. The research compared cognitive (knowledge) and affective (attitudes) student data gathered prior to and after participation in a cultural diversity in business course. Furthermore, the research compared the outcome differences between those students taking the cultural diversity course and those registered in other undergraduate capstone public affairs courses. The research focused on an undergraduate public affairs capstone cultural diversity in business class offered at a Midwest university. The research questions examined the effects of cultural diversity education on cognitive and affective orientation toward different cultures in a college setting.

It was the assumption that students exposed to the cultural diversity information would produce different cognitive and affective outcomes. It was also assumed the cultural diversity class demonstrated direct application of Bruffee's (1999) collaborative learning theory and Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) knowledge creation theory. The theories will be described in more detail in Chapter Two. With application of these theories it was assumed students in the cultural diversity class would have significantly greater cognitive and affective outcomes than a control group.

Research Questions

The primary research questions are as follows:

1. To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' cognitive perceptions (see a & b) regarding different cultures?

- a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
 - b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.
2. To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' affective perceptions (see a & b) regarding different culture?
- a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.
 - b. Perceived benefit of course.
3. To what extent do students in a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly differ in their behavior (see a) from students in other courses?
- a. Choice to participate in cultural activities.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses, which related to the stated research questions, were also explored in this study:

Hypothesis 1. There is a significant increase in students' cognitive outcomes to accept different cultures after taking the cultural diversity in business course.

- a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
- b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.

Hypothesis 2. There is a significant increase in students' affective outcomes to accept different cultures after taking the cultural diversity in business course.

- a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.

- b. Perceived benefit of course.

Hypothesis 3. There is a significant difference in students' behavioral interactions for students in the cultural diversity in business course as compared with students in other courses.

- a. Choice to participate in cultural activities.

Statistical Hypotheses

By meeting Bruffee's (1999) collaborative learning theory and Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) knowledge creation theory in conjunction with a cultural diversity course produced significant cognitive (increased knowledge) and affective (attitudinal changes) outcomes in students who participated in the cultural diversity in business course. The following subsequent null hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant cognitive outcomes in students who participated in the cultural diversity in business course and the control group.

- a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
- b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.

Hypothesis 2. There are no significant affective outcomes in students who participated in the cultural diversity in business course and the control group.

- a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.
- b. Perceived benefit of course.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences in students' behavioral interactions for students in the cultural diversity in business course

as compared with students in other courses.

- a. Choice to participate in cultural activities.

Limitations, Assumptions, and Design Controls

There were some limitations to this study that need to be taken into consideration. The students in the study were enrolled at a public Midwest university. Higher learning institutions are unique; therefore the results of the study were not intended to be generalized to other institutions. However, the findings may be useful to other public higher education institutions.

The participants were not randomly selected, but were a convenience sample. The students had the opportunity to select the undergraduate public affairs capstone course they wanted to attend as a requirement for their graduation. Because the participants were a convenience sample they might not fully represent the student population at the Midwest university. There were 36 different public affairs topics the students could choose from. The researcher selected the cultural diversity in business capstone course.

Another limitation of the research was related to the Survey of Intergroup Relations II as a self-report measure. Students took the inventory as a pre and posttest and could choose not to answer the questions honestly. Also, the questionnaire selected was chosen to indicate change and not the cause of change. There was no indication as to why or why not a change may have occurred. The limitation of time-bound information was also a factor. The study was a snapshot taken during one semester during the students' college career. A survey taken at another point in time could render different results. External events that were covered by the media during this timeframe could also influence the outcomes.

The duration of the study was also a limitation. The study focused on one semester during the students' college experience. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963) external factors during a short duration of time, similar to one semester, may not be solely responsible for change occurring in the research. The external factors may contribute moderately but not completely (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Design Controls

Addressing the limitation of the questionnaire as a self-report measure, students in the selected courses participated in the study voluntarily. An informed consent form was provided for students prior to the study, and the students were also told verbally their participation was completely voluntary. There were some students in each classroom that chose not to complete the survey.

The statistical function of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was a design control applied to compensate for the self-selection bias (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Participants selected what capstone course they wanted to attend. According to Gay & Airasian (2003), "ANCOVA adjusts posttest scores for initial differences on a variable and compares the adjusted scores; groups are equalized with respect to the control variable and then compared" (p. 476). ANCOVA analysis provided a way to equalize the control group and the treatment group (Gay & Airasian, 2003).

Another design control regarding the lack of random selection related to selection of the control classes. The capstone courses used as control groups for comparison to the cultural diversity in business capstone courses were selected at random. All capstone courses not titled cultural diversity in business were numbered and selected using the random numbers software program retrieved from www.random.com.

Definition of Key Terms

To provide clarity to the study the following terms are defined:

Affective. The term affective was used to describe a person's attitudes, feelings and beliefs. The Survey of Intergroup Relations (Geranios, 1997) and the Survey of Intergroup Relations II focused on the change in students' attitudes, feelings and beliefs.

Affective domains. A domain references an item covered in a particular area, therefore an affective domain related to the area of attitudes, feelings and beliefs. Key terms used to describe affective domains are: "receiving, responding, valuing, organization, characterization." (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 165).

Affective subscale. The affective subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 21 Likert item questions related to prejudicial attitudes. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree somewhat, 3 = Neutral, 4 = agree somewhat, 5 = strongly agree) These scores will be totaled to generate an affective subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Assimilation. The term assimilation as related to cultural diversity and immigration refers to "the process in which people lose their cultural differences and blend into the wider society" (Bucher, 2004, p. 12). "Immigrants gradually lose their traditional ways of life and blend together" (Bucher, 2004, p. 12).

Capstone course. The term capstone course refers to a 3-credit hour general education course required by all undergraduate students at a Midwest university. The capstone courses are variable topics and reflect content appropriate of Public Affairs

Issues for the 21st Century. The capstone course is taken during a student's junior or senior year at this Midwest university.

Choice to participate in cultural activities. The participation subscale contained 12 behavioral yes/no questions on the Survey for Intergroup Relations II. Students will receive one point for each yes response. This will result in a score for the participation subscale. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Cognitive. The term cognitive refers to knowledge and intellectual processes (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). The Survey of Intergroup Relations (Geranios, 1997) and the Survey of Intergroup Relations II focused on the change in students' knowledge.

Cognitive domain. A domain references an item covered in a particular area, therefore a cognitive domain related to knowledge and intellectual processes (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). Key terms used to describe cognitive domains include: "knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation" (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 165).

Culture. Culture can be explained, as "what a particular group agrees is reality. The back-drop for the ways people think, feel, speak, and act" (Carr-Ruffino, 2005, p. 33). Culture can also be described as "the cognitive, affective and behavioral patterns that human groups share, that is, the rules and norms by which people live" (King et al., 2004, p. 68).

Cultural competence. Cultural competence "is defined as the ability of individuals to work or respond effectively across cultures in a way that acknowledges and respects the culture of another" (Hopp, 2005, p. 1).

Cultural diversity in business course. A 3-credit hour Public Affairs Issues for the 21st Century capstone course offered at a public Midwest university. This course was the basis for this research.

Cultural understanding. Cultural understanding refers to “respect and acceptance of others’ rights to be different” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 161).

Diversity. Diversity “refers to the collective (all inclusive) mixture of human differences and similarities along a given dimension” (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000, p. 387).

Diversity consciousness. Diversity consciousness suggests an “understanding, awareness and skills in the area of diversity” (Bucher, 2004, p. 22).

Diversity education. Diversity education refers to “all strategies that enable us to develop diversity consciousness” (Bucher, 2004, p. 24).

Diversity issues subscale. A cognitive subscale in the Survey for Intergroup Relations II contained 17 Likert item questions related to perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1 = none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant) These scores will be totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Diverse groups subscale. A cognitive subscale in the Survey for Intergroup Relations II contained 12 Likert item questions related to perceived knowledge about diverse groups. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1 = none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant) These scores will be totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Ethnic group. An ethnic group is “a group set apart from others because of its national origin or distinctive culture” (Schaefer, 2005, p. 8).

Globalization. Globalization refers to the “worldwide integration of government policies, cultures, social movements and financial markets through trade, movements of people and the exchange of ideas” (Schaefer, 2005, p. 134).

Global education. Global education “involves learning about those problems and issues which cut across national boundaries and about the interconnectedness of systems - - cultural, ecological, economic, political and technological” (Tye, 2003, p. 165).

Human relation training. Human relation training is a type of education emphasizing “feelings of unity, tolerance and acceptance within existing social structure” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 161).

Inner cultural. Inner cultural “refers to the most direct experience of the students’ life, such as relationships with and between family systems” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 168).

Intercultural. Intercultural “refers to cultural concepts at the international level.....Native Americans within the United States is another example of the intercultural level within national boundaries” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 168).

Intracultural. Intracultural “refers to experience that are not within the student’s direct life experience, but are within the same society. This diversity may reflect the dimensions of race, ethnicity, gender or religion” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 168).

Level of prejudicial attitudes. The affective subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 21 Likert item questions related to prejudicial attitudes. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree somewhat, 3 =

Neutral, 4 = agree somewhat, 5 = strongly agree) These scores will be totaled to generate an affective subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Midwest university. The generic name of “Midwest university” will be used as the name of the institution where research was conducted for this study. The use of a generic institution name was used to maintain anonymity for the participants and the institution of higher education.

Multicultural education. Multicultural education refers to education emphasizing “social structural equality and cultural pluralism” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 161).

Participation subscale. The participation subscale contains 12 behavioral yes/no questions on the Survey for Intergroup Relations II. Students will receive one point for each yes response. This will result in a score for the behavioral subscale. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived benefit of course. The subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained two Likert item questions. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant) These scores will be totaled to generate subscale scores. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 17 Likert item questions. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant) These scores will be totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived knowledge about diverse groups. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 12 Likert item questions. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item. (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant) These scores will be totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Public Affairs Issues for the 21st Century. Public Affairs Issues for the 21st Century was the over-arching theme for curriculum in capstone courses offered at a Midwest university.

Race. Race “refers to a category of people who are perceived as physically distinctive on the basis of certain traits, such as skin color, hair texture, and facial features” (Bucher, 2004, p.15).

September 11, 2001. The date four American planes were hijacked by terrorists and crashed into American landmarks: the World Trade Towers in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington DC. The fourth plane was diverted and crashed in a Pennsylvania field.

Single-group (ethnic) studies. Single-group (ethnic) studies explore “social structural equality for an immediate recognition of the identified group”(Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 161).

Student behavior. Student behavior was defined through one behavioral subscale for participation in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II. (See Appendix C for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Survey of intergroup relations II. The Survey of Intergroup Relations II was the questionnaire used for this study. The Survey of Intergroup Relations II was adapted from the Survey of Intergroup Relations used by Geranos (1997).

Transculturation. Transculturation is “the process by which a person adjusts to another cultural environment without sacrificing his or her own cultural identity” (Bucher, 2004, p. 44).

Valuing diversity. Valuing diversity means “moving beyond a tolerance of diverse others to an appreciation of what they have to offer” (Carr-Ruffino, 2005, p. 102).

Summary

The world has merged into a global marketplace, and the complexion of university campuses has become more diverse. The topic of enhancing cultural education continues to be of paramount importance. If it was possible to create greater cultural appreciation at the college level, perhaps there might be a better chance for these graduates to carry their positive reactions into the global marketplace.

The importance of studying how higher education institutions attempt to provide meaningful cultural diversity education was offered in this chapter. A statement of the problem, purpose, significance, assumptions and limitations of the study, and definitions of terms was presented. Under the conceptual framework developed using Bruffee’s (1999) collaborative learning model, Wells (2000) Cultural Development Model, and Nonaka and Takeuchi’s (1995) knowledge creation theory it was assumed the cultural diversity in business class would provide the most significant change in cognitive and affective outcomes.

The research design and methodology utilized to answer the research questions will be presented in Chapter Three. The data analysis and results will be presented in Chapter Four. The summary and findings, implications for practice in higher education, recommendations for future research, and conclusions will be presented in Chapter Five. Appendices include the Survey of Intergroup Relations II pre and posttest, the Survey of Intergroup Relations II pre and posttest with subscales identified. The appendices also include the statistical analysis used for the cognitive, affective and behavioral questionnaire items. Statistical functions used included independent samples *t*-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), cross tabulation, and Chi-Square analysis.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

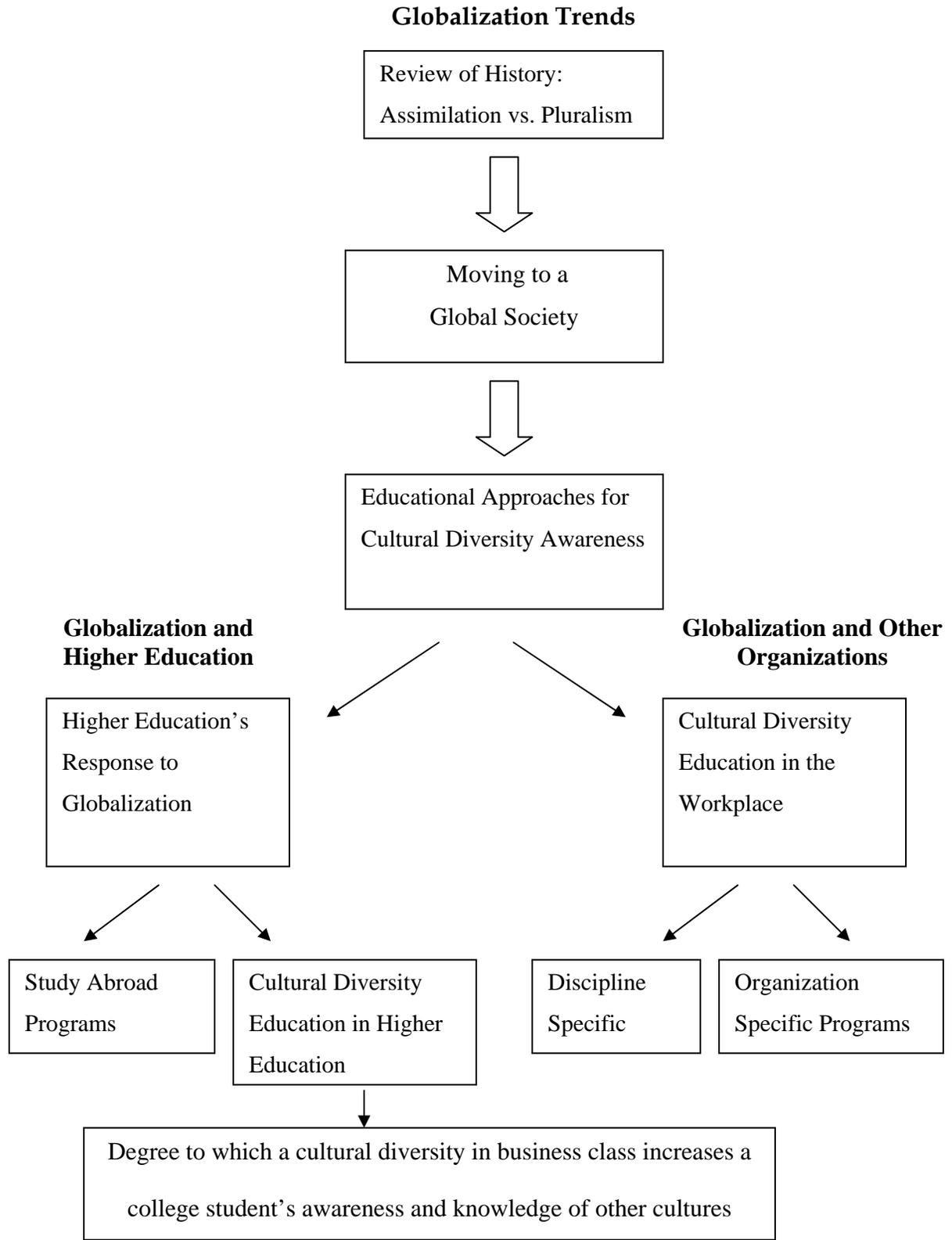
Introduction

Literature for the implementation of diversity education appeared across many disciplines in response to the shifting demographics of the population. Influence on an individual's cognitive and affective perceptions of cultural diversity can come from many sources. A theme repeated many times in the literature was the need for instructors and students to become comfortable working in a diverse workplace. Before moving to current diversity education it was important to look at the broad concept of globalization trends. These global trends included the review of assimilation versus pluralism, and the growing global society. Globalization and higher education was the next major theme examined. Higher education has responded to the globalization and in many ways has become a part of the global marketplace. This section provided a framework of how students obtained diversity education in higher education through globalization of curriculum, specific diversity education courses, or through study abroad programs. The final theme examined was globalization and other organizations. The corporate and professional response to cultural diversity was a growing trend reviewed. Diversity education was explored from various occupational disciplines and organizational specific programs. Figure 2, depicts these concepts graphically.

Globalization Trends

Global trends of cultural diversity explored the concepts of assimilation and pluralism with regard to immigration in the United States. The changing terms used to

Figure 2. Concept map to visually clarify the flow of the literature review and research.



Describe cultural diversity in the United States reflected a change in attitude toward the acceptance of other cultures (Bucher, 2004; Schaefer, 2005). The literature related to global trends also explored an expanding global society for business, commerce and higher education institutions. Global influence was reflected in changes in international trade, immigration and more ethnic diversity on college campuses (Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U), 2001).

Assimilation Versus Pluralism

Immigration issues were an integral part of American history and a contributing factor to the growing diversity of the population. There were numerous metaphors used to describe the diversity of the United States population: a melting pot, salad bowl, rainbow, quilt, and kaleidoscope (Bucher, 2004; Schaefer, 2005). Each choice of terminology used throughout history reflected the way in which the immigration of new cultures was viewed as a part of the American culture.

The “melting pot” terminology was first used as the title of a play in 1908 (Schaefer, 2005). The play depicted the United States as a place where ethnic groups could dissolve into a new stock (Schaefer, 2005). The melting pot metaphor, like the play, referred to the assimilation of cultures into the American culture. With assimilation “people lose their cultural differences and blend into the wider society” (Bucher, 2004, p. 12). Immigrants to America tried to give up what made them different to become more like the majority population.

In the 1970’s the term “salad bowl” and a pluralism approach of describing the growing diverse American demographic population was the trend (Bucher, 2004; Schaefer, 2005). The pluralism approach acknowledged and preserved cultural

differences (Bucher, 2004). A salad bowl is a mixture of various ingredients that all maintain their own identity but compliment each other when mixed together. In more recent history the rainbow, and quilt metaphors also depicted the pluralism approach of viewing diversity (Bucher, 2004). A quilt can be described as a variety of different colors and textures of fabric pieces held together with a common thread.

The kaleidoscope analogy brought yet another way to describe the diverse American population. A kaleidoscope is a toy to look through to view an array of colors that change as you turn a set of mirrors. Schaefer (2005) described the analogy as “the changing images correspond to the often bewildering array of groups found in our country” (p. 182). The kaleidoscope shows a changing image much like the changing racial diversity in the United States.

Regardless of the terminology used to describe the diverse American community, the message of recognizing and appreciating cultural diversity has been an implied meaning. The metaphors of American’s diversity can be compared to Bruffee’s (1999) concept of leaving one knowledge community to join another and Nonaka and Takeuchi’s (1995) theory of social interaction for knowledge creation. The analogies focused on the outward appearance of the population, however, the implied reference was people were interacting in society through conversations and other social interactions.

Global Society

“Business, law, medicine, science, librarianship and education are now shaped by developments that occur beyond national borders” (Institute of International Education, 2002, p. 1). Business activities have expanded to encompass a global reach with international trade a prevalent activity. According to Dlabay (1998), “organizations are

realizing that international business opportunities are borne out of the ability to adapt to and capitalize on the geographic, historic, economic, cultural and political-legal elements that influence the exchange of business across different cultures and levels of economic development” (p. 159).

Another approach to explaining globalization was offered by Friedman (2005) through a series of globalization trends. “Globalization 1.0 was countries globalizing and the dynamic force in Globalization 2.0 was companies globalizing, the dynamic force in Globalization 3.0 - the thing that gives it its unique character – is the newfound power for individuals to collaborate and compete globally” (Friedman, 2005, p. 10). Globalization 1.0 lasted from 1492 until 1800 (Friedman, 2005). During this time frame countries were exploring the world (Friedman, 2005). Globalization 2.0 lasted from 1800 to 2000 with the emergence of multinational companies going global for markets and labor (Friedman, 2005). Falling costs for transportation and communication were characteristics of this phase (Friedman, 2005). Globalization 3.0 followed from 2000 to the present (Friedman, 2005). Software was the key component empowering individuals to “plug and play” (Friedman, 2005, p. 11). Friedman (2005) offered, “it is the complementary convergence of the ten flatteners creating this new global playing field for multiple forms of collaboration” (p. 177).

According to Dlabay (1998), “every business employee works for an organization that either imports, exports, or competes against other companies that import or export” (p. 164). Access to foreign markets changed the way organizations conduct business. New markets provide labor, goods, capital, technology and other needed resources for business expansion, innovation and trade (Dlabay, 1998). Knowledge regarding cultural

implications in foreign markets is needed by managers to conduct business effectively. Without knowledge of cultural differences and customs business personnel could mistakenly offend foreign business partners (Dlabay, 1998). The global business dealings have driven higher education to respond. White and Griffith (1998) cited two studies reviewing the importance of an international oriented educational system. “Both studies indicate that to remain a competitive force in the global economic arena, the educational focus of our business schools must change” (White & Griffith, 1998, p. 103).

Global influence also affected the ethnic diversity of students on college campuses. The Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U, 2001) reported the expected increase of 2.6 million students qualified to attend colleges between 1995 and 2015, 80% would be from racial minorities. China, Japan and India were noted as the top three countries of origin for foreign students (AAC&U, 2001). A college students’ opportunity for exposure to students with different racial and ethnic backgrounds has changed significantly on college campuses in the last three decades (AAC&U, 2001; Van Note Chism, 2002). (see Table 1).

Global influence also comes in the form of immigration to the United States. The United States offers political freedom and economic opportunities for many cultures from around the world (Wells, 2000). Immigration was cited by AAC&U (2001) as one of the top five contributing factors to the rising college enrollments. AAC&U (2001) estimated African- American, Hispanic and Asian/Pacific Islander students would account for 80% of the increase in the undergraduate population by 2015. The minority population was projected to increase their share of undergraduate population from 29.4% to 37.2% by 2015 (AAC&U, 2001). As the workforce reflects the global influence with a more

Table 1

Diversity of the U.S. College Population

Group	Percentage of Growth	Percentage of 2000
	1976-1997	Total Population
American Indian	87	1.9
Asian American	34	7.1
African American	50	10.4
Hispanic American	217	
Mexican-American/Chicano		3.8
Other Latino		2.2
Puerto Rican		1.0
White American		76.1
International	13	
Other	113	3.6
Total	32	

Note. From “Who are today’s students”, Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2001. The table description of Hispanic heritage has changed over the years to include more detail about ethnic origin.

diverse workforce so does the complexion of college campuses reflect a more diverse population.

Globalization and Higher Education

Higher education institutions have responded to globalization trends in many ways. Higher education started with the goal of assimilation or “Americanization” of new immigrants for student education in the 1800’s (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 160). In more recent years “business departments in higher education have responded to global influence in the marketplace by including international trade and commerce courses in business curriculum (Sherer et al., 2002). Specialized Centers for International Business Education (CIBE’s also known as CIBERs) were formed around the United States to provide universities with international business resources (Sherer et al., 2002).

Higher education institutions have utilized various models to incorporate cultural diversity education in curriculum (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990; Whitt et al., 2001). One method was to infuse cultural diversity education across curriculum and include the topic in a variety of different courses (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). Cultural diversity education can also be isolated and offered as an individual course as part of the overall curriculum (Van Note Chism, 2002). Another option available for students to gain exposure to cultural diversity in higher education has been study abroad programs. Study abroad programs provide college students the opportunity to immerse themselves in another culture. With the growing popularity of study abroad programs countries have come to appreciate both the financial and cultural benefits of students in these programs (Cummings, 2001). The economic implications of international education have contributed to the view of higher education as a global commodity (Blumental et al., 2004). There are economic implications, challenges, and cultural adjustments for students in study abroad programs.

Education's Response to Globalization

Educations response to cultural diversity has paralleled the changes in metaphors used to describe diversity in the United States. The changes in metaphors reflected changes from assimilation to pluralism to describe a diverse American population. Dating back to 1776 and the founding of America, cultural diversity has been viewed along the dimension of social class (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). The educational system was established not only to promote economic development, but also to maintain a class system (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). The level of education a person received depended on the student's social class. With the influx of a large number of immigrants to the United States in the late 1800's the educational system switched to focus on cultural assimilation (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). At this time the black population of students were isolated in "separate but equal" schools.

In the 1970's the pluralism approach for cultural diversity education in schools had many dimensions (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). The pluralism approach took the perspective of equality between cultures and "intended to change attitudes and patterns of interaction between majority and minority persons" (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 161). Examples included single-group ethnic studies, and multicultural education classes (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990).

Business departments in higher education pulled additional elements into the cultural diversity curriculum to reflect international trade and commerce. In 1988 the Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act created 28 Centers for International Business Education located at designated universities (Sherer et al., 2002). The CIBERs were

given six requirements relating to the services provided to the public and other educational institutions. The requirements were:

1. Be national resources for the teaching of improved business techniques, strategies, and methodologies which emphasize the international context in which business is transacted;
2. Provide instruction in critical foreign languages and international fields needed to provide an understanding of the cultures and customs of United States trading partners;
3. Provide research and training in the international aspects of trade, commerce, and other fields of study;
4. Provide training to students enrolled in the institution or institutions in which a Center is located;
5. Serve as regional resources to local businesses by offering programs and providing research designed to meet the international training needs of such businesses; and
6. Serve other faculty, students and institutions of higher education located within their region. (Sherer et al., 2002, p. 254).

The international business curriculum developed by CIBER centers has provided an opportunity for students to learn about cultural issues, international business fundamentals and foreign languages. Study abroad through internships was another key component of cross-cultural training provided through CIBER (Sherer et al., 2002).

The Association of American College and Universities (AAC&U, 2001) has responded to globalization and multiculturalism through several initiatives: Diversity,

Democracy and Liberal Learning in 1995, The Drama of Diversity and Democracy in 1995, and the American Pluralism and the College Curriculum in 1995. These initiatives focused on the compatibility of liberal arts education and multiculturalism (Alemán & Salkever, 2003). A qualitative study by Alemán and Salkever (2003) included interviews with administrators, faculty and students to “understand the mission of liberal education and its relevance for multicultural community” (p. 564). Historically liberal education was developed “to socialize students to be free thinking individuals who will build democratic solidarity” (Alemán & Salkever, 2003, p. 565). The study found at a particular college “the use of liberal educational principles is an institutional condition that appears to thwart both multicultural curricular and programmatic change at the college” (Alemán & Salkever, 2003, p. 577). Despite the AAC&U’s emphasis on multiculturalism in the Alemán and Salkever, (2003) study there was “incoherence between its liberal educational mission and its multicultural goals” (p. 577).

The body of published research focused on diversity in the workplace has steadily increased over the last 40 years (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). In Wise and Tschirhart’s (2000) research they used a broader definition of diversity in a review of literature to determine the volume of diversity studies. The diversity dimensions included for the literature review were, race, culture, religion, gender, sexual preference, age, profession, organizational or team tenure, personality type, functional background, educational level, political party and other demographic, socioeconomic and psycho graphic characteristics (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). Legitimacy of diversity in the workplace research appeared to occur in the 1990’s when articles were published in top ranked journals (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000).

In summary, education's response to globalization flowed from assimilation to pluralism. Business departments in higher education responded to globalization by incorporating topics focused on international trade and commerce in the curriculum. CIBER centers were developed as hubs for the dissemination of cultural and global information and to serve as a resource for information about the incorporation of cultural diversity education in curriculum. AAC&U also acknowledged globalization and the impact multiculturalism had on liberal art colleges. And scholarly research on diversity in the workplace has emerged as a growing body of knowledge.

Cultural Diversity Education In Higher Education

Research regarding college students' post-college values, behaviors and attitudes indicated students gain greater tolerance to individual differences while in college (Whitt et al., 2001). In the first three years of college, non-course related peer interactions and discussions had a significant positive influence on cognitive development with regard to political opinion and religious beliefs (Whitt et al., 2001). Research about what specific college experiences influenced attitudes about diversity was limited (Whitt et al., 2001).

Another study that focused on first year college students listed three positive influences on learning and cognitive development related to openness to diversity and challenge (Whitt et al., 2001). The strongest predictor of openness to diversity was the student's pre-college openness (Whitt et al., 2001). A positive influence on openness to diversity and challenge was the extent students perceived their institution to have a nondiscriminatory racial environment (Whitt et al., 2001).

A third experience associated with openness was a student's participation in a cultural awareness workshop or involvement with diverse student acquaintances (Whitt et

al., 2001). Negative influences on openness related to participation in intercollegiate athletics, a social fraternity or sorority, and mathematics courses (Whitt et al., 2001).

Cultural diversity education infused across curriculum. Higher education has responded to the pressures of a global society by incorporating cultural diversity education in curriculum. Referring to cultural diversity education infused across curriculum Flannery and Vanterpool (1990) stated “the extent to which that preparation should be included in the classroom and the logistics of how it can be done in various disciplines is often unclear” (p. 159). There are many academic disciplines that naturally have a high interest in cultural diversity: sociology, political science, geography and anthropology (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). A conceptual framework according to Flannery and Vanterpool (1990) for infusing cultural diversity across a curriculum “targets learning objectives in the cognitive and affective domains emphasizing the student learning process and resistance or receptivity to cultural diversity concepts” (p. 162).

The salience of cultural diversity to students will be affected by the “humanitarian versus pragmatic motives of disciplines” they are studying (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 164). To elaborate on this point a study at Miami University pre and post tested students in secondary teacher education as well as housing and interior design (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). Teacher education students found more relevance for cultural diversity education than the housing and interior design students (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990). The lack of the perceived need for cultural diversity education by students in some majors will impede the development of cross-curricular cultural diversity education (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990).

Flannery and Vanterpool (1990) offered a curriculum design to overcome students' resistance to cultural diversity education. "These learning objectives are set within reference parameters which extend outward concentrically from the individual and family (inner cultural), to cultural groups within the same society (intracultural), to other cultural groups in other countries (intercultural)" (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 169). Hence, the cultural diversity education was a building process starting with areas more familiar to the student and expanding to cultural diversity areas the student had little knowledge. Activities related to each of the cultural diversity awareness levels can enhance a curriculum to promote student salience (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990).

Another educational model by Bacon and Kischner (2002) to infuse cultural diversity education across a curriculum offered "content knowledge, exposure to diverse cultures and experiences, and authentic application" as key components for the program (p. 49). Exposing students to guest speakers with different cultural backgrounds was an important component of the cultural diversity training. "Diverse and interdependent community organizations can serve as important partners to teachers as they model a diverse and interdependent world in their classroom" (Bacon & Kischner, 2002, p. 49). Students had the opportunity to learn through the small group conversations initiated by the guest speakers (Bruffee, 1999). The classroom experience and cultural diversity exposure was enhanced when teachers went beyond the four walls of the classroom and tapped community resources (Bacon & Kischner, 2002).

There are several examples in higher education where cultural diversity and a global economy are infused across the curriculum. Michigan State's CIBER center developed a Global Management Certificate program offered completely on-line (Sherer

et al., 2002). The certificate had a global focus threaded through all the business topics. The University of South Carolina offered a Masters of International Business Studies, which required students to not only learn a foreign language, but also learn the details of the respective culture that spoke the language (Sherer et al., 2002). Duke University offered a Global Executive MBA that incorporated 11 weeks of direct exposure to new cultures by holding classes in Western Europe, Asia, and South America (Sherer et al., 2002). These are just a few of many examples of universities offering programs related to cultural diversity and a global economy.

In summary, cultural diversity education has been infused across curriculum in many ways. Research uncovered different disciplinary perspectives and varied methods of implementation and incorporation of cultural diversity education. Varied examples were offered to demonstrate the inclusion of cultural diversity education in curriculum.

Cultural diversity education worldwide. Efforts to globalize curriculum has not been limited to the United States. Cultural diversity education can be found offered around the world. A survey that included questions about global education received responses from people in 52 countries (Tye, 2003). In response to the survey, the building of national loyalties was a major emphasis in schools, despite the growing global society (Tye, 2003).

In Canada, for example, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) had a new Global Classroom Initiative to “encourage the integration of a global perspective into teaching and to instill a sense of global citizenship and increased awareness of the difference that individual and collective actions can make on issues of

global importance” (Tye, 2003, p. 166). England offered an Education for Citizen course that contained many elements of global education (Tye, 2003).

Since the 1990’s, China has also started incorporating a global emphasis in international studies. Realizing other countries also value the importance of cultural diversity affirms Tye’s (2003) statement;

Global education also involves learning to understand and appreciate our neighbors who have different cultural backgrounds from ours; to see the world through the eyes and minds of others; and to realize that other people of the world need and want much the same things. (p. 165)

The importance of cultural diversity education has expanded beyond the United States to countries around the world.

Teaching cultural diversity. Cultural diversity education can also be delivered as a specific course “by focusing on both cognitive and affective objectives, the learning experience includes thinking and feeling dimensions preparing students for greater understanding of diversity and change over time” (Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990, p. 175). Van Note Chism (2002) found that, “American citizens believe that (a) understanding of difference will be increasingly important in our society and (b) diversity education is important and effective” (p. 130). The acknowledgement by citizens of the need for diversity education was an important message to educational leaders. The receptive conviction of American citizens provided greater acceptance for incorporating diversity classes in program offerings. “Teaching for diversity is not only being more welcoming to diverse groups, but also increasing the sensitivity of majority students to cultural differences” (Van Note Chism, 2002, p. 134).

Curriculum and instructional strategies are the two broad categories Van Note Chism (2002) noted as issues for teaching diversity courses. The content and curriculum of a course was at the discretion of the instructor. Instructors, like all individuals, bring their own perceptions, biases and ways of thought to the development process. And instructional strategies in a classroom directly related to the teaching style of the instructor. “The perspective and predispositions that you carry around in your head are very important in shaping what you see and what you don’t see” (Friedman, 2005, p. 197). Van Note Chism (2002) contended that, in general both curriculum and pedagogy reflect the “male European cultural style that constrains full participants by students from other backgrounds and excludes insights from other cultures” (p. 132). Respect for faculty control of content and delivery methodology may be a reason for slow infusion of diversity in the classroom (Van Note Chism, 2002).

With diversity education content reliant on the teacher’s perspective and knowledge, there are endless content configurations. Fulkerth (1994) noted the expansion of subject matter considered for diversity education in recent years. Fulkerth (1994) said, “in addition to matters of culture, race and social practices, topics such as harassment, lifestyles, power, social status, the English-only workplace and relationships between men and women are now matters of concern for our students” (p. 41).

Students worked with merchants in the community whose first language was not English in a project developed by Vesper (1994) and the local chamber of commerce. The class project provided students exposure to diverse cultures one-on-one as they made businesses aware of chamber services. Pomerence (1994) took the approach that a diversity issue might not be related to gender or nationality, but interests. The case

example involved two women new to middle management and what the company would do at the annual golf outing because the women did not play golf (Pomerence, 1994).

Kaser (1998) suggested tapping people in the community who conduct business globally or are from different ethnic backgrounds to serve as resources to interact with students.

Inclusive teaching highlighted four main points to consider for diversity conscious instruction: (a) all students need to feel welcome, (b) they need to feel that they are being treated as individuals, (c) they need to feel that they can participate fully, and (d) they need to be treated fairly (Van Note Chism, 2002, p. 132). Faculty members who incorporate inclusive teaching methods helped students get the most from their education (Van Note Chism, 2002). Inclusive teaching was a challenge even for experienced teachers (Fulkerth, 1994; Pomerence, 1994; Vesper, 1994).

Study Abroad Programs

“From the very beginning of our lives we construct knowledge in conversation with other people” (Bruffee, 1999, p. 135). University study abroad programs allow students the opportunity to interact with people from other cultures. “We leave one community of knowledgeable peers and join another” (Bruffee, 1999, p. 135). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) stated, “the most powerful learning comes from direct experience” (p. 10). Study abroad programs immerse students in a new culture. However, the cost of study abroad programs significantly limits the number of participants in this type of cultural diversity education.

In recent years education has undergone globalization and internationalization (Altbach, 2002). “In the globalized world of science and scholarship, knowledge knows no borders” (Altbach, 2004a, p. 12). Participants in international education programs, as

well as the countries from which they come and go, gain benefits from study abroad programs (Cummings, 2001). Students traveling, as well as students in the host countries, have the opportunity to be exposed to different cultures from their own. Foreign students who study in the United States and return home “carry American ideas with them. They add to our soft power, the ability to win the hearts and minds of others” (Nye, 2004, p. 1). Friendships and positive associations could be built with foreign students educated in the United States. These friendships could prove to be valuable assets if the students go on to be future world leaders (Nye, 2004). Study abroad programs provide the venue for “boundary conversations” (Bruffee, 1999, p. 11).

Education as an industry. Increases in exchange programs may be attributed to the change in the way education is now viewed as a global commodity. Higher education is considered an industry that can be bought and sold in the global marketplace (Naidoo, 2003). This view of education as industry parallels the expanded global marketplace seen for other goods and services. Positioning higher education as a global commodity has afforded higher education institutions an expanded marketplace to recruit new students and an expanded opportunity for exposure to different cultures. With reference to different knowledge communities Bruffee (1999) states, “conversation toward consensus requires them to confront and come to terms with the differences between their own fixed beliefs and the contradicting fixed beliefs of their peers” (p. 17).

As Bruffee (1999) described, learning and knowledge was taken from other countries through the conversations. Naidoo (2003) may consider this intellectual capital. Developing countries utilize international exchanges as a way to obtain intellectual capital that would not be available in their own countries (Naidoo, 2003). Intellectual

capital was seen as a resource for developing countries to generate economic success and a form of diversity brought back to home countries. For example, India and China have been sending more and more students to study abroad. According to Turner-Morris (2004) even the United Kingdom looks toward other countries to recruit engineering students to study at United Kingdom colleges. International education exchange programs can provide potential solutions to the inequalities of knowledge distribution among countries (Naidoo, 2003).

Globalization of the knowledge community should not be seen in the same way as free trade of automobiles (Altbach, 2002). “An understanding of the past, of culture, and of democratic values, among other things, is part of education, and these elements cannot be subsumed in some global marketplace” (Altbach, 2002. p. 14). The potential for profits has also lured non-university providers into the higher education market (Naidoo, 2003). Academic institutions now operate like businesses positioning their products for potential students to buy.

Economic implications. In recent years Australia, United Kingdom and New Zealand have become more aggressive in recruiting foreign students (Altbach, 2004a; Nye, 2004). “Governments in all three countries have stimulated an active foreign education policy as a means of reducing local expenditures on higher education” (Altbach, 2004a, p 22). In 2003, Australia experienced a 31% increase in Indian students and 25% increase enrollment from Chinese students (Communications of the ACM, 2004). The increase of Chinese and Indian students in Australia could be in part from more aggressive recruiting practices of Australia and new regulation established for foreign students wanting to study in the United States. Collaboration between European

countries is in the developmental stages (Altbach, 2004b). This collaboration will make student exchanges between the European countries easier (Altbach, 2004b). Within the next five years the European countries may also become more unified and aggressive in attracting foreign students (Altbach, 2004b).

Countries are also engaged in transnational education by partnering with educational institutions and private companies to offer educational services in developing countries (Altbach, 2004b). Australia and the United Kingdom are two countries actively seeking out partners to offer educational services in developing countries (Altbach, 2004b). “Governments see transnational education, like attracting foreign students, as a way to increase higher education’s revenues” (Altbach, 2004b, p. 19). Similar to what Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) described as how, “Japanese companies used knowledge creation to turn economic crisis into competitive opportunity” (p. 17).

The economic implications of international education also contributed to the view of higher education as a global commodity. The United States Department of Commerce ranked educational services as the fifth largest service sector export (Blumental et al., 2004). International education contributed \$12.9 billion to the United States economy in 2003 (Blumental et al., 2004; Nye, 2004). The \$12.9 billion was spent by international students predominantly on their living expenses and tuition. Approximately two-thirds of the international student’s funds came from outside of the United States from personal funding (Blumental et al., 2004).

An example of the growing number of students wanting to attend college in the United States can be seen in the enrollment history of international students attending Yale (Friedman, 2005). “Yale’s total international student contingent went from 836 in

the fall 1985 to 1,775 in the fall of 2003” (Friedman, 2005, p. 193). To break these numbers down further “the fall 1985 class had 71 graduate and undergraduate students from China and 1 from the Soviet Union. The fall 2003 class had 297 Chinese graduate and undergraduate students and 23 Russians” (Friedman, 2005, p. 193).

Study abroad challenges. There are also many challenges related to study abroad and international education. In the wake of September 11th, 2001, regulations for international students entering the United States increased (Cummings, 2001; Nye, 2004). The after affects of September 11th also led to personal safety concerns for students in the United States and abroad (Cummings, 2001). Initially these challenges did not reduce the flow of international students in or out of the United States. (Institute of International Education, 2002). However, in 2003, the number of foreign students in America fell for the first time since 1971 (Nye, 2004). The increased paperwork imposed to obtain an American Visa may have deterred foreign students (Nye, 2004).

The economy also served as a challenge for international education (Cummings, 2001). The fluctuation of currency, a recession in a nation or in the world economy, had an impact on the affordability of an international education and foreign students’ enrollments (Cummings, 2001). In a recent study by the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE) (2004) foreign students studying in Canada were increasingly coming from wealthier families. In 1988 24% of the foreign students self reported their families as affluent whereas, in 2004, this number grew to 33% (CBIE, 2004).

Challenges in data collection for international education are also evident (Vande Berg, 1999). Broad generalized statistical data was collected at the governmental level.

Professional organizations, with the cooperation of local universities, conduct surveys to obtain additional information about international education. The Institute of International Education's study abroad survey was one such example of a source of information for the study abroad programs in the United States. The data provided from surveys was based on self-reported information. As with any self-reported survey there are those that choose not to answer the questionnaire. Vande Berg (1999), in his presentation at the CIEE conference, suggested establishing a national goal for study abroad participation by United States students. By establishing a national goal for study abroad, universities would have a target goal to strive to achieve (Vande Berg, 1999). Vande Berg (1999) also suggested focusing on the educational outcomes that different types of study abroad programs tend to produce in participants. The establishment of a goal and the collection of more detailed information could provide added importance for international education.

Study abroad influences. There are other factors that influence students to participate in study abroad programs. Students may not be able to obtain an education in their home country because they were denied entry into a local university and/or the students find it easier to apply to a foreign university (Altbach, 2004b). Some countries may have limited availability in specialized educational areas as well as, limited masters and doctoral studies making the appeal to study abroad greater (Altbach, 2004b). Other factors that influence students to study abroad included social and political forces in their home countries (Altbach, 2004b).

Cultural adjustment. There are examples where the learning through conversation model has failed for exchange students because the language differences were too diverse (Bruffee, 1999). Challenges based on cultural and language differences for students in

study abroad programs have impacted their academic success. One study of Taiwanese students studying in the United States uncovered specific indicators for students' academic success (Yin, 2003). The study by Yin (2003) was important because the Chinese localities have a significant number of students participating in United States exchange programs. Yin's (2003) multidimensional model looked at three areas that could be linked to the academic success of exchange students. The social relationships the Taiwanese students develop with Americans, their social support network, and English language skills, all contributed to their academic success and their perception of quality for the exchange experience (Yin, 2003).

International students from Europe appear to experience less cultural adjustment stress than students from Asia, Central/Latin America, and Africa (Yeh & Inose, 2003). Yeh and Inose's (2003) findings are similar to the study by Yin (2003) in noting English fluency as an indicator of reduced acculturation stress. Carr, Koyama, and Thiagarajan (2003) initiated a woman's support group for Asian international students as a way to help students feel more at ease while students at an American university and reduce the acculturation stress. Since language skills continue to appear as a barrier for Asian students in the United States, the women participating in the support groups were encouraged to speak in their native language to express feelings of frustration and happiness (Carr et al., 2003). The study group model of Carr et al., (2003) assisted foreign students in adjusting to the challenges faced by Asian study abroad students through conversation. Cultural differences and the ability to adapt to cultural differences appeared to have an impact on the level of stress exchange students encountered (Carr et al., 2003).

In summary, international education has been seen as a “global commodity” (Naidoo, 2003). Students from developing countries seek out an education to gain intellectual capital and a competitive business advantage (Naidoo, 2003). However, it has been argued the cultural and social side of education should not be overlooked (Altbach, 2002, p. 14). The significant economic impact international students create has been an important factor in categorizing international education as a commodity (Blumental et al., 2004). The exchange of students can also be seen as an exchange of cultures and a way to provide increased exposure to diverse societies through conversations (Bruffee, 1999). The exchange of students also has relevance with Nonaka and Takeuchi’s (1995) social interaction for knowledge creation theory.

There are many challenges related to international education study abroad programs. Some challenges related to the security issues created after the events of September 11th. Other challenges were linked directly to the participants and their socialization and language skills (Yin, 2003). Economic conditions also had an impact on the number of participants in international education study abroad programs. Vande Berg (1999) suggested, in the future, establishing national goals for international education and a more in depth collection of data.

Globalization and Other Organizations

Business and industry responded to the changing United States demographic profile by offering their employees cultural diversity training (Bucher, 2004). Training workshops were designed to enhance cultural awareness and improve working relationships between diverse populations (Bucher, 2004). Organizations that offer cultural diversity education gain a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Allison,

1999; Carneval & Stone, 1994; Day, 1995). Cultural diversity training was also found across the career specific disciplines of healthcare, social sciences and psychology. The need for business and career disciplines to offer cultural diversity training acknowledged a perceived skill gap found in workers related to cultural diversity awareness (Bucher, 2004).

Cultural Diversity Education in the Workplace

The workforce reflects the changing United States demographic profile. Specific job disciplines as well as many organizations have responded to the challenges a diverse workforce has created. Diversity skills gained from training allows co-workers to interact in a way that respects and values differences (Bucher, 2004). Organizational training programs have been developed to fill competency or skill gaps of workers. The emergence of diversity training in disciplines and organizations reflected a perceived gap by employers in workers educational preparation (Bucher, 2004).

A Rutgers University study uncovered sharply differing views regarding how minorities are treated on the job (Dixon, Storen, & Van Horn, 2002). A large number of workers have no experience with diversity issues because they work for what are essentially one-color operations (Dixon et al., 2002). Nearly one-third (31%) of American workers reported they have no African-American colleagues and 34% say they had no Hispanic co-workers (Dixon et al., 2002). According to the research, 46% of African-American workers believed they would be treated unfairly by their employers, compared with 10% of whites, and 13% of person of other races (Dixon et al., 2002). According to Dixon (2002):

Almost forty years since the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that

mandated legal equality for minorities, race remains a major barrier among Americans in the workplace, both in how people perceive and experienced discrimination, and what they want done about it. (p. 1)

Half of all the workers surveyed in the Rutgers University study believed employers and workers were responsible for addressing discrimination in the workplace (Dixon et al., 2002). Less than 10% said federal or state government were primarily responsible (Dixon et al., 2002). Workers expressed many opinions on what employers should do to reduce incidents of discrimination (Dixon et al., 2002) (see Table 2). Over 50% of the workers did not think anything needed to be done to reduce discrimination in the workplace (Dixon et al., 2002).

Organizations may also create barriers to limit the value of diversity and multiculturalism in the workplace (Allison, 1999). Resentment and non-responsiveness may be created by using terms referring to hiring quotas and affirmative action programs (Allison, 1999). Policies and procedures need to be communicated and understood by an organization's workforce (Allison, 1999). Ineffective training has also been an organizational barrier that reduced the value of multiculturalism within an organization. Characteristics of ineffective organizational diversity education will be discussed further in a following section.

Discipline Specific Cultural Diversity Training

The implementation of cultural diversity training can be found across several disciplines of research literature: education, healthcare, the social sciences and organizational studies. Cultural diversity education occurs in elementary through college level institutions. A Midwestern school district's multicultural initiative included

elementary, middle school and high school multicultural education programs (King et al., 2004). Examples of cultural diversity awareness in higher education were addressed earlier with several higher education examples.

Table 2

Practices Employers Should Implement to Reduce Discrimination

Employer Practices	Percentage of Workers Who Support the Practice
Punitive Measures	8%
Workshops to Explain Discrimination	9%
Diversity Training	12%
Policy on Reporting Discrimination	14%
Written Rules Outlining What is Discrimination	15%
None	17%
Don't Need Any	33%

Note. From “A workplace divided: How Americans view discrimination and race on the job” Dixon, K.A., Storen, D., & Van Horn, C.E. (2002, January). John J. Heldrich Center for Workforce Development, Rutgers University, New Jersey.

Healthcare workers are affected by the changing demographic composition in the United States. “A diversity conscious healthcare provider must be sensitive to patient’s language preferences and religious beliefs, in addition to beliefs about sickness, death, and bereavement; the role of the family in healthcare; diet; and norms regarding modesty” (Bucher, 2004, p. 59). Healthcare professionals are on the front line working

directly with the increasingly diverse population. There are many examples of cultural diversity training for healthcare professionals.

One illustration of cultural diversity training and learning through conversation (Bruffee, 1999) can be seen in a pilot program at the University of Michigan. Fourth year medical students talked with first year medical students about their experiences treating patients and working with colleagues from culturally diverse backgrounds (Bucher, 2004). Wells (2000) suggested developing mentor relationships between nurses with greater cultural awareness with those nurses needing to develop greater cultural sensitivity. Through one-on-one conversations increased cultural awareness can be achieved (Wells, 2000). At a broader educational level the National League for Nursing Accrediting Commission is setting criteria for cultural diversity in nursing education (Wells, 2000).

In the social sciences there are many examples of diversity education. One study for field instructors in social work implemented diversity education in an effort to increase the field instructors' ability to work with students with different cultural backgrounds than themselves (Armour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004). Armour et al., (2004) noted, "participants express that discoveries from the training increased self-knowledge and empowered them to take the initiative to address diversity issues with the agency, student, or client system" (p. 34). This study indicated, with the proper training, field instructors felt more comfortable dealing with multicultural issues. The findings of Armour et al., (2004) directly model the theoretical framework of diversity education for college students regarding, "collaborative learning models the conversation by which communities of knowledgeable peers construct knowledge" (Bruffee, 1999, p. 53).

There are many training examples for counselors in the field of psychology (Ancis, 1998). Multicultural awareness training included a variety of instructional models; class room, video, and distance learning. Regardless of the training method, three characteristics were found essential for culturally competent counselors (Ancis, 1998). One competency was self-awareness of personal biases (Ancis, 1998). Another competency was awareness of the client's cultural background followed by the ability to formulate the appropriate intervention strategy (Ancis, 1998).

Organization Specific Cultural Diversity Training

Organizations that welcome diversity and maintain a receptive environment gain a competitive advantage in the marketplace and these results can be directly connected to bottom line profit (Allison, 1999; Carnevale & Stone, 1994; Day, 1995; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000) Advantages related to creativity, improved adaptability to change and problem solving ability were also found in companies that valued a diverse workforce (Cox & Blake, 1991). A lack of appreciation for diversity can be costly to organizations in the form of lost productivity and even attrition (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000; Schaefer, 2005). Workplace discrimination and harassment can also result in costly lawsuits and penalties. Some organizations may have a proactive approach to diversity education. Unfortunately, many organizations wait until they are party to accusations of wrongdoing or forced into a multimillion-dollar legal settlement before conducting diversity-training programs (Schaefer, 2005). Ultimately, the objective of diversity education was to impact organizational culture to "create a safer and more productive working environment for all organizational members" (Karp & Sammour, 2000, p. 454).

The transformation of an organization's attitude will be needed to create an atmosphere that values diversity (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). "Firms should establish ongoing education programs that focus on diversity issues" (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000, p. 103). To create a receptive environment, Zhu and Kleiner (2000) offered a list of action steps for employers to incorporate as a part of diversity awareness training. "Dispensing information about how differences such as race, creed, or lifestyle might affect employees without offering a set of techniques to manage those differences is pointless" (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000). The initial action step was to acknowledge discrimination and harassment do occur in the workplace (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000). Another action was the removal of the term diversity in training programs to help eliminate negative connotations (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000). An organization needs a plan to implement a zero tolerance policy (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000). The plan should include five components: (a) create a written policy, (b) hold an employee orientation, (c) put a complaint system in place, (d) provide an accountability procedure and, (e) offer an appeals process (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000, p. 13). "The solution to reducing discrimination and harassment lies in redirecting the focus from diversity training to behavior modification" (Zhu & Kleiner, 2000, p. 13). "Organizational change literature implies that modifying employee behavior requires a change in corporate philosophy and subsequent practice" (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000, p. 103). Top management's support was a key element of any initiative for diversity training to succeed (Bucher, 2004; Carnevale & Stone, 1994; Carr-Ruffino, 2005; Caudron, 1993; Cox & Blake, 1991; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000; Zhu & Kleiner, 2000).

Forms of diversity training. Diversity education programs can be categorized into several topic areas. Communication of an organization's diversity policy is one category (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). Communication is a broad area that encompasses both verbal communication and written documents. Education and training classes are another type of diversity education (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). Employee-involvement initiatives included focus groups, task forces and other committees that bring employees together in conversation about diversity issues (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). To assist minority employees with promotion opportunities career development and career-planning activities are part of valuing diversity in organizations. Valuing diversity also involves tolerance. According to Friedman (2005), "when tolerance is the norm, everyone flourishes" (p. 327). There are also reward and incentive programs tied to diversity performance and accountability initiatives (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). Cox and Blake (1991) offered a similar categorization with key components to transform organizations into multicultural ones. Their components included leadership, training, research, analysis of change and follow up. Gilbert and Ivancevich (2000) offered, "greater acceptance of diversity is achieved by using multiple efforts, constant reinforcement, and broad-scale change initiatives" (p. 93).

There are many examples of companies who have successfully implemented diversity training. Seventy-five percent of business had instituted some type of cultural diversity training programs as of 2000 (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000; Schaefer, 2005). Components of the companies' training programs contain many of the above-mentioned topic/category areas identified for diversity training. The Prudential Company initiated a diversity program that included training and task forces after surveying its African-

American workers to find out why so many of these individuals were leaving the company (Caudron, 1993). In the 1970's, Avon Products Inc. took an assimilation stance when new hires joined the organization (Caudron, 1993; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000). An employee survey uncovered concerns that led to training seminars, employee networks and the development of a National Managing Diversity Council (Caudron, 1993). A survey to Hewlett-Packard Company employees showed greater negativity in minority workers than in non-minority workers (Caudron, 1993). Nine training modules, improved internal communication and accountability of managers were the action steps taken by Hewlett-Packard Company as part of their diversity education initiative (Caudron, 1993). Xerox and JCPenney CEOs were able to make valuing diversity an essential business component by incorporating diversity in their mission statements (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000).

Ineffective diversity awareness training can hurt an organization's effort to promote multicultural awareness (Caudron, 1993). Myths of stereotyping, fear, and resistance from the majority culture, surfaced when training was not handled properly (Caudron, 1993). Ineffective trainers, unorganized programs, and content not relevant to business needs were elements of ineffective training (Caudron, 1993; Day, 1995). The diversity education objective relative to the organization needs to be clear to trainers and managers (Day, 1995). The implementation of diversity training in an organization can be volatile and controversial if not implemented with comprehensive organizational support (Caudron, 1993). In some organizations diversity education was simply looked at as a public relations tool and not as an organizational policy to create a competitive advantage

(Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000). Under these circumstances the cultural diversity education had minimal impact (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000).

Bucher (2004) suggested ethics training was an increasingly important element of diversity education. “Most people associate ethics with values or moral principles that helps us determine what is fair and honorable” (Bucher, 2004, p. 57). Cultural backgrounds influence values and morals. Cultural diversity education helps identify circumstances where what is right or wrong may vary depending on the person’s cultural background (Bucher, 2004).

In summary, cultural diversity training within organizations takes many forms. Organizations can gain a competitive advantage by creating a welcoming environment for diverse workers (Allison, 1999; Carnevale & Stone, 1994; Day, 1995). Diversity education covers communication, training, employee involvement, career development and incentive programs (Carnevale & Stone, 1994). There were many company specific examples highlighting internal diversity programs. Ineffective diversity awareness training can be detrimental to an organization (Caudron, 1993). And ethics is an integral part of diversity education in the workplace (Bucher, 2004).

Summary

The review of literature covered three broad areas: globalization trends, globalization and higher education, and globalization and other organizations. Globalization trends included the review of metaphors used to describe the multicultural complexion of the United States. The terms reflected a change from an assimilation perspective to one of pluralism. The purpose and emphasis of cultural diversity as part of the educational system over the course of history followed the same trend of assimilation

to pluralism. Businesses today operate with a global reach and influence. The growing diversity of the United States population has also influenced educational curriculum. Many models were presented for cultural diversity education in higher education in the United States. These examples included diversity curriculum and study abroad programs. Cultural diversity education occurred in the workplace as part of organizations' diversity initiatives. Research across many professional disciplines has emphasized the importance of cultural diversity awareness training. Diversity training programs in the workplace are prevalent. The conceptual framework using Bruffee's (1999) collaborative learning model, and Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) knowledge creation theory were intertwined throughout the literature review.

The research design and methodology utilized to answer the research questions will be presented in Chapter Three. The data analysis and results will be presented in Chapter Four. The summary and findings, implications for practice in higher education, recommendations for future research, and conclusions will be presented in Chapter Five. Appendices include the Survey of Intergroup Relations II pre and posttest, the Survey of Intergroup Relations II pre and posttest with subscales identified. The appendices also include the statistical analysis used for the cognitive, affective and behavioral questionnaire items. Statistical functions used included paired sample *t*-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), cross tabulation, and Chi-Square analysis.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to assess the outcomes of students taking a cultural diversity in business course and compare those students with the outcomes of a control group of students taking another capstone public affairs course. The design of the study included both a pre-test and posttest of students in both courses. This chapter will explain the design of the study. The research questions and hypothesis will be discussed along with information about the sample, data collection, and instrumentation. Information about how the data was analyzed and the treatments applied using SPSS 13.0 software will also be discussed.

Research Questions

The primary research questions are as follows:

4. To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' cognitive perceptions (see a and b) regarding different cultures?
 - a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
 - b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.
5. To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' affective perceptions (see a and b) regarding different cultures?
 - a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.
 - b. Perceived benefit of course.

6. To what extent do students in a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly differ in their behavior (see a) from students in other courses?
 - a. Choice to participate in cultural activities.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses, which related to the stated research questions, were also explored in this study:

Hypothesis 1. There is a significant increase in students' cognitive outcomes to accept different cultures after taking the cultural diversity in business course.

- a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
- b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.

Hypothesis 2. There is a significant increase in students' affective outcomes to accept different cultures after taking the cultural diversity in business course.

- a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.
- b. Perceived benefit of course.

Hypothesis 3. There is a significant difference in students' behavioral interactions For students in the cultural diversity in business course as compared with students in other courses at a Midwest university.

- a. Choice to participate in cultural activities

The following subsequent null hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant cognitive outcomes in students who

participated in the cultural diversity in business course and the control group.

- a. Perceived knowledge about diverse groups.
- b. Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.

Hypothesis 2. There are no significant affective outcomes in students who participated in the cultural diversity in business course and the control group.

- a. Level of prejudicial attitudes.
- b. Perceived benefit of course.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences in students' behavioral interactions for students in the cultural diversity in business course as compared with students in other courses at a Midwest university.

- a. Choice to participate in cultural activities

Population and Sample

The subjects studied for this research were undergraduate students in the college of business administration at a Midwest university. The students were enrolled in classes during the summer and fall terms 2005. The sample size in each class was approximately 25 to 30 students. Six classes were selected to survey during two different semesters to provide a sample size of approximately 75 students in each group, or 150 students total. Populations for the study were comprised of: (a) three capstone classes with students enrolled in a course titled Cultural Diversity in Business (CDIB) or (b) three classes with

students enrolled in other public affairs capstone courses not titled Cultural Diversity in Business (CAP).

The public affairs capstone courses not titled Cultural Diversity in Business were considered the control group. The control group classes were selected through cluster sampling. The classes were selected at random by numbering the courses and using the random number program at www.random.com to select the courses to survey (Random numbers, n.d.). Data collection included a pre-test and posttest questionnaire given to the participants in the courses selected. (See Appendixes A and B for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II). Participation in the study was optional and voluntary for all students in the selected classes.

The following narrative was provided in the Midwest university's 2006 electronic catalog to describe the content of the Cultural Diversity in Business course:

This Capstone is designed to expand the student's awareness of both the cognitive knowledge and skill necessary to effectively interact with and/or serve culturally diverse populations. This course will particularly emphasize attitudes and competencies that are important in effective professional business relationships. The course will not be exhaustive in its discussion of culturally diverse populations, but will focus on those whose diversity is cultural and who are more likely to be encountered by the students entering the business world. Students will be asked to select one of the listed cultures for an in depth study. Student will be expected to be consistently involved in discussions, learning projects, writings,

guest speakers and videos related to the diversity of that particular culture. This proposed section of GEP is highly consistent with the public affairs and general education missions of the University. Effective lifelong participation within the worldwide community requires a basic understanding of the fundamental forces that are changing and reshaping American business.

The Cultural Diversity in Business capstone course description specifically addressed the cognitive and affective objectives of the course as achieved through discussions. The course description reflected the conceptual underpinning for this study with Bruffee's (1999) learning through conversation for knowledge creation and Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) social interaction for knowledge creation.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The questionnaire approach was a self-report procedure using the Survey of Intergroup Relations II administered at the beginning and end of the summer and fall semesters 2005 at a Midwest university. Courses in two semesters were used to obtain an adequate sample size of approximately 75 students in the control group capstone classes and 75 students in the Cultural Diversity in Business capstone classes. The questionnaire was given to all students who were present on the date the questionnaire was administered in the designated sections of the capstone courses. The course instructors permitted the questionnaire to be taken during the regularly scheduled course time. It was assumed that students had no reason to lie about their knowledge, though self-report is a source of bias for research using this type of instrument.

Because students were involved, the concept and proposed methods of this research were reviewed and approved by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at the Midwest university and the University of Missouri-Columbia. As directed by the Review Boards, students read an informed consent form before taking the Survey of Intergroup Relations II.

Quantitative data was collected measuring three dependent variables: cognitive outcomes (knowledge of other groups); affective outcomes (attitudes toward other groups); and behavioral outcomes. The independent variable was the capstone course taken. Background information about the participants was gathered from demographic questions. The demographic variables included the participant's sex, year in school, major, ethnic background, mother's educational background, father's educational background, amount of contact with ethnic groups in high school, exchange student abroad, and travel abroad for pleasure. Demographic variables also included the number of times the respondent felt they had been discriminated against because of their race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, religion, language, or affiliation with a fraternity or sorority. For greater clarity, the subscales for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II are identified and visibly labeled in Appendixes C and D. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

The questionnaire administered in this study, the Survey of Intergroup Relations II (See Appendixes A and B for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II), was an instrument modified from research conducted by Geranios (1997) for a dissertation. Modification to the instrument included the elimination of some behavioral items and the addition of

background items related to travel and study abroad, and languages spoken. In Geranios' (1997) study, detailed information was provided about the development of the Survey of Intergroup Relations. Feedback was obtained to enhance the face validity of the instrument (Geranios, 1997). The items on Geranios' (1997) Survey of Intergroup Relations instrument were selected from other survey instruments to measure specific cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes. Geranios (1997) contended the strategic selection of items from other instruments would ensure the content validity.

The instrument for this study was developed to assess the cognitive and affective outcomes in the targeted students. The Survey of Intergroup Relations II used for this study contained 97 total questions: 22 affective items, 29 cognitive items, 12 behavioral items and 31 demographic items with 4 subsequent questions (See Appendixes A and B for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II). Subscale scores were generated in each of these areas: affective, (a) level of prejudicial attitudes, (b) perceived benefit of course; cognitive, (a) perceived knowledge about diverse groups, (b) perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues; and behavioral areas, (a) choice to participate in cultural activities. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Data Analysis Considerations/Treatment

The strategy of statistical analysis included independent samples *t*-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), cross tabulation, and Chi-Square analysis. Pre and posttest surveys were matched based on the students' first five digits of their student number. The independent samples *t*-test was applied to measure the changes in the pre-test and posttest affective and cognitive items. The independent

samples *t*-test identified the difference between the means for the pre and posttest survey for the dependent variables for cognitive and affective subscales. ANOVA was used with individuals subscale scores to determine “whether the between groups variance differs from the within groups variance by more than what would be expected by chance” (Gay & Airasian, 2003, p. 467). To equate the control group with the treatment group ANCOVA was used to adjust scores for initial differences (Gay & Airasian, 2003). ANCOVA analysis provided a way to equalize the control group and the treatment group and compensate for self-select bias (Gay & Airasian, 2003). For acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis a five percent (.05) level of confidence was used.

Subscale scores were calculated in each of these areas:

Level of prejudicial attitudes. The affective subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 21 Likert item questions related to prejudicial attitudes. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree somewhat, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree somewhat, 5 = strongly agree). These scores will be totaled to generate an affective subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived benefit of course. The subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained two Likert item questions. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1 = none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant). These scores were totaled to generate subscale scores. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived knowledge about diverse groups. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 12 Likert item questions. Students receive a score of

1 to 5 for each item (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant). These scores were totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 17 Likert item questions. Students receive a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant). These scores were totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Choice to participate in cultural activities. The participation subscale contained 12 behavioral yes/no questions on the Survey for Intergroup Relations II. Students received one point for each yes response. This resulted in a score for the participation subscale. (See Appendix C for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

The statistical analysis used for the behavioral item on the pretest was the independent samples *t*-test. The independent samples *t*-test compared students in the cultural diversity in business class with the control group for their opportunities to participate in cultural activities. The *t*-test determined if there were significant differences.

The demographic data provided descriptive nominal data about the students. The demographic data was examined with the Chi-Square analysis. The Chi-Square test evaluated the association of two categorical variables (Burns & Bush, 2000). “The Chi Square analysis goes with the assumption that no association exists between the two nominal-scaled variables under analysis” (Burns & Bush, 2000, p. 581). For acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis a five percent (.05) level of confidence was used. The

measure of central tendency was gathered by analyzing the mean (Burns & Bush, 2000). The standard deviation calculation measured the variability among variables (Burns & Bush, 2000). The mean, standard deviation and percentages were derived for the nominal variables of sex, age, grade in college, disability, parents' education level, participation as an exchange student, length of time studying abroad, pleasure travel abroad and languages spoken. The statistical analysis was run using SPSS 13.0 statistical software.

Summary

The purpose of this research was to assess the outcomes of students taking a cultural diversity in business course and compare those students with the outcomes of a control group of students taking another capstone public affairs course. This chapter described the research design and methodology. The sample, data analysis and considerations were explained and the research questions and hypothesis were also covered. Additionally, the data analysis and treatment of the data was addressed. Chapter Four will explain the data analysis and results followed by concluding remarks in Chapter Five. The concluding remarks will provide a summary of the study, implications and recommendations.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify any significant cognitive or affective outcomes in students participating in a cultural diversity in business course as compared to students in other capstone public affairs courses. The research design and methodology utilized to answer the research questions was presented previously in Chapter Three. This chapter presents an analysis of data collected from the Survey of Intergroup Relations II obtained from students at a Midwest university.

The study was a quasi-experimental design utilizing a convenience sample. The participants were not randomly selected. The students selected the classes they wanted to attend and the researcher selected the classes for the study. The questionnaire was administered as a pre and posttest to students in both CDIB and CAP courses during regularly scheduled class time at the beginning and end of a semester. Statistical functions to analyze the data included independent samples *t*-test, cross tabulation, and chi-square analysis.

Cross tabulation was used to derive the mean, standard deviation and percentages for the nominal variables. These variables included sex, age, ethnic origin, grade in college, academic major, disability, parents' education level, participation as an exchange student, pleasure travel abroad and languages spoken.

The independent samples *t*-test analysis was applied to measure the changes in the pre and posttest affective and cognitive subscale items. The independent samples *t*-test identified the similarity between the means for the CDIB and CAP pretests and

differences between the means for the CDIB and CAP posttest. The independent samples *t*-test was the analysis used for the cognitive and affective subscale dependent variables. The subscales calculated included; perceived knowledge about diverse groups (cognitive); perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues (cognitive); and level of prejudicial attitude (affective).

Chi-square (χ^2) analysis evaluated the association of the answers for subscales for the CDIB and CAP courses. Chi-square analysis was used for the questions about the perceived benefit of cultural diversity in business course and the need to require a multicultural course for students.

ANCOVA was not used with individual subscale scores because there appeared no significant difference between the CDIB and CAP pretest subscale scores. ANCOVA would have been used to determine “whether the between groups variance differs from the within groups variance by more than what would be expected by chance” (Gay & Airasian, 2003, p. 467). Therefore, ANCOVA was also not required to equate the control group with the treatment group. ANCOVA would have been used to adjust scores for initial differences (Gay & Airasian, 2003). There was no need to equalize the control group and the treatment group for this research because the groups were similar after analyzing the pretest data. The following is a presentation of the statistical findings from the questionnaires.

Description of Respondents

Response Profile. A total of 258 Surveys of Intergroup Relations II pre and posttest were collected. The data collected was equally divided between the cultural diversity in business courses, and the other capstone courses (53.5%, CDIB; 46.5%

CAP). Participants' pre and posttests were matched and grouped according to the capstone courses they attended. These courses were identified as the cultural diversity in business course or other capstone course. A total of 62 pretests and 58 posttests were unmatched. Unmatched pretests were a result of students being absent on the day the questionnaire was administered or the student was a late registration to the course. Unmatched posttests were a result of students being absent on the day the questionnaire was administered or the student withdrew from the course. Unmatched pre or posttest questionnaires were also the result of students not providing a student number to match the pre and posttest questionnaires. A total of 44 students did not provide a student number on their questionnaire. A total of 142 questionnaires were matched pairs with a pre and posttest. The group totals for matched pairs included 86 from the cultural diversity in business courses and 52 from the other capstone courses.

Demographic Profile. The following is a presentation of the demographic data for students participating in the research. All demographic data is presented for both the cultural diversity in business courses (CDIB) and the other capstone courses (CAP). There were only a few significant differences in the demographic variables between the CDIB course and the CAP courses (See Table 3).

The ethnic/racial origin of the students was predominately White/Euro-American (90.7% CDIB; 89.6% CAP) with English as the native language (95.8% CDIB; 93.5% CAP). There were 5% more female students in the CDIB courses. The female students comprised 41.2% CDIB and 37.3% CAP. A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency male and female students in the CDIB and CAP courses. No significant relationship was found, $\chi^2(2) = 3.814$. $p = .148$. No significant

Table 3

Demographic Summary by Course

Course	Ethnicity		Gender		Grade			Major	
	White		F	M	JR	SR	NR	Bus	Edu
CDIB	90.7%		41.2%	39.2%	6.1%	74.3%	19.6%	52%	15.5%
CAP	89.6%		37.3%	32.7%	13.6%	56.4%	30%	27.3%	8.2%

Note. CDIB = Cultural Diversity in Business. CAP = Other Capstone Courses. White = White/Euro American. F = Female; M = Male. JR = junior in college, SR = senior in college, NR = no answer; Bus = Business, Edu = Education.

pattern of responses was found based on the membership in a course.

There were more seniors in the CDIB courses (74.3% CDIB; 56.4% CAP). The majority of students identified themselves as seniors in college with the remaining students identifying themselves as juniors. There were some students who chose not to answer this question (19.6% CDIB; 30% CAP). A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency of grade in college in the CDIB and CAP courses. A significant relationship was found, $\chi^2(2) = 9.768, p < .008$. A significant pattern of responses was found based on the membership in a course. There were more seniors in the CDIB courses.

The mean age of students was 24. The majority of students in both courses reflected the ages of traditional college age students, 20, 21 and 22 (78.9% CDIB; 74% CAP). The majority of students did not feel they had been discriminated against because of their race (78.2% CDIB; 92.5% CAP), gender (59.5% CDIB; 65.8% CAP), sexual orientation (92.5% CDIB; 93.8% CAP), disability (97.5% CDIB; 98.8% CAP), religion (79.2% CDIB; 73.8% CAP), or language/accent (88.3% CDIB; 75% CAP).

The students' academic majors primarily reflected students from the fields of business (52% CDIB; 27.3% CAP) and education (15.58% CDIB; 8.2% CAP) as the two most prominent majors. It would be assumed the cultural diversity in business course would attract more students from business majors because the course content emphasized cultural diversity as well as business practices. A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency of academic majors in the CDIB and CAP courses. A significant relationship was found, $\chi^2(23) = 52.154, p < .001$. A significant pattern of responses was found based on the membership in a course. There were more business majors in the CDIB courses.

The educational background of the students' parents reflected the majority of both mothers and fathers had attended some college or completed a degree. The data collected for mothers reported (72.3% CDIB; 70.7% CAP) and for fathers (74% CDIB; 72.1% CAP). Most students had not participated in a study abroad program (92.4% CDIB; 89.6% CAP). However, over half of the students had traveled abroad for a pleasure trip (58.3% CDIB; 52.6% CAP). In summary, the demographic data collected from the student sample reflected groups that were very similar demographically.

Research Questions

This research investigated to what degree a cultural diversity in business course increased a college student's attitudes and knowledge of other cultures. The research compared cognitive (knowledge) and affective (attitudes) student data gathered prior to and after participation in a cultural diversity in business course. The research questions examined the effects of cultural diversity education on cognitive and affective orientation toward different cultures at a Midwest university.

Cognitive Research Question

To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' cognitive perceptions regarding different cultures? Subscale scores were calculated in the two areas of perceived knowledge of diverse groups and the perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues.

Perceived knowledge about diverse groups. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 12 Likert item questions. Students received a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant). These scores were totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

An independent samples *t*- test comparing the pretest subscales scores revealed no significant difference (pretest, $t(193) = -1.38, p = .256$; equal variance assumed). An independent samples *t*- test comparing the posttest subscales scores revealed a significant difference (posttest, $t(189) = 2.601, p = .010$; equal variance assumed). The independent samples *t*- test revealed the groups started the same and ended differently (See Table 4).

Table 4

Perceived Knowledge About Diverse Groups

Course	Mean (sd)	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> value	Mean difference
Pretest		-1.138	193	.256	-1.00
CDIB	32.56 (5.876)				
CAP	33.55 (6.143)				
Posttest		2.601	189	.010	2.26
CDIB	35.90 (5.998)				
CAP	33.64 (5.832)				

Note. Alpha = .05; Equal variances assumed. N = number of questionnaires completed. Pretest N, CDIB = 117, CAP = 78; Post test N, CDIB = 110, CAP 81.

The mean subscale score for perceived knowledge about diverse groups was similar for the CAP pretest, $M = 33.55 (6.143)$ and the post test $M = 33.64 (5.832)$. The mean subscale score increased for perceived knowledge about diverse groups for the CDIB participants. The CDIB pretest, $M = 32.56 (5.876)$ and the post test, $M = 35.90 (5.998)$.

Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues. The cognitive subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 17 Likert item questions. Students received a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant).

These scores were totaled to generate a cognitive subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

An independent samples *t*-test comparing the pretest subscales scores revealed a significant difference (pretest, $t(196) = .489, p = .626$; equal variance assumed) posttest ($t(163) = 4.537, p < .001$; equal variance assumed). The independent samples *t*-test revealed the groups started the same and ended differently (See Table 5).

The mean subscale score for perceived knowledge about diversity issues was similar for the CAP pretest, $M = 51.15 (12.848)$ and the post test $M = 52.16 (12.534)$. The mean subscale score increased for perceived knowledge about diversity issues for the CDIB participants. The CDIB pretest, $M = 52.02 (11.824)$ and the post test, $M = 59.97 (9.573)$.

Affective Research Question

To what extent does a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly impact students' affective perceptions regarding different cultures? Subscale scores were calculated in two areas for level of prejudicial attitudes and perceived benefit of the course.

Level of prejudicial attitudes. The affective subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained 21 Likert item questions related to prejudicial attitudes. Students received a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree somewhat, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree somewhat, 5 = strongly agree). These scores will be totaled to generate an affective subscale score. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Table 5

Perceived Knowledge About Diverse Cultural Diversity Issues

Course	Mean (sd)	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> value	Mean difference
Pretest		.489	196	.626	.87
CDIB	52.02 (11.824)				
CAP	51.15 (12.848)				
Posttest		4.537	163	< .001	7.81
CDIB	59.97 (9.573)				
CAP	52.16 (12.534)				

Note. Alpha = .05; Equal variances assumed. N = number of questionnaires completed. Pretest N, CDIB = 118, CAP = 80; Post test N, CDIB = 96, CAP 69.

An independent-samples *t*-test comparing the pretest subscales scores revealed no significant difference, (pretest, $t(177) = -1.533, p = .127$). An independent samples *t*-test comparing the posttest subscales scores also revealed no significant difference (posttest, $t(168) = .600, p = .549$; equal variance assumed). The independent samples *t*-test revealed the groups started the same ($p > .05$) and ended the same ($p > .05$) (See Table 6).

The mean subscale score for the level of prejudicial attitudes decreased slightly

Table 6

Level of Prejudicial Attitudes

Course	Mean (sd)	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> value	Mean difference
Pretest		-1.533	177	.127	-1.58
CDIB	52.62 (6.501)				
CAP	54.20 (7.091)				
Posttest		.600	168	.549	.60
CDIB	54.51 (6.703)				
CAP	53.90 (6.130)				

Note. Alpha = .05; Equal variances assumed. N = number of questionnaires completed. Pretest N, CDIB = 110, CAP = 69; Post test N, CDIB = 99, CAP 71.

between the CAP pretest, $M = 54.20$ (7.091) and the post test $M = 53.90$ (6.130). The mean subscale score increased slightly for the level of prejudicial attitudes for the CDIB participants. The CDIB pretest, $M = 52.62$ (6.501) and the post test, $M = 54.51$ (6.703).

Perceived benefit of course. The subscale in the Survey of Intergroup Relations II contained two Likert item questions. Students received a score of 1 to 5 for each item (1= none, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = a lot, 5 = significant). These scores were totaled to generate subscale scores. (See Appendixes C and D for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency of student's responses to the question about the perceived benefit of the course. A significant relationship was found, $\chi^2 (4) = 60.957, p < .001$. A significant pattern of responses was found based on the membership in a course. The large majority of CDIB students agreed strongly or somewhat (93.6%) that the course provided new knowledge related to various cultures and groups, as compared with only half (53.8%) of CAP students (See Table 7).

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency of student's responses to the question about the need to require multiculturalism courses for students. A significant relationship was found, $\chi^2 (4) = 16.197, p = .003$. A significant pattern of responses was found based on the membership in a course (See Table 8).

The vast majority of students in the CDIB course were also more supportive that a cultural diversity course should be required for all students. The students in the CDIB course agreed strongly or somewhat, 84.5% that a multicultural course should be required for all students, as compared with only about half, 55.1% of CAP students.

Behavioral Research Question

To what extent do students in a cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university significantly differ in their behavior from students in other courses? Subscale scores were calculated in the following area for choice to participate in cultural activities.

Choice to participate in cultural activities. The participation subscale contained 12 behavioral yes/no questions on the Survey for Intergroup Relations II pretest. Students received one point for each yes response. This resulted in a score for the participation subscale. (See Appendix C for the Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales).

Table 7

Perceived Benefit of Course - Posttest

Course	Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Agree
	strongly	somewhat		somewhat	strongly
CDIB	0	1	6	36	67
Percentage	.0%	.9%	5.5%	32.7%	60.9%
CAP	4	8	24	33	9
Percentage	5.1%	10.3%	30.8%	42.3%	11.5%

Note. Alpha = .05. N = number of questionnaires completed. CDIB *N* = 110, CAP *N* = 78.

Table 8

Requirement of Multicultural Courses - Posttest

Course	Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Agree
	strongly	somewhat		somewhat	strongly
CDIB	2	3	12	36	57
Percentage	1.8%	2.7%	10.9%	32.7%	51.8%
CAP	8	6	22	25	19
Percentage	10%	7.5%	27.5%	31.3%	23.8%

Note. Alpha = .05. N = number of questionnaires completed. CDIB *N* = 110, CAP *N* = 80.

An independent samples *t*-test comparing the pretest subscales scores revealed no significant difference, (pretest, $t(196) = .348, p = .728$; equal variance assumed). The mean behavioral subscale score for choice to participate in cultural activities was similar for the CDIB and CAP pretest, (CDIB, $M = 4.41 (2.189)$; CAP, $M = 4.30 (2.009)$). The students were similar in their choices to participate in cultural activities regardless of the course they attended (See Table 9). The behavioral subscale questions were not included in the post test questionnaire.

Table 9

Choice to Participate in Cultural Activities

Course	Mean (sd)	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> value	Mean difference
Pretest		.348	196	.728	.107
CDIB	4.41 (2.189)				
CAP	4.30 (2.009)				

Note. Alpha = .05; Equal variances assumed. N = number of questionnaires completed. CDIB $N = 118$, CAP $N = 80$.

Summary

This research investigated, through statistical analysis, the cognitive and affective outcomes of students who participated in a cultural diversity in business course as compared to the outcomes of students in other capstone courses at a Midwest university.

Demographic variables were analyzed to determine the similarities of the two groups. First, cross tabulation identified the mean, standard deviation and percentages for the nominal variables. Next, independent *t*-test analysis identified the differences between the means for the pre and posttest survey for cognitive and affective subscales. Finally, chi-square analysis was used to evaluate similarity of the answers for the CDIB and CAP courses. A five percent (.05) level of confidence was used for the independent samples *t*-test and chi-square analyses.

The results of the statistical analysis addressed the research questions for this study. The independent samples *t*-test calculations for the perceived knowledge about diverse groups and perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues indicated a significant difference between the posttest scores of the CDIB courses and CAP courses, but not on the pretest scores. The analysis revealed the groups started the same and ended differently.

Conversely, the independent samples *t*-test calculations for the level of prejudicial attitudes indicated no significant difference between the pre and posttest scores of the CDIB courses and CAP courses. The independent samples *t*-test results for the behavioral subscale, choice to participate in cultural activities, revealed no significant differences at pretesting. The students' choice to participate in cultural activities subscale scores were not different between the CDIB courses and CAP courses. Establishing initial similarity of the groups strengthened the quasi-experimental research design.

The findings of the chi-square analysis for the perceived benefit of the course and desire to require a multicultural course found a significant pattern of responses based on the membership in a course. Students in the CDIB courses were more favorable in their

responses that the course did provide them new knowledge related to various cultures and groups. Also, the large majority of students in the CDIB courses were more supportive that a multicultural course should be required for all students. This compared to a little over half of the CAP students who agreed that a multicultural course should be required for all students. Overall, the findings reveled participation in a cultural diversity course changed students' knowledge and did not change their attitudes.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The changing demographic profile of the United States population is also reflected in the changing complexion of students on college campuses. Classrooms include more minority students and more exchange students from around the world (Gaither, 1999). Universities, along with business and industry, are affected by the new global society and both have responded to the changing population profile.

The globalization trend has influenced higher education and the workplace. To accommodate the changing demographic population, more and more universities are offering cultural diversity courses, as well as employers, are providing diversity education for their employees. Specific professional disciplines also provide multicultural education for their members (Bucher, 2004). Gaining diversity skills and knowledge provides people, “those competencies that allow people to interact with others in a way that respects and values differences” (Bucher, 2004, p. 37).

Cultural diversity courses attempt to educate participants, be that students or working professionals, about appreciating multicultural differences. Study abroad programs also educate students on multicultural issues by immersing students in another culture. Courses or study abroad programs bring people together in conversation to facilitate learning (Bruffee, 1999). Social interaction adds to the learning process (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). To master the cognitive and affective phases of cultural competence, Wells (2000) offered the Cultural Development Model (CDM). The CDM

was a continuum where an individual or organization passed through three cognitive phases before moving into three affective phases of development.

Scholarly research on diversity in the workplace has emerged as a growing body of knowledge (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). Today, a broader definition of diversity is more prevalent when reviewing diversity literature. The scope of diversity dimensions now include, race, culture, religion, gender, sexual preference, age, profession, organizational or team tenure, personality type, functional background, educational level, political party and other demographic, socioeconomic and psycho graphic characteristics (Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). Diversity can mean different things to different people.

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this research was to investigate to what degree a cultural diversity in business course increased college students' attitudes and knowledge of other cultures. The research compared cognitive (knowledge) and affective (attitude) student data gathered prior to, and after, participation in a cultural diversity in business course. Furthermore, the research compared the outcome differences between those students taking the cultural diversity course and those registered in other undergraduate capstone public affairs courses. The research focused on an undergraduate public affairs capstone cultural diversity in business course offered at a Midwest university. The research questions examined the effects of cultural diversity education on cognitive and affective orientation toward different cultures in a college setting. The findings presented in the previous chapter yielded some significant results. The findings are reviewed in this section.

The demographic data collected from the student sample reflected groups, CDIB and CAP, which were very similar demographically. There were some acknowledged differences in gender, academic major and the students' grade in college. The sample groups' similarity strengthened the quasi-experimental design of the study.

Participation in a cultural diversity course produced significant positive cognitive outcomes (perceived increase in knowledge) in students. Specifically, students perceive an increase in their knowledge in two subscale areas related to cultural diversity issues and specific cultural diverse groups (See Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales). Cognitive outcomes in students due to a cultural diversity course such as found in this study are supported by the literature findings from similar studies (Bacon & Kischner, 2002; Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990; Geranios, 1997; Whitt et al., 2001).

Education has responded to globalization in many ways. In business departments in higher education elements of international trade and commerce are prevalent in the curriculum (Sherer et al., 2002). Cultural diversity education has also been infused across curriculum or offered as a stand-alone course (Bacon & Kischner, 2002; Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990; Sherer et al., 2002). Evidence of cultural diversity courses offered in other countries from around the world was also evident (Tye, 2003). Research uncovered different disciplinary perspectives and varied methods of implementation and incorporation of cultural diversity education related to cognitive outcomes (Bacon & Kischner, 2002; Flannery & Vanterpool, 1990; Geranios, 1997; Whitt et al., 2001).

Conversely, participation in a cultural diversity course revealed no significant difference in the pretest or posttest subscale scores for the affective outcomes (See

Appendixes C and D for Survey of Intergroup Relations II with subscales). The students' level of prejudicial attitudes did not change. The groups started relatively similar and ended similar. Research about what specific college experiences influenced attitudes about diversity was limited (Whitt et al., 2001). In Wells (2000) cultural development model the affective, or attitude-changing phase, for an individual follows a change in knowledge (See Figure 2 on page 6). There was no time frame given for an organization or an individual to pass through the three cognitive phases and three affective phases that lead to mastery of cultural development (Wells, 2000). A reason for the lack of significance in the affective subscale may be the duration of the study. This study looked at a relatively short period of time, one semester of college, in a student's academic studies. The homogeneous demographic profile may be another reason for the lack of change in the affective subscale scores. Students had the opportunity to gain knowledge about other cultures, but they did not have an increased opportunity to interact or engage in conversation with students with differing cultural backgrounds. Bruffee's (1999) learning through conversation theory, and Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) knowledge creation spiral, focused on the cognitive outcome. Perhaps the findings of Geranios (1997) show the need for interaction and conversation with people of other cultures to significantly impact affective outcomes.

A significant pattern in responses was found based on the membership in a course, CDIB or CAP, for both the perceived benefit of the course and the need to require a multicultural course for students. The large majority of students in the CDIB course agreed strongly or somewhat, that the course provided new knowledge related to various cultures and groups, as compared with only half of CAP students. More of the students in

the CDIB course perceived the course gave them new cultural knowledge as compared to CAP students. For the students in the CDIB course a vast majority agreed strongly or somewhat, that a multicultural course should be required, as compared with only about half of CAP students. The knowledge gained by the CDIB students may have influenced these students to recommend the course for others.

The behavioral subscale scores for choice to participate in cultural activities revealed students were similar in their choices to participate in cultural activities regardless of the course they attended. Therefore, the pretest subscales scores revealed no significant difference. Establishing initial similarity of the groups strengthened the quasi-experimental research design.

In summary, the findings revealed participation in a cultural diversity course changed student's knowledge and did not change their attitudes. The demographic profile of both groups was similar and behavioral subscale scores did not reveal any significant difference between CDIB and CAP participants. CDIB participants found greater benefit for increased knowledge from their course and recommended all students should take a multicultural course.

Implications for Higher Education

As a result of this research the following implications may be useful for higher education, faculty and administrators that work with cultural diversity education courses. These research findings support the notion that a cultural diversity course produces positive outcomes in students. Specifically, the course increased a students' knowledge of diversity issues and knowledge about diverse cultures. Without knowledge of cultural differences and unique cultural customs, business personnel could mistakenly offend

foreign business partners (Dlabay, 1998). The educational focus of colleges to include the global economic arena is needed for U.S graduates to remain competitive in the workforce (White & Griffith, 1998).

The U.S. workforce reflects the global influence of increased immigration and diversity (Wells, 2000). Students entering the workforce will need the knowledge to work effectively with the diverse workforce population. Providing cultural diversity education as part of the college curriculum better prepares college graduates to enter the workforce. The fact that cultural diversity education was currently being provided by employers for their workers confirms the importance of the content (Allison, 1999; Bucher, 2004; Schaefer, 2005; Zhu & Kleiner, 2000).

Based on the findings of this research, cultural diversity courses should be offered to prepare students to work in an increasingly diverse workforce and gain knowledge to be better prepared for the trend of economic globalization. Increasing the number of cultural diversity courses offered should be considered. Adding other discipline specific cultural diversity courses may provide broader appeal to students with different academic majors.

Limitations

There are some limitations to this study that need to be taken into consideration. This study was a quasi-experimental design because the participants were not randomly selected. The students selected the classes they wanted to attend and the researcher selected the classes for the study. The quasi-experimental design was strengthened by the similarities between the CDIB and CAP participants as determined through pretesting. Another limitation of the research was related to the Survey of Intergroup Relations II as

a self-report measure. Students took the inventory as a pre and posttest and may have chosen not to answer the questions honestly. The student population varied slightly in the capstone courses. The demographic data reflected more senior students in the capstone courses as compared to juniors. The demographic data also showed more students with a business major took the cultural diversity in business course than the other capstone courses.

Another limitation of the study related to the instructors of the capstone courses. The same faculty member taught all of the cultural diversity in business courses. Whereas, there was a different instructor for each of the other capstone courses. Students could have been influenced to take the cultural diversity in business course because of the instructor instead of the subject matter covered in the course.

Recommendations For Future Research

The results of this research provided feedback about the cultural diversity in business course at a Midwest university and the effectiveness of the curriculum to increase knowledge and awareness about other cultures and cultural issues. These results can provide insight to the instructor regarding how to enhance the curriculum the next time the course is offered. Bacon and Kischner's (2002) research highlighted the importance of exposing students to guest speakers with different cultural backgrounds as part of cultural diversity education.

This research had a significant number of students with a business major. Additional research could focus on students with different majors outside of business and their cognitive orientation toward other cultures. An example of existing research by Flannery and Vanterpool (1990) showed the salience of cultural diversity to students

would be affected by the disciplines they are studying. Similar studies at universities in different parts of the United States could be conducted and compared to see if the geographic region influenced research results. Conducting this research at a University with a more diverse student population would be another opportunity for research. Research by Geranois (1997) included a more diverse college population in a southwestern state.

Still not enough is known about the impact of cultural diversity classes on university students' cognitive and affective outcomes over a longer period of time. The research for this study was conducted during one semester in a student's college experience. Thus, future research could consider a longitudinal study to determine the long term affects on a student's cognitive and affective outcomes when they take a cultural diversity course while in college.

The quantitative instrument used in this research measured the cognitive and affective outcomes of students in the capstone courses. Adding a qualitative component to the research may uncover additional information about changes in the affective outcomes the Survey for Intergroup Relations II was unable to detect. A face-to-face conversation with students may reveal additional information about the course content, instructor, and additional information about the students' cognitive and affective outcomes. Previous research has noted the challenges of qualitative studies for cultural diversity (Allison, 1999; King et al., 2004).

For additional research the data collected from the Survey for Intergroup Relations II could be analyzed further. For example, further data analysis could determine if there are any relationships between a students' cognitive and affective outcomes as

related to their mother and fathers' educational level. The behavioral participation subscale could be analyzed as it relates to cognitive and affective outcomes, as well as compared with other demographic variables. Analysis of data for languages spoken and travel or study abroad would also provide additional research. Analysis of the subscale scores for male and female students may be used to determine if there are gender biases in knowledge and attitudes.

There are many opportunities for further research as related to cultural diversity courses or study abroad in higher education. Additional information obtained from such research will benefit higher education administrators, faculty, students, as well as, the organizations where the graduates go to work.

Conclusion

Demographic trends reveal the emergence of a more diverse community on higher education campuses and within the workforce. At the same time, technology is connecting the world into a global marketplace (Friedman, 2005). The need for diversity education will continue to be of paramount importance to encourage the acceptance and valuing of diverse groups and cultures. Business and industry have reacted to the changing demographic profile by offering cultural diversity education programs for their employees. Organizations that welcome diversity and maintain a receptive environment gain a competitive advantage in the marketplace and these results can be directly connected to bottom line profit (Allison, 1999; Carnevale & Stone, 1994; Day, 1995; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000). Higher education administrators need to be aware that organizations value graduates with an appreciation for diversity and have an ability to work with others from diverse backgrounds. Perhaps by introducing students to diversity

concepts in college there is a better chance for these graduates to carry their enhanced knowledge into the global marketplace. A cultural diversity in business course was evaluated in this research and showed that a perceived change in knowledge can be affected by a college course. Following Wells (2000) cultural development model the affective, or attitude-changing phase, for an individual should follow a change in knowledge.

It is the responsibility of higher education administrators to prepare students to enter the job market as educated persons. With the continuing trends of a global economy and changing demographics, providing education about diverse groups and cultures could enhance graduates opportunities. Diversity education will not end after a student leaves college. “Diversity education extends over a lifetime. It involves much more than books, workshops and dialogues about diversity issues” (Bucher, 2004, p. 217). Bucher (2004) continues “diversity consciousness prepares you for life. The more prepared you are for life, the greater your opportunities” (p. 218).

Appendix A

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Pretest

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Instructions: Please answer each item by an X or ✓

How much contact did you have in high school with people from the following groups?

(Mark one for each group)

	None A little	Some	Significant A lot	
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Students w/ Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following groups (Mark one for each group)

	None	Some A little	Significant A lot	
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Students with Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

While at the university, how many times did you feel you were discriminated against because:

(Mark one per item)

	None	Sometimes	Frequently	
Of your race/ethnicity?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Of your gender?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
For your sexual orientation?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Of your disability?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Of your religion?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Of your language /accent?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Of your affiliation with a fraternity or sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following areas (Please mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant	
		A little	A lot	
Discrimination against African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Heterosexism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stereotyping	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Racism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prejudice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Hispanics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Racial harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cross-cultural Communication	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against gay/lesbians	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Culture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination Against Women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Issues of social class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against students with disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Since entering college, have you ever:
(Please mark one per item)

	No	Yes
Participated in a social fraternity/sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in an academic fraternity/sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attended a racial/cultural awareness workshop?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taken an ethnic studies course?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taken a women's studies course?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Been actively involved in a student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in volunteer work in the community?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in a gay, lesbian or bisexual student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in an ethnic/racial student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied a foreign language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied foreign history	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied foreign religion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Mark an X or ✓ in the box for your answer	Disagree Strongly	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
Any student, regardless of race, has an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduating from college					
White women should not be eligible for affirmative action					
African American students are more likely than White students to come from a low socio-economic background					
Gay, lesbian, and bisexual students have only themselves to blame for discrimination directed against them					
White males are responsible for most of the discrimination against women and minorities					
Whites do not have a culture					
Most Asian students are good in mathematics					
White college students need student support services similar to those offered to ethnic minority students					
Discrimination against White/Euro American students is a problem at colleges and universities					
As an individual I have little power to change the prejudices of people around me					
Colleges and universities provide equal educational opportunities for all students					
Most White students have a problem-free experience in college					
Racism against Hispanics is not a major problem in America					
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual students are merely confused about their sexual orientation					
I am completely free of prejudices against anyone or any group in this society					
College is easier for White students					
Asian students are more likely to get better grades than White students					
Discrimination is no longer a problem in America					
Most males have little respect for women					
Men and women have an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduation from college					
Sexism is no longer a major problem in America					
Courses related to multiculturalism should be required for students					

Instructions: Please answer each item by an X or ✓ or writing the requested answer

Are you: Male Female

What is your age _____

Grade in College: Junior Senior

What is your major?

Please write the first five digits of your Student Number _ _ _ _ _
(Your student number is used only for the purpose of collecting data and will be eliminated from the survey immediately after the pre and posttests are matched)

What is your ethnic/ racial origin?
 Asian American African American/Black
 Native American White/Euro-American
 Chicano/Mexican American
 Puerto Rican
 Other Hispanic
 Please Specify _____
 Biracial
 Please Specify _____
 International Student
 Country of origin _____
 Other
 Please Specify _____

Do you have a disability?
 No Yes
 If yes, what type of disability _____

Mark the highest level of education completed by your parents (mark one for each parent)

	Mother	Father
No formal education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Elementary education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some high school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
High School diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some college	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
AA or AS degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bachelor's degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Masters degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Professional degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doctoral degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Have you ever been an exchange student abroad?
 No Yes

If yes, where (mark all that apply)
 Eastern Europe Western Europe
 East Asia (China, Korea, Taiwan)
 South America Central America
 India Africa
 Japan Spain
 Mexico Australia
 Other United Kingdom
 Please Specify _____

If yes, length of time
 One month or shorter
 One semester or shorter
 One year
 Other
 Please Specify _____

If yes, while studying aboard who were the students in your classes?
 Americans
 Mix of Americans and local students
 Primarily students from that country

Have you ever traveled abroad for a pleasure trip?
 No Yes

If yes, where: (mark all that apply)
 Eastern Europe Western Europe
 East Asia (China, Korea, Taiwan)
 South America Central America
 India Africa
 Japan Spain
 Mexico Australia
 Other United Kingdom
 Please Specify _____

Is English your native language?
 No Yes

How many languages do you speak?
 Native language only
 Native language + 1
 Native language + 2
 Native language +3
 More than 4 languages

Appendix B

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Post-Test

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Instructions: Please answer each item by an X or ✓

Posttest

Please write the first five digits of your Student Number — — — — —

(Your student number is used only for the purpose of collecting data and will be eliminated from the survey immediately after the pre and posttests are matched)

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following groups (Mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant		
	A little		A lot		
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Students with Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following areas (Please mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant		
	A little		A lot		
Discrimination against African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Heterosexism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Sexual harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Stereotyping	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Racism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Prejudice	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Hispanics	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Racial harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Cross-cultural Communication	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against gay/lesbians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Culture	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination Against Women	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Issues of social class	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Sexism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against students with disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Mark an X or ✓ in the box for your answer	Disagree Strongly	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
Any student, regardless of race, has an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduating from college					
White women should not be eligible for affirmative action					
African American students are more likely than White students to come from a low socio-economic background					
Gay, lesbian, and bisexual students have only themselves to blame for discrimination directed against them					
White males are responsible for most of the discrimination against women and minorities					
Whites do not have a culture					
Most Asian students are good in mathematics					
White college students need student support services similar to those offered to ethnic minority students					
Discrimination against White/Euro American students is a problem at colleges and universities					
As an individual I have little power to change the prejudices of people around me					
Colleges and universities provide equal educational opportunities for all students					
Most White students have a problem-free experience in college					
Racism against Hispanics is not a major problem in America					
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual students are merely confused about their sexual orientation					
I am completely free of prejudices against anyone or any group in this society					
College is easier for White students					
Asian students are more likely to get better grades than White students					
Discrimination is no longer a problem in America					
Most males have little respect for women.					
Men and women have an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduation from college					
Sexism is no longer a major problem in America					
This course will provide me with new knowledge related to various cultures and groups					
Courses related to multiculturalism should be required for students					

Appendix C

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Pretest

Subscales Identified

Background

How much contact did you have in high school with people from the following groups?

(Mark one for each group)

	None	A little	Some	Significant	
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Students w/ Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Background

While at the university, how many times did you feel you were discriminated against because:

(Mark one per item)

	None	Sometimes	Frequently		
Of your race/ethnicity?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Of your gender?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
For your sexual orientation?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Of your disability?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Of your religion?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Of your language /accent?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Of your affiliation with a fraternity or sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Cognitive

Perceived knowledge about diverse groups

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following groups (Mark one for each group)

	one	Some	Significant		
	A little	A little	A lot		
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Students with Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Cognitive
Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following areas (Please mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant	
		A little	A lot	
Discrimination against African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Heterosexism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stereotyping	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Racism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prejudice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against Hispanics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Racial harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cross-cultural Communication	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against gay/lesbians	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Culture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination Against Women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Issues of social class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discrimination against students with disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Behavioral Items
Choice to participate in cultural activities

Since entering college, have you ever:
(Please mark one per item)

	No	Yes
Participated in a social fraternity/sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in an academic fraternity/sorority?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attended a racial/cultural awareness workshop?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taken an ethnic studies course?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taken a women's studies course?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Been actively involved in a student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in volunteer work in the community?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in a gay, lesbian or bisexual student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Participated in an ethnic/racial student organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied a foreign language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied foreign history	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Studied foreign religion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Affective Items

Mark an X or ✓ in the box for your answer	Disagree Strongly	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
Any student, regardless of race, has an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduating from college					
White women should not be eligible for affirmative action					
African American students are more likely than White students to come from a low socio-economic background					
Gay, lesbian, and bisexual students have only themselves to blame for discrimination directed against them					
White males are responsible for most of the discrimination against women and minorities					
Whites do not have a culture					
Most Asian students are good in mathematics					
White college students need student support services similar to those offered to ethnic minority students					
Discrimination against White/Euro American students is a problem at colleges and universities					
As an individual I have little power to change the prejudices of people around me					
Colleges and universities provide equal educational opportunities for all students					
Most White students have a problem-free experience in college					
Racism against Hispanics is not a major problem in America					
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual students are merely confused about their sexual orientation					
I am completely free of prejudices against anyone or any group in this society					
College is easier for White students					
Asian students are more likely to get better grades than White students					
Discrimination is no longer a problem in America					
Most males have little respect for women					
Men and women have an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduation from college					
Sexism is no longer a major problem in America					
*Courses related to multiculturalism should be required for students					

Level of prejudicial attitudes

*Perceived benefit of cultural diversity in business course

Instructions: Please answer each item by an X or ✓ or writing the requested answer

Posttest

Background and Demographic Information

Are you: Male Female

What is your age _____

Grade in College: Junior Senior

What is your major?

Please write the first five digits of your Student Number
(Your student number is used only for the purpose of collecting data and will be eliminated from the survey immediately after the pre and posttests are matched)

What is your ethnic/ racial origin?
 Asian American African American/Black
 Native American White/Euro-American
 Chicano/Mexican American
 Puerto Rican
 Other Hispanic
 Please Specify _____
 Biracial
 Please Specify _____
 International Student
 Country of origin _____
 Other
 Please Specify _____

Do you have a disability?
 No Yes
 If yes, what type of disability _____

Mark the highest level of education completed by your parents (mark one for each parent)

	Mother	Father
No formal education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Elementary education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some high school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
High School diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some college	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
AA or AS degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bachelor's degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Masters degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Professional degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doctoral degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Have you ever been an exchange student abroad?
 No Yes

If yes, where (mark all that apply)
 Eastern Europe Western Europe
 East Asia (China, Korea, Taiwan)
 South America Central America
 India Africa
 Japan Spain
 Mexico Australia
 Other United Kingdom
 Please Specify _____

If yes, length of time
 One month or shorter
 One semester or shorter
 One year
 Other
 Please Specify _____

If yes, while studying aboard who were the students in your classes?
 Americans
 Mix of Americans and local students
 Primarily students from that country

Have you ever traveled abroad for a pleasure trip?
 No Yes

If yes, where: (mark all that apply)
 Eastern Europe Western Europe
 East Asia (China, Korea, Taiwan)
 South America Central America
 India Africa
 Japan Spain
 Mexico Australia
 Other United Kingdom
 Please Specify _____

Is English your native language?
 No Yes

How many languages do you speak?
 Native language only
 Native language + 1
 Native language + 2
 Native language +3
 More than 4 languages

Appendix D
Survey of Intergroup Relations II
Post-Test
Subscales Identified

Survey of Intergroup Relations II

Posttest

Please write the first five digits of your Student Number _ _ _ _ _

(Your student number is used only for the purpose of collecting data and will be eliminated from the survey immediately after the pre and posttests are matched)

Cognitive Perceived knowledge about diverse groups

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following groups (Mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant		
		A little	A lot		
African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Christians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Buddhist	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Moslem	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Alternative Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Latinos	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Students with Disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				
White/Euro-Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Cognitive Perceived knowledge about cultural diversity issues

Indicate the extent of your knowledge of the following areas (Please mark one for each group)

	None	Some	Significant		
		A little	A lot		
Discrimination against African Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Heterosexism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Sexual harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Asian Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Stereotyping	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Native Americans	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Racism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Prejudice	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against Hispanics	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Racial harassment	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Cross-cultural Communication	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against gay/lesbians	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Culture Discrimination Against Women	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Issues of social class	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Sexism	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Discrimination against students with disabilities	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Affective Items

Mark an X or ✓ in the box for your answer	Disagree Strongly	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
Any student, regardless of race, has an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduating from college					
White women should not be eligible for affirmative action					
African American students are more likely than White students to come from a low socio-economic background					
Gay, lesbian, and bisexual students have only themselves to blame for discrimination directed against them					
White males are responsible for most of the discrimination against women and minorities					
Whites do not have a culture					
Most Asian students are good in mathematics					
White college students need student support services similar to those offered to ethnic minority students					
Discrimination against White/Euro American students is a problem at colleges and universities					
As an individual I have little power to change the prejudices of people around me					
Colleges and universities provide equal educational opportunities for all students					
Most White students have a problem-free experience in college					
Racism against Hispanics is not a major problem in America					
Gay-Lesbian-Bisexual students are merely confused about their sexual orientation					
I am completely free of prejudices against anyone or any group in this society					
College is easier for White students					
Asian students are more likely to get better grades than White students					
Discrimination is no longer a problem in America					
Most males have little respect for women					
Men and women have an equal opportunity to do well financially after graduation from college					
Sexism is no longer a major problem in America					
*Courses related to multiculturalism should be required for students					

Level of prejudicial attitudes

***Perceived benefit of cultural diversity in business course**

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VITA

Marilyn Marie Martin was born in Springfield, Missouri. After attending public schools in Springfield she received the following degrees: BS in Business Administration with an emphasis in Marketing from the University of Missouri – Columbia (1986); MBA from Missouri State University, Springfield, Missouri (2002); Ed.D in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis from the University of Missouri-Columbia (2006). As part of her undergraduate degree she spent a semester abroad studying in England and France as a participant in the Scholars Abroad program. In 2003 she was part of a Missouri State University study tour to China, where the group served as University ambassadors as they visited the cities of Beijing, Dalian and Qingdao.

Marilyn began her career as an admissions representative at a private junior college. With nine years of service at the junior college she spent the last five years as director of admissions. She left the education field for two years to work with a full service marketing and advertising agency coordinating and developing all forms of print and television media for clients. In 1996 she joined the Management Development Institute, a professional development outreach division for the College of Business Administration at Missouri State University, Springfield, Missouri. She currently serves as the Institute's director.

Marilyn has two children in middle school. Her children are very active in ice hockey and soccer. She is their chauffer and biggest fan. Two dogs, Oreo and Bailey, complete the family.