

Replicating Business Education Programs in Emerging Countries

By
Virginia Yonkers
Siena College
Department of Marketing and Management
515 Loudon Rd.
Loudonville, NY 12211
Vyonkers@siena.edu

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Abstract: *There are many factors that affect the replication of American business education programs in emerging countries. These include language of instruction, educational funding sources and government educational policy, and local v. global education. McClean (1995) identified five systems of education based on educational values: Humanism, Rationalism, Naturalism, Universal and Comprehensive Naturalism, and Confucianism. A country's educational philosophy will affect teacher/student relationships, choice of curriculum, instructional design, and school/business relationships. Keeping these factors in mind is important for successfully replicating programs in emerging countries.*

Introduction

In 1990, the State University of New York's Office of International Programs with funding from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) created a Management Training program for Hungary. The initial plan was to work with universities to establish western style schools of business in the newly democratized East European country. However, by the middle of the first year, it was obvious that this would not work, and another approach would need to be used.

However, the question arises, why was the replication of American style business programs difficult to set-up? What are the factors that influence the curricular and instructional design for projects or activities in business institutions in emerging countries? Which of these factors can be controlled through curricular and instructional design and which ones will make replication difficult? This paper will look at research on international business education, presenting a framework for analyzing the needs and necessary modifications for business programs in emerging countries.

Programs can analyze the needs of any cooperating institution in an emerging country. In order to do this, they will need to consider: 1) what is the theoretical basis of knowledge for that educational system; 2) what is the perceived role of the teacher; 3) what are the expected responsibilities of the student in the learning process; 4) what is the perception of "business education" within the educational system; 5) what knowledge base can be expected; and 6) and the institutional constraints (language, student selection, business resources).

Methodology and Assumptions

This research looked at research from international and American authors from the fields of comparative psychology, cross-cultural psychology, education, educational policy, and business education in order to get a broad perspective of the literature. We also tried to get an equal amount of research from each continent, although it was difficult to get academic quality information about Africa. Case studies and educational reports from official sources such as the ministries of education, the United Nations, and UNESCO supplemented published research.

The research can be divided into three categories: education system categories and tertiary education systems; instructional design for higher education and foreign classrooms; and instructional design for business education. All three categories, when reviewed together, is the basis for identifying factors that affect business education in emerging countries.

Tertiary education used here is based on the UNESCO definition that classifies it as “third level education for which completion of secondary school or its equivalent is necessary.” (Eurich p.ix). This can include universities, colleges, technical colleges, vocational training, polytechnic institutions, open universities, junior colleges, and training centers. (Eurich; Loo, 2002; McLean,1995; Simon ,1983; Squires, 1989; and Tindade, 2000;)

Business education is more difficult to define since the study of business depends on the educational philosophy of a given country. In the US, this would include Associate, Bachelor, and Master degrees in the fields of Marketing, Management, Accounting, Finance, Business Administration, and all of their subspecialties (i.e.

Healthcare Management, Financial Planning, etc.). However, the definition varied internationally. Therefore, the definition for business education in this paper is the study of business with some formal instruction in an educational setting to prepare entry into the business world (which could include civil servants) at a professional level. This level will require the professional to make decisions and apply theory to business situations.

The definition allows for a much broader venue for business education to include vocational education and apprenticeships, as long as there is some instruction outside of the workplace. This paper also excludes business education below the tertiary education level (human capital development or literacy and skills programs for workers) and workplace training programs with no outside instruction.

Overview of Literature

There was very little literature on comparative business education and instructional design for business education. This could be because business as a field of study, especially in higher education, is relatively young (MacFarlane & Ottewill, 2001).

Most of the research on emerging countries was in the form of case studies (Brown and Masten, 1998; Contreras and Ruff, 2002; Guilar, 2001). While this limits the quantitative information available, it gives important insights into the state of business education in various countries with emerging markets.

International Educational Factors

Birgit Brock-Utne (2002) in reviewing educational research for the last three decades discusses three issues for “Developing” or “Third World” countries: language of instruction, educational funding sources (and their influence on the educational system), and ethno-centricism vs. globalism in education. These findings for business education is

supported by researchers from developing countries; namely Brazil, (Clovis de Azevedo, 2000), French Guinea (Renault-Lescure, 2000), and the Arab countries (Ali and Camp, 1995; Yavas, 1999). Each of these authors identified these three factors as influencing instructional design for business education programs. Renault-Lescure, for example, described a model program that used both the indigenous language and the official languages with the goal of bridging a traditional educational system with the outside business world. Lupton and Braunstein (2002) describe a similar situation with a Slovakian university in which Americans teach business courses, in English, at least half of the courses. Even when business courses are taught in the native language, texts and reading materials are only available in a second language (Ali and Camp; Brock-Utne; Robinson, 1995).

The problem that many emerging countries have is a lack of expertise and/or resources to develop relevant teaching materials, curriculum, and instructors for their own country in the field of business. Universities will turn to resources outside of their country, which may not be relevant to their circumstances. For example, both Brown and Masten (1998) and Guilar (2001) indicate that business and economics faculty in Africa have heavy teaching loads and must support themselves with outside consulting due to low teaching salaries. These faculty members are unwilling (and unable due to other commitments) to develop country specific texts, cases, or research in the native language which can be used in teaching business.

Both Ali & Camp (1995) and Yavas (1999) question the relevance of predominately American management techniques in the Arab cultural context. Likewise, Luthans, Stajikovic, & Ibrayeva (2000) identify a different cultural context for the

educational needs of entrepreneurs in the former republics of the Soviet Union. Like SUNY's program in Hungary, these newly emerging economies, with a backdrop of apparently arbitrary political and economic changes, still must contend with strong centrally controlled governments, a shortage of financial resources, and lack of managers and potential entrepreneurs with the confidence to try innovative, western business techniques. As a result, part of business education's role is to create efficacy for students in these emerging countries. Utsch, Rauch, Rothfufs, & Frese, M. (1999) describe the average East German manager after the fall of communism as risk adverse, with a high locus of control. Therefore, students from emerging countries would be less likely to use the American or western management techniques they have learned in school, due either to cultural resistance or systemic barriers. There may need to be cultural modifications made to management texts in order to make business education relevant.

David Watkins (2000) points out that there is a complex relationship between the school and educational system, the learner, the teacher, society as a whole, culture, and even the world at large. Changes in one of these factors will have an effect on the other elements. Both this research and Smith's (2001), along with Osborn (2001) and Hill (2000) indicate that culture alone does not affect the learning environment.

This idea can be expanded to include the relationship of education to business. The role of business education depends on the educational philosophy of a country. In some cases, business and education are completely separate so a person does not require any education to start, own, or manage a business (Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999). In other instances, only those with a specialized business degree will be able to gain entry into the

business world (Yavas, 1999). Finally, many countries have a dual system with entry depending on work experience and education combinations (Pütz, 2002).

Taking all of these factors into consideration when trying to replicate a program in an emerging country can be overwhelming. As a result, there needs to be a systematic approach to analyzing business education in emerging countries.

Framework for Comparing Educational Systems

Comparative education researchers have used various methods to categorize education systems in other countries. These categories help to identify and explain factors influencing instructional design and curriculum for business education between countries. This is useful in making sense of the variables when replicating instructional design, content, and tasks outside of the US.

McLean's (1995) model of comparative educational systems is the most useful in creating a framework to identify basic educational philosophies that will influence the approach a business program should take when establishing itself in an emerging country. McLean identified five systems of education based on educational values. These groups include Humanism, Rationalism, Naturalism, Universal and Comprehensive Naturalism, and Confucianism. The remainder of the paper will look at how the definition of knowledge in each of these categories lays the foundation for the educational system for higher education, business education, and instructional and curriculum design. I will then discuss the implications for replicating a program for each of these categories, giving actual examples from emerging countries.

Humanism

Those countries that have humanism as their basis believe that “a student would appreciate moral lessons by intuitive, indeed empathic, interaction with the material. And behind much of this assumption of learning was the social elitism that only the best and brightest would have that intuitive insight.” (McLean p. 29). Humanism looks at the individual and their moral development, rather than “the structure of the physical universe” (McLean, p. 23). This is similar to the classic European model of higher education where the teacher, a specialist in their field, helps guide students to fulfill their potential, both morally and intellectually. The English educational system is an example of humanism, which means countries that are part of the Commonwealth or former British colonies will probably fall into this category.

A humanist higher business education system focuses on developing the individual through tutorials in a linear fashion, building on previous learning to come to a deeper meaning of the field (Squires, 1989). Within this system is an elite that specializes in the theory of business (Oxford, Cambridge) with less prestigious schools developing the “professional”. The professional still specializes in a field and develops life long learning skills through interaction with a tutor (Squires). Even within the secondary schools and vocational education, the teachers are specialists within a given field (Osborn, 2001; Squires).

The educational goals in the humanist system include “behavioural and moral norms” (Osborn, 2001, p. 271). Osborne goes on to identify some factors that would affect instructional design. This includes a stressful balance between academic achievement and social acceptance. Osborn (2001) also determined that learning was

more practical and experimental in the humanist school system. This would tie into McLean's discussion of the intuitive interaction with the course material. At the other end of the educational process, managers were found to have a much more intuitive style of decision-making, which was attributed, in part, to the humanist educational system (Hill, 2000).

The results of Smith's (2001) study between Chinese learners from Malaysia, Hong Kong, and Singapore indicate the tension between academic achievement and social acceptance may still exist at the university level. Students from Hong Kong were found to be more anxious and less analytical (thus more intuitive) learners. This could be the influence from the British educational system when Hong Kong was a colony.

Finally, the role of the tutor in the humanist system is very important to the learning process. The design of curriculum and instruction is one in which the teacher and student have an equally important role in the learning process. A tutor scaffolds the student's learning, giving direction through choice of reading, discussion of the subject area, and question and answer. This system is not dependent on the expert imparting their knowledge to the novice, but rather working on the student developing their own learning and outcomes (McLean, 1995). Students in humanist systems are encouraged to find their own solutions and learn by discovery. The teacher's role is to motivate students and provide a comfortable learning environment (Planel, 1997). This fits the description not only of the British learner (McLean, 1995; Osborn, 2001), but also of Ghana's higher education system (Brown and Masten), a former British colony.

Instructional Approaches to Humanists systems

Looking at the research by Armstrong (2000), Hill (2000), McLean (1995), Osborn (2001), and Planel (1997), indicates that pertinent factors to consider in replicating business education in a Humanist system would include the teacher-student relationship, the role of morals and ethics, the emphasize on experimentation, sequencing of material, time needed to learn prerequisite skills, specialization within an academic discipline, and social interaction in the learning process. In addition, business experience and the study of business tend to be distinctive between the work world and the academic world. Business curriculum is based on the study of business, developing an individual's skill, rather than contributing to the world of business (Brown and Masten, 1998, Smith, 2000).

Brown and Masten (1998) indicate that any activity or program would need to work with each of the business fields of study separately (Marketing, Management, Information Systems, Accounting, Finance, Business Law, or Human Resources) due to the academic specialization. Because of the close relationship between the professor and student, there would need to be sufficient guidance and background material available to the professor, but any activity would have to have student choice built into it. Case analysis with guidance from the tutor, for example, would work well in this system. This would be one way to bring some sense of real world into the classroom.

Because researchers (Armstrong, 2000; Osborn, 2001; and Planel, 1997) indicated the focus of instruction is on developing the potential of the individual, I feel a large group activity with the focus on group consensus probably would not work. The same researchers did indicate, however, that there is interaction with the teacher and

classmates. Therefore, learning is not done in isolation. This is why simulations, small group work with students working on different parts of a problem to be assimilated at the end of the project, and directed learning such as case studies and on-line discussions, work best in humanist business education systems.

Rationalism

Educational systems that are based on rationalism hold to the tenant that the purpose of education is to transfer knowledge to the student. McLean (1995) describes this knowledge as:

Capacities for logic, deduction and abstraction together with systematization and synthesis should be developed to make sense of this universe and ultimately to change it...But worthwhile knowledge is also external and standardized and the student should cover the encyclopedic kaleidoscope of all legitimate areas for as long as possible. The private and irrational are rigorously excluded (p. 30).

Planel (1997) describes the French system, the classic example of rationalism, as one that is based on order and structure, with the intention of imposing “order on the chaos of nature (p. 6).” In other words, the goal of education should be to give all students, regardless of their ability or background, the knowledge that will enable them to understand and be part of the world. That knowledge will allow them to manipulate their environment and contribute to society as a whole.

Another aspect of rationalism is a rigid educational structure controlled centrally by an elite who are the highest achievers in the educational system. There are four distinct groups that make up the educational system, each group having their own set of responsibilities. The first group provides the research and theoretical knowledge, which will be the basis of the curriculum. The curriculum is based on research, usually conducted outside of the educational system. In the case of business, the curriculum is

based on theories and abstract ideas that have been proven or disproved by research institutes based on the scientific method of inquiry (McLean, 1995).

The second group functions as the designer of the curriculum. This is done centrally, either by the government or the governing body of the university. These designers decide what each student must know before they can go to the next level of education. The central governing body also creates the assessment tool, which is often a standardized exam, to assess learning (Contreras & Ruff, 2002; Cova, Kassis, & Lanoux, 1993; Lupton & Braunstien, 2002; McLean; Osborn, 2001; Planel, 1997; Sharpe, 1997; Trindade, 2000).

Sharp (1997) explains the values that are the basis of the French school have its roots in the Catholic Church. He compares the structures of the Catholic Church with his qualitative research in French classrooms. The values common to both systems include obedience, free will, and self-discipline. These same basic values can be applied to the private and more traditional universities of Latin America (Contreras & Ruff, 2002; Serles, 1970; Trindade, 2000) and Eastern Europe (McClellan, 1995; Hill, 2000). This is not surprising given that the Catholic Church established many of the institutes of Higher Education in these regions.

In all of these systems, students are expected to learn the educational doctrine verbatim. To accomplish this, students must listen to their teachers and work hard (self-discipline). However, it is not the teacher's role to motivate a student to learn, but rather the responsibility of the student to learn what knowledge the teacher will impart to them (Osborn, 2001; Planel, 1997). Therefore, most teaching comes in the form of lecture and didactics.

The research of both Osborn and Planel demonstrate that while teacher-centered, there is still interaction between the teacher and student at the primary and secondary level. This interaction, however, is initiated by the teacher to insure that students understand the material. At the university level, there is very little interaction between the knowledgeable specialist (Cova & Lanoux, 1993) and the lecture hall of students (McLean, 1995). Student achievement is the total responsibility of the student; their failure (in the form of standardized exams) is due to their lack of effort rather than poor teaching (Planel, 1997).

Hill's (2000) research on cognitive styles of Polish managers indicates that the results of business education in the rationalism tradition is a manager that prefers more information for decision making, not trusting their past experience but rather others data. Hill found this surprising and attributed this to Poland's changing economic and political structure. However, based on the research by Cova and Lanoux (1993), Osborn (2001), Planel (1997), and Sharpe (1997), it is more likely students from the rationalism tradition would look to theoretical models more than personal experience.

Instructional Approaches to Rationalist Systems

Any program used in a rationalist system would need to be very structured, especially in the initial stages, with sufficient resource information to support teacher direction. As Planel (1997) writes, "...teachers favoured pupils learning by system and method and placed more emphasis on developing thinking skills in general and abstract thinking skills in particular (p. 6)." Students in a rationalist based system perceive the instructor as "access to the syllabus and the educational system (p. 6)." Therefore, it would be important to have as much structure and supporting information available to the

instructor as possible. The available supporting information would need to include the theoretical basis for the activity or program.

This was the case with SUNY's Hungary program. University faculty were much more receptive to new business and economic theories such as TQM rather than new ways to do business. Once an established program (in the form of TQM Centers) based on theory was developed (rather than individual courses on various business concepts), it was easier to get Hungarian partners.

Related to this is that any new programs in a rationalist educational system would need to begin with the central curriculum designers. This was the problem with SUNY's management training program. In the beginning, they worked with professors that were open to new management methods. However, without the support of the Rectors or their "faculties", no program could be developed. Using accredited curriculums or standards from AACSB or the European equivalent (European Quality Improvement System or EQUIS) gives credibility that the centralized curriculum planners would be looking for.

Naturalist and Universal and Comprehensive Naturalist Education

McLean (1995) differentiated between the naturalist and universal and comprehensive naturalist education systems. However, when reviewing the research, it is difficult to differentiate between these two categories. As a result, I will discuss both categories as if they were a continuum between the naturalist system, at one end, and the universal and comprehensive naturalist system at the other end.

According to McLean, the naturalist system looks internally to create knowledge for the learner, as opposed to the humanist and rationalist, which look externally for universal truths. Naturalism has many variations. "One [variation] focuses upon the

physiological and psychological drives of the person. Another [variation] assumes that the natural world is that of small-scale organic communities (McLean, 1995, p.36).

This is the direction that Mongolian schools are headed (Robinson, 1995). Students stay with the same teacher throughout primary and secondary school so that the teacher knows their needs, both within and outside of school. In this system, “ teachers, generally, felt free to interpret the national curriculum framework in a way that supported the needs of their pupils by introducing themes that had a direct relevance to their lives outside of school (Osborn, 2001, p. 272).”

Clovis de Azevedo (2000) describes a program in Brazil that fits McClean’s second variation. Brazil’s national goal of education is to prepare its citizens to participate in the democratic process politically, economically, and socially. The community of Porto Alegre developed the curriculum and instructional design for its public school system. All parties, parents, children, administration, teachers, the business community, and the community at large, participated in a series of workshops that resulted in the school curriculum. This program emphasized the individual’s role in society with education being an instrument of change. Therefore, business and business education is not necessarily distinct from society, the whole educational process, and cultural values. This is also the direction that many South Africans have called for (Henderson as cited in Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999) in their economics education.

Universal and comprehensive naturalism, on the other hand, is based on the common school developed in the U.S. during the nineteenth century.

Knowledge was viewed pragmatically. Existing knowledge was treated promiscuously. It was drawn upon where necessary to help to solve problems. But the learners sought solutions by starting from the problems and not from the

acquisition of bodies of pre-packaged knowledge. A curriculum could not predetermine what knowledge was needed. (McLean, 1995, p. 40).

This pragmatic approach, according to McLean, starts with the premise that all students can learn. However, because of limited resources within a society, students at the level of higher education are responsible for funding their own education. Tertiary education is comprised of a universal core of knowledge, necessary for the student to contribute to society by being flexible in their profession, with additional course work or structured experience to meet the student's personal goals (Etis, 2002). There is also a strong component of socialization through sports and extra-curricular activities. This system can be found in the US, Australia, and Canada (Etis, 2002; Kyvik & Tvede, 1998; MacFarlane, 2001; McLean, 1995; Roach & Byrne, 2001; Simon, 1983).

Because of the student centeredness of Naturalism, those systems that fall into to this category will tend to focus on learning environments and affective factors in learning. Even though naturalism is student centered, the teacher plays an important role in motivating and facilitating student learning. Therefore, this should be the focus in business teacher training for programs trying to replicate an American Business School model (Guilar, 2001).

The one factor that distinguishes pure naturalist and the universal and comprehensive naturalist approaches is the role of education in society and business. According to McLean (1995), naturalism perceives education as learning for the sake of learning. It may take a long time for a student to fulfill their potential. Therefore, the educational system needs to support the best students until they are mature enough to reach their optimum level. There is no set curriculum since it is the individual's definition of knowledge that is important (Kvyik & Tvede, 1998). A naturalist system in

countries, such as Brazil or many of the African countries, identify an “elite”, through testing and educational tracking, who will be able to study at any institute of higher education for any period of time. The elite will leave the university to enter positions of leadership (civil service, political, or economic), thus contributing to society in exchange for their fully paid education. Those that are not part of the elite will be trained more pragmatically in vocational education programs that combine classroom and on-the-job instruction (Kyvik & Tvede, 1998; McLean, 1995; Nassif, Rama, & Tedesco, 1984; Putz, 2002; Squires, 1989). Most Marxist (socialist) systems would be considered pure naturalists.

The universal and comprehensive naturalists, on the other hand, work on the premise that all people have the potential to succeed in higher education. The goals of the institutes of higher education in countries such as Mexico, Argentina, Costa Rica, and Venezuela, are to make as many modes of study available to the greatest number of students, regardless of the students’ learning styles and abilities. However, student choice and direction requires the student to be responsible for funding their own education and finding employment after completing school (Kyvik & Tvede, 1998; McLean, 1995). As a result, many in the universal and comprehensive naturalist system work and go to school at the same time (Squires, 1989). Unlike the naturalists, where work and study are two distinct learning environments that do not necessarily overlap, the universal and comprehensive naturalists try to make connections between work and school (Simon, 1983).

Instructional approaches to Naturalist Systems and Universal and Comprehensive Naturalist Education

In designing for the Naturalist and Universal and Comprehensive Naturalist systems, the focus should be on creating learning environments that are relevant to the student. The learning landscapes include, “the school context, the family environment, the workspace as a space of learning, specific training settings or even entire areas like organizational learning (Visser & Berg, 1999, p 102).” Visser and Berg conducted a series of case analyses in which they identified the factors that were necessary in successful instructional design for naturalist systems. The design needs to have flexibility to meet the student’s needs, both in needs of time (weekend, night, or in-house courses) and content. Guilar (2001) also commented that there was a need to work with Senegalese instructors, from a rationalist system, in developing more interactive activities for the purpose of creating a more naturalist business education system (i.e. American business school).

For both the Naturalist and Universal and Comprehensive Naturalist systems, there would need to be a strong business-university component. In the case of the Universal and Comprehensive Naturalist systems, this would have to be very pragmatic, e.g. internships, case studies, business based research, and student projects for local businesses.

Simulations, on-line discussion groups, problem-solving activities, and group projects give the flexibility needed for students to construct their own knowledge and their relationship with the outside world. However, working with the indefinite time frame of the naturalist system would be difficult. Therefore, there also needs to be a

flexible time frame for any program, in which participants could move in and out of the program without interrupting the learning process. The curriculum for the naturalists would need to have input from the community (Clovis de Azevedo, 2000; Contreras & Ruff, 2002; Renault-Lescure, 2000). There would probably be more demand for joint business-academic projects.

Since many of the programs based on the American business school are based on the naturalist system, it would be important to make sure that all participants in the program understood the underlining philosophy of any American partnership.

Confucianism

Like the naturalists, educational systems based on the values of Confucianism do have variations, often with influences from countries that had colonized them in the 18th and 19th centuries (Kember & Sivan, 1995; Smith 2001; Watkins 2001). The basic values common to all include the definition of knowledge and the role of the teacher (Hiebert & Stigler, 2001; McLean, 1995; Neuliep, 1997; Smith; Ukai, 1997; Watkins). McLean's description of this system of Confucianism is weak. Fortunately, there are other authors that through their research, helped to define the educational values in systems based on Confucianism.

Knowledge, in a Confucius system, is acquired over a long period of time from a much more knowledgeable master (Smith, 2001; Stevenson & Lee, 1997; Watkins, 2001). As Watkins concludes from his research on Chinese learners, "whereas the Western students saw understanding as usually a process of sudden insight, the Chinese students typically thought of understanding as long process that required considerable mental effort. (Role of Repetition section, para. 2)." This requires repetition of the

material, each time the student finding a deeper understanding in the material. Smith and Kember & Sivan (1995) support Watkins' conclusions with Smith's study of the learning styles of ethnic Chinese from Malaysia, Hong Kong, and Singapore and Kember & Sivan's study of Polytechnic students in Hong Kong. The study groups self-reported that deep learning, interrelating ideas, and use of evidence was important to their learning. Stevenson's observation of classrooms in Japan and China also reinforces Watkins' conclusions. Teachers often had students repeat information in different ways, through questioning and readings. They also spent multiple classes on the same topic. While some instructors outside of this system may perceive this as rote learning, those researchers familiar with Confucian systems, such as Smith, Stevenson & Lee (1997), and Watkins, have documented that deeper learning occurs.

Both Hiebert & Stigler (2001) and Stevenson & Lee (1997) observed a teacher-student relationship similar to a rationalist system. They focused on the Japanese system where there was a teacher-centered approach. Like the rationalist system, Japanese teachers are required to transfer their knowledge to the student. Also like the rationalist system, Confucian systems begin with the premise that success in schools is dependent on student effort and not an innate intelligence (Osborn, 2001; Watkins, 2001).

However, there are two main differences between rationalism and Confucianism. Unlike Rationalism where the individual is responsible for learning the curriculum interpreted by the teacher, yet designed by a central authority, in Confucianism, the curriculum is determined at the local level by teachers, administrators, and the community (Hiebert & Stigler, 2001; Stevenson & Lee, 1997). The teachers have a great

deal more accountability to the community, therefore. If a student fails, it is not only the student's responsibility, but also the parents, teachers, and peers.

The second difference is related to this responsibility for learning. The value of cooperation and community in Confucianism is very important (Hiebert & Stigler, 2001; Smith, 2001; Watkins, 2001). The teacher has a moral obligation to impart his or her knowledge to the student and the student has a moral obligation to his or her family and society to learn. If a student cannot keep up, he or she owes it to the class to get extra help, so as not to slow the learning process for everyone (Ukai Russel, 1997).

Cooperation and community are also the foundations of teacher planning and coordination. Japanese teachers, for example, spend almost as much time planning their classes with colleagues as they do teaching in the classrooms (Hiebert & Stigler, 2001; Stevenson & Lee, 1997). This planning includes anticipating student questions (so as to maintain the role of master prepared to answer any question), group development within the class, and planning the sequence of introducing and practicing new material. Watkins (2001) also noted the Chinese teacher should, “ have deep knowledge, be able to answer questions, and be a good moral model (The Good Teacher section, para. 1).” Watkins interpreted this moral model as the teacher setting a good example in society, thus linking school with the community. Thompson's (2000), study of Chinese MBA students indicates that the students would rather use cases based on well-known local companies. This could be because they can then make the connection with the community.

Instructional approaches to Confucianism

The role of questions in the Confusion system is to deepen knowledge, not to fill in gaps of missing information according to Watkins (2001). This would indicate that

any discussion or problem-solving activity must come after students have had time to study and master the material. The curriculum should allow for the same themes to be repeated with additions to the material at each level. Also, due to Confucianism's emphasize on cooperative learning, the goal of any interactive activity (case study, simulation, projects, or problem solving) would also be to provide learning opportunities for group members and to create a community for learning.

Any program, therefore, would need to include time to plan on close collaboration with teachers in Confucian education systems (Hiebert & Stigler, 2001; Kember & Siven, 1995; Steveson & Lee, 1997, Watkins, 2001). Since the teacher and community seems vital to curriculum and instruction, and instruction is usually planned collaboratively, it would be important to include a systematic design process as part of the program.

Conclusion

Many researchers discussed the educational systems of economies in transition (Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999; Ali & Camp, 1995; Brown & Masten, 1998; Contreras & Ruff, 2002; Evans & Birsch, 1995; Hill, 2000; Luthans, Stajkovic, & Ibrayeva, 2000; Morrison, 2000; Renault-Lescure, 2000; Rauch, Rothfufs, & Frese, 1999). The assumption was that educational institutions in these countries would welcome programs that would support the countries' changes. However, this did not prove to be the case. For example, Ahwireng-Obeng and Luthans, Stajkovic, and Ibrayeva describe the national debate on the vision of economic and educational structure of South Africa and the former Soviet Republics, respectively. While public opinion supports a transition from a centrally governed economy and school system, the countries' structures are slow to change.

As a result, foreign assistance will either take a long time to influence any substantial change or will have to work outside the traditional structures. SUNY began by establishing its own Center (working outside the traditional structures) while developing long term programs with the major universities (affecting change over a long time period). The results of the research have a number of programmatic implications. Before establishing a program in an emerging country, a school should look at those factors discussed in this paper. Specifically, they should look at indigenous resources, the language of instruction, the educational basis for business education, and the relationship between business school stakeholders (students, teachers, administrators, businesses, society, and culture). Once these factors are understood, a successful customized program that fulfills all participants' needs can be developed.

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